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Exploring Burnout and Emotional Intelligence in Hungarian Social Care Leaders: The Role of Job Demands and Resources

PhD thesis

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Full Form
AES	Assessing Emotions Scale
BBI	Bergen Burnout Inventory
CBI	Copenhagen Burnout Inventory
COPSOQ	Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire
EJD	Emotional Job Demands
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EIO	EI-Others (understanding others' emotions)
EIS	EI-Self (understanding our emotions)
EIP	EI-Positivity (positive appraisal)
JD-R	Job Demands-Resources Model
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure
MBI	Maslach Burnout Inventory
MCAR	Missing Completely At Random
OLBI	Oldenburg Burnout Inventory
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
RQ1	Research Question 1
RQ2	Research Question 2
RQ3	Research Question 3
SBM	Shirom-Melamed Burnout Questionnaire
SOC	Sense of Community
SSREI	Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Inventory
SSRI	Schutte Self-Report Inventory
SREIT	Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test
H1	Hypothesis 1
H2	Hypothesis 2
H3	Hypothesis 3
H4	Hypothesis 4
H5	Hypothesis 5
H6	Hypothesis 6

1. Introduction

Traditional organisational theory, rooted in Newtonian principles, has emphasised control and breaking systems into parts. However, modern science encourages a shift toward a holistic, relational understanding that focuses on interconnected systems and exploration rather than fixed conclusions. As fields like physics highlight the importance of relational dynamics, organisational science has begun to view major issues through this lens. Relational factors are considered central to effective organisational functioning, as they influence interactions with colleagues, stakeholders, and the broader community. Moreover, once regarded as irrelevant in the workplace, emotions are now essential drivers of performance and satisfaction. Organisations are moving away from viewing workers as interchangeable parts and instead recognising the whole person, designing structures prioritising human potential and well-being (Wheatley, 2006).

Within the evolving framework of organisational science, relational dynamics and emotions are increasingly recognised as central to effective leadership and overall organisational functioning. Emotional intelligence (EI) has garnered substantial scholarly attention because of its influential role in motivation, decision-making, job-related well-being, and leadership behaviours (Gong et al., 2019; Miao et al., 2017; Wen et al., 2019).

At the same time, burnout – a chronic workplace stress condition – poses a significant threat to individuals, leaders, and the organisations they serve (Demerouti & Bakker, 2025; Edú-Valsania et al., 2022). Leaders, in particular, face intense demands on their resources, making them especially vulnerable to burnout. Understanding these demands and the factors that influence leader resilience is crucial for addressing the hidden costs of leadership and sustaining leader energy (Shapiro, 2023).

Emotional intelligence is increasingly recognised as a key protective resource for leaders, especially in helping professions where navigating complex interpersonal dynamics is a daily challenge. It could help leaders manage stress and reduce the risk of burnout (Bhatt, 2024; Jooste & Coetzee, 2022).

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model provides a comprehensive framework for understanding leadership well-being and burnout by balancing job demands – such as emotional and quantitative demands with job resources, including social support, trust, and psychological capabilities. Elevated demands increase the risk of burnout among leaders, while sufficient resources help buffer this risk. Within this model, emotional

intelligence could be both a personal capability that moderates the impact of demands and a crucial factor in building and maintaining job resources. Therefore, EI is not simply an individual trait but a vital leadership competency that can mitigate the adverse effects of job demands and promote resource development, thereby influencing burnout both directly and indirectly.

This research examines the complex relationship between emotional intelligence, burnout, workplace demands, and resources, particularly among leaders in the social care sector. These leaders face exceptionally high emotional needs and are especially vulnerable to burnout due to the intensity and complexity of their leadership roles (Zunz, 1998). Consistent with the evolution of organisational theory toward holistic, relational systems rather than fragmented mechanistic models, this study explores how emotional and relational dynamics shape leaders' well-being and burnout. Insights into how EI helps manage demands and enhance resources provide essential guidance for supporting leaders and their teams in emotionally demanding environments and strengthening leadership effectiveness overall.

1.1. Literature Review

Leaders occupy a central role in the functioning and success of organisations, serving as pivotal agents who guide teams toward shared objectives and sustain organisational equilibrium. To maintain this balance and prevent burnout – both among themselves and their subordinates – leaders must actively foster psychosocial resources, while effectively managing and buffering the demands inherent in the workplace. Central to this process is the capacity to recognise, understand, and regulate one's own emotions as well as those of others. Emotional intelligence enables leaders to cultivate supportive and trustworthy work environments where individuals can thrive. Such emotionally attuned leadership not only enhances employees' well-being but also contributes to improved organisational outcomes, as a positive and resilient workplace climate allows both leaders and employees to perform optimally and sustain their engagement over time. Building on this perspective, this literature review, utilising the Job Demands-Resources theory as an integrative framework, aims to explore the complex relationship between emotional intelligence, burnout, job resources, and demands, with a special focus on the leadership role.

1.1.1. The Job-Demand Resources Model

The Job Demand-Resource (JD-R) model, developed in the early 2000s, is an integrative and balanced framework initially designed to understand burnout (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, 2017, 2018; Bakker & Vries, 2021). Over time, it has been expanded to include work engagement (Schaufeli, 2017), offering a positive perspective on work engagement and a negative one on burnout. The model categorises occupational characteristics into two primary groups: job demands and resources (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). *Job demands* are "aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs" (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Job demands, including high workload, emotional demands, job security, interpersonal conflicts and other stressors, can impact employees' well-being. While not always harmful, these demands can lead to job stress when overcoming them requires substantial effort (Bakker et al., 2003, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). *Job resources* are defined as the "aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development" (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Job resources, among others, include social support, training opportunities, autonomy, job security and task variety (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001).

The JD-R model explains the interplay between job demands, resources and their impact on employee outcomes through two distinct psychological processes. The Health Impairment Process occurs when job demands exceed available resources, resulting in burnout, energy depletion and various adverse consequences, such as illness, absenteeism and diminished performance. Conversely, the Motivational Process occurs when employees benefit from ample job resources, fostering engagement, organisational commitment, and enhanced performance (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli, 2017). The JD-R model posits that having adequate resources can help mitigate the impact of job demands (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti et al., 2001). Employees with abundant resources are better equipped to cope with demanding work conditions. However, this interaction is contingent on specific job characteristics. Different job demands are likely to be influenced by various resources (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007;

Demerouti et al., 2001; Jonge et al., 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007b). Additionally, enhancing motivational factors and resources has been shown to reduce burnout, while simply reducing job demands may not necessarily increase workplace engagement. This paradox arises from the nuanced nature of job demands. Moderate challenges can stimulate engagement, whereas excessively low demands may lead to reduced engagement (Schaufeli, 2017). Thus, job demands can be distinguished between challenge and hindrance demands. While both types are stressors, challenges can promote motivation and engagement by offering growth opportunities, whereas hindrances obstruct goal attainment and functioning (Aiello & Tesi, 2017; Geisler et al., 2019; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007b; Demerouti et al., 2015).

1.1.2. Burnout

Over the last fifty years, burnout has become a widely discussed and researched psychological issue associated with work, with a prevalence comparable to that of conditions such as diabetes (Demerouti, 2024; Mák, 2021). The magnitude of this problem justifies exploration and intervention at individual, organisational and even national levels (Kiss et al., 2018). Research on work-related burnout has been conducted across a wide range of occupations worldwide since the mid-1970s. However, the concept has much earlier roots, as the challenges arising from the individual-work relationship have long been recognised as a crucial phenomenon. The term "burnout" was first introduced by Freudenberg (1974) and concurrently by Maslach and Jackson (1976) in the scientific community. Both Freudenberg and Maslach applied the concept of burnout to helping professionals. Despite extensive research on burnout, its precise definition, operationalisation, and measurement remain subjects of debate (Demerouti, 2024; Maslach & Leiter, 2007; Leiter & Maslach, 2009).

Various authors offer different definitions of job-related burnout, leading to diverse assumptions, causes, and effects, as well as varying measurement tools (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Demerouti, 2024; Kiss et al., 2018; Maslach & Leiter, 2007; Leiter & Maslach, 2019; Maslach & Leiter, 2016; Schaufeli et al., 2009). Nonetheless, some commonalities can be identified. Burnout is acknowledged to manifest at an individual level, representing an internal and negative psychological experience involving emotions, motivations, expectations, attitudes, and problem perception (Maslach & Leiter, 2007, 2016). Most perspectives conceptualise burnout as a psychological condition akin to a chronic stress syndrome where individuals lose motivation to exert effort in their jobs.

The more an employee embraces negative feelings, the higher the likelihood of adverse consequences (Bakker & Vries, 2021).

Burnout measurement relies heavily on instruments like the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), developed by Maslach and Jackson (1981, 1986) and revised in 1996, which is the primary tool for assessing burnout. It defines burnout by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization/cynicism, and reduced personal accomplishment/professional efficiency, primarily in the context of "people work" (Kiss et al., 2018; Kristensen et al., 2005; Maslach & Jackson, 1986). Some argue that fewer or one dimension suffices to capture burnout (Kiss et al., 2018). Alternatives include the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI), focusing on emotional exhaustion across personal, work and client contexts (Kristensen et al., 2005); the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Questionnaire (SMBQ), emphasizing physical and emotional exhaustion as core burnout symptoms (Kiss et al., 2018), the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI), measuring exhaustion and disengagement with positive and negative wording (Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007); the Bergen Burnout Inventory (BBI), which retains the MBI's three-part structure (Feldt et al., 2014); and the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ), linking burnout with demands, resources, and leadership in line with the JD-R model (Berthelsen et al., 2018). A more recent measurement tool is the Burnout Assessment Tool (BAT), which reflects an integrative attempt to overcome conceptual and psychometric limitations of earlier models. The BAT conceptualises burnout as a syndrome characterised by four core dimensions: exhaustion, mental distance, cognitive impairment, and emotional impairment. Importantly, it aims to provide a more unified and clinically relevant operationalisation of burnout that is applicable across occupational groups, not limited to human service professions (Schaufeli et al., 2020).

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model posits that burnout results from an imbalance where excessive job demands overwhelm limited job resources (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2009). Job demands require sustained effort and primarily lead to emotional exhaustion, which is proposed to be the core dimension of burnout (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; Leiter & Maslach, 2009; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). In contrast, job help buffers the adverse effects of demands and fosters engagement (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001). Thus, burnout arises from a complex interplay of individual and contextual factors, including workload, insufficient organisational support, social isolation and emotional demands (Bakker & Vries, 2021;

Demerouti, 2024; Mák, 2021). Its consequences extend beyond individuals, impairing interpersonal relationships and organisational health, and are associated with mental health disorders, absenteeism, and physical illnesses (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Mihalka, 2023).

Furthermore, the burnout process is cyclical: stress leads to exhaustion and reduced self-efficacy, which in turn diminishes job performance and increases work pressure, thereby exacerbating burnout (Gong et al., 2019). While burnout is predominantly harmful, it may occasionally lead to personal growth through coping and self-reflection, although such positive outcomes vary widely (Mihalka, 2023).

1.1.3. Personal Resources and Emotional Intelligence

Burnout's profound impact on individuals and organisations highlights the importance of identifying factors that enhance resilience and well-being. Given the growing recognition of emotions – particularly for leaders managing complex interpersonal dynamics – personal resources like emotional intelligence (EI) have been proposed as key components to include within the Job Demands-Resources model to support resilience and buffer burnout (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Nizielski, 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). Higher levels of personal resources are associated with greater optimism and better adaptation, enabling employees to focus on available resources rather than demands, thereby preventing exhaustion (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). These resources also facilitate the mobilisation of additional supports, helping individuals recognise and manage fatigue early, which aids in preventing burnout (Bakker & Vries, 2021). While these resources clearly contribute to resilience and positively influence the work environment, their exact role within the JD-R model – whether as antecedents, mediators, or moderators of job demands and resources – remains a subject of ongoing debate (Schaufeli, 2017).

Emotional intelligence, as a potential personal resource (Kozák et al., 2025a), enhances individuals' ability to regulate emotions and navigate interpersonal relationships, thereby buffering job-related stress and promoting well-being (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Nizielski, 2014). Since Goleman's popularisation in 1995, EI has drawn extensive interest across psychology, education, and leadership (Goleman, 1995; Mayer et al., 2008). Rooted in social and multiple intelligence theories (Gardner, 1983; Thorndike, 1920), EI encompasses the abilities to perceive, regulate, and strategically use emotions in oneself and others (Mayer et al., 2008; O'Connor et al., 2019; Salovey &

Mayer, 1990). In the early 1990s, psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer began to develop the modern concept of emotional intelligence. They defined it as the "ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). Since the 1990s, extensive research on emotional intelligence has led to the development of numerous models and assessment tools, focusing on its definition, classification and measurement (Kun, 2011; O'Connor et al., 2019). Despite the original conceptualisation by Salovey and Mayer, EI remains a complex construct with varied definitions, such as Gignac's adaptive use of emotional processes (Gignac, 2010), Bar-On's emotional-social competencies (Bar-On, 2006), Boyatzis' focus on emotional information for superior performance (Boyatzis, 2009) and Petrides' trait-based emotional self-perceptions (Petrides, 2010). Most models fall into three categories: ability, trait, or mixed (Kun, 2011; McCleskey, 2014; O'Connor et al., 2019). Ability EI measures emotional functioning through performance tasks, while trait EI reflects self-reported emotional behaviours (Austin et al., 2004; O'Connor et al., 2019; Pérez et al., 2005; Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Mixed models combine emotional abilities with personality traits and social skills but face criticism for blending diverse elements (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Kun, 2011; Muiya, 2009; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). To reduce confusion, some scholars distinguish EI as core emotional abilities, separating it from broader emotional and social competencies (Cherniss, 2010; Kun, 2011). Nevertheless, consensus exists around four core EI facets: perceiving emotions, regulating emotions in oneself and others, and strategically using emotions, reflecting ongoing debates about EI's operationalisation and measurement (O'Connor et al., 2019).

Additionally, measuring EI remains challenging due to its reliance on subjective assessments and overlap with personality traits. Controversies exist regarding the validity of self-report EI instruments (Goldenberg et al., 2006; O'Connor et al., 2019; Tett et al., 2012). Unlike cognitive tests with clear right or wrong answers, EI assessments often rely on subjective judgments (O'Connor et al., 2019). Self-report EI measures are popular but have notable limitations. Their reliability is questioned because self-assessments are subjective and prone to social desirability bias, especially when results may be reviewed by supervisors (Goldenberg et al., 2006; O'Connor et al., 2019; Tett et al., 2012). Additionally, self-reports may be influenced by personality traits, overlapping with instruments like the Big Five personality test (O'Connor et al., 2019).

Despite the lack of a clear definition and consensus on measurement tools, a substantial body of prior research highlights the significant and predictive nature of emotional intelligence in organisational contexts (Kozák et al., 2025b). Studies consistently indicate its positive associations with job performance, job satisfaction, turnover intention, teamwork, organisational commitment, work attitudes and stress management (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Bachman et al., 2000; George, 2000; Goleman et al., 2002; Gong et al., 2019; Law et al., 2004; Miao et al., 2017; Prati et al., 2003; Sy et al., 2006; Trivellas et al., 2011; Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler, 2010; Wen et al., 2019; Wong & Law, 2002). Moreover, numerous studies emphasise the pivotal role of emotional intelligence in fostering effective social and emotional adaptation (Kozák et al., 2025a). Individuals with high emotional intelligence are regarded as more skilled in managing their own emotions, which enables them to build positive relationships and social connections with colleagues and even building workplace friendships (Kozák et al., 2025b; Schutzmann et al., 2025), thereby fostering a more cohesive workplace environment, a stronger sense of community and greater trust in others (Al-Bawaliz et al., 2015; Gong et al., 2019; Kozák et al., 2025a; Kozák et al., 2025b; Loi & Pryce, 2022; Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017; Moraes et al., 2015; Özbey et al., 2018; Platsidou, 2010; Schoeps et al., 2021; Trainor et al., 2025; Vlachou et al., 2016).

Emotional intelligence encompasses skills such as emotional regulation and understanding, which are effective in alleviating work-related stress (Ugwu & Igbende, 2017). Individuals with higher EI tend to adapt more positively to workplace demands and cope better with stress than those with lower EI (Nastasa & Farcas, 2015), exhibiting greater flexibility and the capacity to regulate emotions like frustration and anger in professional settings (Lee & Ok, 2012). Thus, emotional intelligence is positively associated with effective coping strategies and mechanisms and negatively linked to stress, with higher EI shown to be inversely related to burnout (Al-Bawaliz et al., 2015; Gong et al., 2019; Loi & Pryce, 2022; Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017; Moraes et al., 2015; Platsidou, 2010; Schoeps et al., 2021; Trainor et al., 2025; Vlachou et al., 2016). However, the relationship between EI and job stress or burnout is not uniformly established in the literature, as some studies report conflicting results (Magnano et al., 2016). Overall, this relationship is considered moderate, with higher EI generally linked to lower burnout levels, though there is notable heterogeneity across studies and a low risk of bias (Mendonça et al., 2023). While causality remains unproven, evidence suggests that key EI facets – particularly emotional regulation as emphasised in Mayer and

Salovey's model – are correlated with reduced burnout (Mendonça et al., 2023; Prati & Karriker, 2010). Specifically, the ability to regulate one's own and others' emotions alleviates stress stemming from emotional demands in the workplace (Prati & Karriker, 2010). High trait EI is especially effective in managing negative emotions, such as anger and sadness, thereby mitigating burnout (Szczygiel & Mikolajczak, 2018). In general, EI-related skills help mitigate burnout by improving coping with work-related emotional stress (Lindeman et al., 2017).

Among EI facets, emotional self-assessment, emotion regulation, and the strategic use of emotions show the strongest links to burnout reduction, aligning with the logic of the Job Demands-Resources model. These findings highlight that workplace interventions aimed at enhancing EI could effectively target emotional exhaustion and related burnout components (Mendonça et al., 2023). Additionally, subgroup analyses reveal differences across occupations, with healthcare professionals and teachers showing varying relationships between emotional intelligence and burnout. Factors such as the intensity of emotional labour help explain why the strength of this relationship differs across professions and educational levels.

Additionally, following the affective revolution, research has highlighted the positive impact of emotional intelligence in the workplace (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), although recent studies also show that EI can have downsides. Imbalances in EI – such as high EI without sufficient self-esteem or regulation – may increase vulnerability and psychological discomfort (Davis & Nichols, 2016). High EI may also heighten stress reactivity and slow recovery from adverse events, potentially leading to mood declines after stress (Sevdalis et al., 2007). Although emotional intelligence may have some potential adverse effects, when it functions effectively as a resource and is balanced with adequate supporting resources, it can be a powerful tool for promoting workplace well-being and combating burnout (Gong et al., 2019; Loi & Pryce, 2022; Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017; Moraes et al., 2015; Platsidou, 2010; Schoeps et al., 2021; Trainor et al., 2025; Vlachou et al., 2016).

In sum, while EI generally protects against burnout, particularly emotional exhaustion, its multidimensional nature and measurement diversity call for nuanced research targeting specific EI components, occupations and longitudinal outcomes to optimise interventions. Given the mixed findings regarding the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout in the existing literature, it is essential to acknowledge from the outset that this association is not always straightforward. This complexity

highlights the need for further empirical investigation. Moreover, the specific context of the Hungarian social care system presents a particularly relevant arena for this inquiry, given its unique structural, cultural and resource-related challenges that may shape the experience of leadership, psychosocial resources, and burnout.

1.1.4. Workplace Resources and Demands

Within the framework of the Job Demands–Resources model, emotional intelligence is posited to be positively associated with psychosocial resources, which, in turn, are theorised to be inversely related to burnout (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Nizielski, 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). Consequently, psychological and social resources may serve as mediators or moderators in the relationship between EI and burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001; Kozák et al., 2025a; Nastasa & Farcas, 2015; Schaufeli et al., 2009; Ugwu & Igbende, 2017). In contrast, job demands are typically identified as primary antecedents of burnout. At the same time, EI is suggested to potentially attenuate the adverse effects of these demands or enhance individuals' capacity to cope with increased job demands. A synthesis of the existing literature indicates that EI may strengthen psychological resources, thereby contributing to the mitigation of burnout, and may also act as a buffer, particularly against emotional job demands (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Nizielski, 2014). Within the JD-R framework, EI, as a personal resource, may operate at multiple stages – as a mediator, moderator, or antecedent – although the precise mechanisms remain to be further elucidated through empirical investigation (Schaufeli, 2017; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). Incorporating psychosocial resources and job demands into a model of emotional intelligence and burnout provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how workplace dynamics influence employee well-being. This dissertation reviews two key psychosocial resources in relation to EI and burnout: sense of community and mutual trust, as well as two job demands – emotional and quantitative demands.

Sense of Community

Individuals tend to prefer workplaces characterised by connection, support and reciprocal caring. Those with higher EI are generally perceived as better at managing emotions and building strong social relationships with coworkers, which may foster workplace cohesion and a stronger sense of community (SOC) (Charoensukmongkol et al, 2013; Özbey et al., 2018). Sarason (1977) defined the Sense of Community as the perception of similarity with others, acknowledged interdependence, willingness to maintain interdependence through reciprocal exchanges and a feeling of being part of a

larger, stable structure (Sarason, 1977, p. 157). McMillan and Chavis (1986) similarly described SOC as members feeling belongingness, mattering to each other, and sharing faith in collective support (McMillan & Chavis, 1986, p. 9), identifying four dimensions: membership, fulfilment of needs, shared emotional connection and influence (Dixon et al., 2015; McMillan & Chavis, 1986). Accordingly, psychological SOC at work relates to employees' sense of membership, identification and participation in job-relevant groups. This sense of belonging appears to be influenced by individual and organisational factors (Klein & D'Aunno, 1986). A sense of community has been linked to increased happiness, security, a sense of belonging and a positive self-concept. Improved communication and coordination resulting from SOC may lead to higher commitment, cooperation, job satisfaction, and lower absenteeism and turnover rates (Klein & D'Aunno, 1986; Milliman et al., 2003). Fostering a positive psychological sense of community at work not only enhances individual well-being, but it also brings significant organisational benefits like lower stress, less burnout, fewer absences, and reduced healthcare costs (Daniel, 2015; Keren, 1997; Klein & D'Aunno, 1986; Milliman et al., 2003). When employees feel connected and supported, this sense of community strengthens their ability to cope with workplace stress – much like social support does – helping to prevent burnout and promote healthier workplace dynamics.

Trust

Trust is a psychological term marked by uncertainty and dependence on others' intentions (Hassan et al., 2012; Martins, 2002). Mayer et al. (1995) conceptualise trust as the willingness to be vulnerable based on positive expectations of another party's behaviour, independent of control mechanisms (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 712). Rousseau and colleagues (1998) similarly emphasise psychological vulnerability rooted in positive expectations (Rousseau et al., 1998, p. 395).

Interpersonal Trust

Trust exists in many forms and can be observed at different levels, from individual personalities to entire institutions. At the personal level, trust can be categorised into two primary forms: intrapersonal and interpersonal. Intrapersonal trust is the confidence a person has in their own abilities as a communicator or listener, reflecting self-belief and self-reliance. On the other hand, interpersonal trust emerges between individuals and is crucial for building trustworthy relationships (Mayer et al., 1995). Hassan et al. (2012) describe interpersonal trust as the degree to which an individual feels confident and willing to rely on another person's words, actions, and decisions. This specific type of

trust is especially valuable in professional settings, as it helps build essential social resources that foster collaboration, team cohesion, and an environment where individuals feel safe to engage and communicate openly. Within organisations and leadership, interpersonal trust is essential for creating a positive and cohesive community. It plays a key role in establishing a well-functioning microclimate where team members feel confident relying on one another, ultimately supporting the success and resilience of the organisation (Dirks & Jong, 2022; Hassan et al., 2012; Martins, 2002; Simpson, 2007). Feeling trusted by others may enhance job outcomes by improving access to resources and opportunities, which could increase performance (Dirks & Jong, 2022). Emotional intelligence has been positively linked with the ability to build trust with others (Christie et al., 2015; Rezvani et al., 2018). Trust in others also appears to influence how employees perceive managerial behaviour and decisions (Dirks & Jong, 2022; Jiang & Probst, 2016, 2019). When managers are perceived as trustworthy interpersonally, employees may feel more secure and interpret decisions more favourably; conversely, low trust is associated with greater psychological stress (Jiang & Probst, 2019). Supportive supervision that fosters trust can promote beneficial employee-supervisor exchanges, enhancing communication, problem-solving, organisational citizenship, and commitment, which may reduce turnover intentions (Hassan et al., 2012). Trust in management may buffer the adverse effects of high job demands, as employees report less strain and a more positive appraisal of demands when trust is high (Burtscher et al., 2018). Hence, trust in others is considered a critical leadership trait valued for organisational effectiveness (Khan et al., 2020). However, a lack of trust is correlated with adverse outcomes, including burnout, which may be attributed to resource depletion (Lambert et al., 2012; Nicholson et al., 2014). Additionally, some findings suggest that increased responsibility borne through trust may sometimes contribute to emotional exhaustion (Dirks & Jong, 2022).

Through a comprehensive synthesis of existing literature, it can be observed that emotional intelligence plays a significant role in the development and enhancement of psychosocial resources within organisational settings. Individuals with higher EI tend to be more adept at managing their own emotions and navigating social interactions, which can enhance social support, interpersonal trust, and a sense of community among colleagues. These psychosocial resources are essential for fostering a positive work environment and safeguarding employees against stress and burnout. Additionally, EI may serve a buffering role in mitigating the negative impact of job demands.

Emotional Job Demands

Research indicates that work volume and pace impact well-being and performance, with mounting pressure in many sectors (Veldhoven, 2013). Job demands require sustained physical, cognitive or emotional effort, influencing motivation and well-being (Demerouti et al., 2001). Emotional job demands (EJD) refer to the expression and experience of emotions and are particularly taxing in terms of emotional exhaustion and resource depletion (Tuxford & Bradley, 2014). Emotional job demands, though variably defined in the literature, have been conceptualised by Tuxford and Bradley (2014) as encompassing three key elements: exposure to emotionally challenging situations, the requirement to engage in emotional labour, and the responsibility to cultivate and maintain positive interpersonal relationships. Positions with limited social interaction, such as those in IT services, generally experience low emotional job demands (EJDs). In contrast, service and caregiving professions – often involving emotionally charged interactions – are characterised by high EJDs (Geisler et al., 2019; Wieck et al., 2021). As a result, employees in these fields frequently find their emotional job demands substantial and often challenging to manage (Aiello & Tesi, 2017; Geisler et al., 2019). Emotional job demands are established key stressors that significantly influence organisational outcomes, employees' well-being and burnout (Aiello & Tesi, 2017; Bakker et al., 2003; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). Burnout, particularly prevalent in people-oriented professions, is conceptualised as an individual response to elevated emotional demands (Aiello & Tesi, 2017; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Maslach, 1982; Maslach et al., 2001; Schutzmann et al., 2025). The detrimental impact of emotional demands on burnout could be especially pronounced when employees lack adequate personal or job-related resources or emotional intelligence capabilities (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Duarte et al., 2020; Jonge et al., 2008; Demerouti et al., 2015; Zapf & Holz, 2006).

Recent studies also demonstrate that job demands often interact, producing cumulative or mitigating effects on employee outcomes (Kozák et al., 2025; Schutzmann et al., 2025). For example, Van Woerkom et al. identified that high workload intensified the adverse relationship between emotional demands and sick leave among mental health professionals (van Woerkom et al., 2016). Similarly, Jimmieson et al. found that emotional demands have a more harmful effect on health when cognitive and time demands are elevated but may buffer adverse outcomes when these other demands are low (Geisler et al., 2019; Jimmieson et al., 2017). Such findings highlight the importance

of alleviating one type of demand to reduce the harmful effects of others – a critical consideration in human service settings, where emotional demands are inherently challenging to minimise (Geisler et al., 2019).

In contrast, the boosting hypothesis within the Job Demands–Resources model posits that emotional job demands can also function as motivational factors that foster engagement and growth. This positive effect is most evident when employees have access to sufficient personal or job-related resources, enabling them to leverage emotional demands to enhance engagement, organisational connectedness, creativity, and motivation (Aiello & Tesi, 2017; Duarte et al., 2020; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007b, Demerouti et al., 2015). In such resource-rich contexts, workers can effectively transform potentially taxing emotional demands into opportunities for personal and organisational benefit. At the same time, these resources concurrently buffer the harmful health impacts typically associated with high job demands (Duarte et al., 2020).

Quantitative Job Demands

When discussing quantitative job demands, terms such as long working hours, overtime, workload, work pressure, and work pace are commonly used, each carrying subtle differences in meaning (Veldhoven, 2013). To clarify this terminology, this dissertation adopts Veldhoven's (2013) neutral definition of quantitative job demands as aspects of the work environment related to the amount and speed of work requiring physical and/or psychological effort (Veldhoven, 2013).

Quantitative job demands arise from both external and internal organisational factors. Externally, environmental uncertainty, competition-driven productivity norms and legal or political institutions shape job demands, which are influenced by cultural work values and acceptable working hours (Karasek et al., 1998). Labour market conditions, including skilled worker shortages, also affect demand by creating staffing challenges. Technological advances further extend work beyond traditional hours and locations, increasing work-family conflict (Veldhoven, 2013).

Internally, organisations' discretion in job design – shaped by management style, organisational culture and performance climate – affects demands, ranging from supportive to exploitative approaches. Managerial innovations could also intensify demands by imposing tighter deadlines and reducing workforce size. Human resource practices such as pay schemes, training, recruitment, and performance appraisal influence

quantitative demands by incentivising work speed and shaping employees' coping capacity (Veldhoven, 2013).

The level of quantitative job demands has a significant impact on job performance, employee well-being and health, with both short-term and long-term consequences. Parallel with the boost hypothesis, an inverted U-shaped relationship has been proposed between job demands and job performance and satisfaction, where moderate demands enhance activation and performance up to an optimal point (Veldhoven, 2013). At the same time, prolonged high demands can lead to burnout, as well as both quantitative and organisational job demands correlate strongly with emotional job demands, all associated with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Houkes et al., 2003; Karasek et al., 1998; Peeters & LeBlanc, 2001; Schreurs & Taris, 1998; Veldhoven, 2013).

1.1.5. Leadership in the context of emotional intelligence and burnout: A specific focus on social care leadership

Incorporating psychosocial resources and job demands into a model of emotional intelligence and burnout can provide a comprehensive framework for understanding how workplace dynamics influence employee well-being (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Kozák et al., 2025a; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). A sense of community and mutual trust are essential at work because they help employees feel supported, included, and connected to others. When people experience these psychosocial resources, it's easier for them to build positive relationships, trust their colleagues, and feel that they truly belong – leading to a healthier and more productive organisational atmosphere. These resources enhance employees' ability to cope with stress and bolster resilience, thereby complementing the role of EI in managing emotional challenges (Kozák et al., 2025a; Bakker & Vries, 2021; Charoensukmongkol et al., 2013; Özbey et al., 2018; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). On the other hand, emotional and quantitative demands represent significant job stressors that require sustained effort and can deplete employees' energy, increasing the risk of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001; Schuttmann et al., 2025a; Tuxford & Bradley, 2014; Veldhoven, 2013). By integrating these demands and resources into the EI-burnout model, it becomes possible to capture the interactive processes through which EI not only helps individuals regulate their own and others' emotions but also leverages psychosocial resources to buffer the adverse effects of high job demands (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Nizielski, 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007a). This integrated approach highlights how balancing demands with psychosocial resources and EI skills is essential for preventing burnout and

promoting workplace well-being (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli, 2017). These factors are especially important for leaders, who are particularly vulnerable to burnout due to the intense demands for resources and the need to manage complex emotional and relational dynamics within their teams and organisations (Bhatt, 2024; Jooste & Coetzee, 2022; Shapiro, 2023). Therefore, it is advisable to delineate the triadic relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership, and burnout from the outset, particularly by considering the specific characteristics of the social care environment. This sector is marked by elevated emotional demands, organisational uncertainty, limited financial recognition, and intense interpersonal relationships, which collectively increase the complexity and challenges faced by leaders (Bailey, 2021; Wilson, 2016; Lizano, 2015; Mák, 2021; Schwartz et al., 2007; Wagaman et al., 2015; Zunz, 1998). Significantly, leaders' EI not only impacts their subordinates' well-being but also plays a critical role in preventing burnout among the leaders themselves (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Nizielski, 2014; Shapiro, 2023).

Leadership forms the foundation of every organisation by guiding teams toward shared goals and motivating employees to prioritise organisational success. As organisations have evolved from rigid hierarchical structures to more flexible and interactive models, the nature of leadership has shifted accordingly – from controlling and planning towards inspiring, motivating, and fostering positive attitudes and a sense of value among employees (Palmer et al., 2001; Prati et al., 2003). This evolution has increased organisational expectations that professionals demonstrate competence not only in technical skills but also in effectively managing social and emotional workplace dynamics (Peixoto & Muniz., 2022). Consequently, leaders must be proficient in understanding both their own and their employees' cognitive and emotional processes (Bashir, 2017; Mahenthiran Aloysius, 2010; Prati et al., 2003).

Within the Job Demands-Resources model, leadership EI can be conceptualised as a pivotal workplace resource that contributes to both organisational effectiveness and leaders' psychological well-being. Goleman and colleagues emphasise the significance of EI in effective leadership, suggesting that it enables leaders to imbue their managerial roles with meaning and resilience, providing a competitive advantage over those less attuned to emotional dynamics (Goleman et al., 2002; Mayer et al., 2002). Leaders with high EI are often more capable of addressing employee concerns and fostering supportive workplace communities; thus, EI is recognised as a vital leadership competency that

enhances team motivation, cultivates emotionally safe environments, and fosters trust (Babar et al., 2017; Charoensukmongkol et al., 2013; Perry, 2015; Prati et al., 2003).

Despite its importance, leadership is widely acknowledged as a demanding role accompanied by considerable psychological stress. Empirical evidence indicates that leaders with higher emotional intelligence tend to exhibit better psychological well-being and greater job security compared to those with lower EI. Furthermore, such leaders often foster organisational cultures rich in feedback, which can buffer workplace stress and reduce the incidence of burnout. Their enhanced EI capabilities facilitate proactive stress management and the implementation of strategies aimed at mitigating burnout risk (Bashir, 2017; Chen & Chen, 2018; Mahenthiran Aloysius, 2010; Morrison, 2006; Prati et al., 2003; Ugrenovic et al., 2020). In contrast, burnout experienced by leaders can result in deteriorations in followers' job satisfaction and personal resources, which subsequently increases burnout among employees. This resource depletion acts as a mediator for the transfer of burnout from leaders to their teams, emphasising the necessity to address resource loss to prevent workplace burnout (Huang et al., 2016).

The social work context exemplifies these dynamics markedly, as the profession faces a crisis both nationally and internationally (Bugarszki, 2004; Győri & Perpék, 2021; Rác, 2015). As human service organisations prioritise client outcomes over profits and operate under considerable external pressures, such as governmental funding constraints and limited resources, they demand more strategic and adaptive leadership than many for-profit organisations. Consequently, practical and inspiring leadership is essential in human services professions, as individual efforts alone seldom achieve organisational objectives. Human service agencies are thus heavily dependent on skilled management to maintain and evolve their missions (Goleman et al., 2002; Sims-Vanzant, 2007). Although social workers begin their careers motivated by a desire to help clients gain autonomy, challenges related to clients, systemic issues, and organisational problems often lead to burnout (Győri & Perpék, 2021) and subsequently to negative organisational outcomes, e.g. to high turnover rates and workforce shortages, which negatively affect service quality, client trust, and cause anxiety among workers (Győri & Perpék, 2021; Rác, 2015). Research by Johnson et al. (2005) further highlights the vulnerability of social service professionals to burnout, noting that they experience some of the poorest physical and psychological health and the lowest job satisfaction across a wide range of professions. While frontline social workers' burnout has been extensively studied (Lizano, 2015; Schwartz et al., 2007; Wagaman et al., 2015; Wilson, 2016; Zunz, 1998),

fewer studies have directly addressed burnout among social care leaders, who, despite limited client contact, remain highly susceptible to burnout (Zunz, 1998). Research indicates that leadership style and emotional intelligence are significant contributors to resilience, well-being, and job satisfaction in social work (Bailey, 2021).

The ability to recognise and regulate emotions – both personally and in others – is critical across social work practice (Bashir, 2017; Mahenthiran Aloysius, 2010; Morrison, 2006; Prati et al., 2003). Consequently, EI is increasingly acknowledged as vital for social workers to process emotions effectively, relate empathically to clients, and mitigate stress and burnout (Ingram, 2013). Given the complex emotional challenges inherent in social work, examining the role of EI in leadership is particularly relevant (Bailey, 2021). Although prior research indicates that leadership and EI can buffer job stress and burnout, empirical studies specifically exploring the interplay among social work leadership, emotional intelligence, and burnout remain limited.

1.1.6. The Hungarian Perspective of Social Care

Defining the Hungarian social care system is complex due to its changing history, diverse professional practices, and evolving legislative context. The sector retains elements from its earlier state socialist structures, as reflected in legal frameworks such as the Social Act of 1993 (Act III) (Bugarszki, 2004; Talygás & Hegyesi, 2014). Social care in Hungary (“szociális ellátás”) encompasses services and support provided to individuals and families in need due to age, child welfare and security, elderly care, disability, unemployment, addiction or other social disadvantages (Hoffman, 2020; Petri, 2021). These services are regulated mainly by the Social Act of 1993 and delivered through a combination of state, municipal, church, and non-governmental organisations, with a recent trend toward centralisation.

Since the political transition in the late twentieth century, social work has experienced a revival in Hungary. Higher education programs were reintroduced, and legislation has evolved to reflect new social realities. Despite this progress, professional training still faces challenges, including inconsistent education standards across universities, diverse teaching methods, and ongoing debates regarding the market value and recognition of BA and MA degrees. In parallel, the workforce faces considerable obstacles. Although the number of social work graduates and students has risen steadily since the 1990s, employment opportunities remain uneven, especially in rural areas, where recruitment struggles compared to urban centres. The sector is characterised by

low pay, limited autonomy, and modest occupational prestige. Social care professionals typically rank in the third quartile for occupational prestige in Hungary (Budai, 2004; Bugarszki, 2004; Erdős et al., 2020; Goldmann et al., 2016; Gyarmati, 2021; KSH, 2018; Rácz, 2015, 2020; Schutzmann et al., 2023; Temesváry, 2010). A major challenge for strategic planning and policymaking is the lack of reliable data. Precise figures on the number of qualified social workers and their competencies vary widely, with estimates ranging from 5,000 to 100,000 (Talygás & Hegyesi, 2014; Mányai & Bass, 2006; Szoboszlai, 2014). Furthermore, the exact number of middle and senior leaders in the system remains unknown, forcing reliance on indirect information when estimating population size.

2. Objectives

2.1. Aim of the research

This study examines the complex interrelations among emotional intelligence, psychosocial resources, job demands and burnout in the case of Hungarian social care leaders, utilising the Job Demands-Resources framework. Emphasis is placed on psychosocial resources as potential mediators that can mitigate burnout. The research posits that EI contributes to the development of psychosocial resources – namely, a supportive work environment characterised by strong community and mutual trust, which subsequently alleviates burnout. Furthermore, in an additional line of inquiry, the study explores the moderating effect of EI on the association between job demands (emotional and quantitative demands) and burnout.

2.2. Research Questions and Hypothesis

Based on the previously presented literature and findings, and the understanding of the Hungarian system and context, this study aims to address the following research questions and evaluate corresponding hypotheses:

Research Question 1 (RQ1): What is the nature and strength of the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout among Hungarian social care leaders?

Research on burnout among social care leaders both internationally and in Hungary is limited, even though high burnout rates among social workers are well-documented. Hungarian social care leaders face severe stressors that increase burnout risk, impacting their well-being and organisational effectiveness. Extensive empirical evidence consistently indicates an inverse association between emotional intelligence and burnout across diverse occupational contexts, as demonstrated by numerous studies. Understanding the link between emotional intelligence and burnout is essential, as it may reveal protective factors that help leaders manage stress and foster supportive work environments. This knowledge supports targeted interventions to enhance resilience and reduce burnout. Thus, hypothesis 1 is as follows: **H1: A significant association exists between emotional intelligence and burnout.**

Research Question 2 (RQ2): How do workplace psychosocial resources, such as mutual trust and a sense of community, influence the interrelation between emotional intelligence and burnout among Hungarian Social Care Leaders?

In the following section, three hypotheses are formulated to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout, examining it through the lens of psychosocial job resources (a sense of community and trust). The key elements of this conceptual model will be illustrated in Figure 1.

Emotional intelligence is suggested to positively enhance the sense of community, which in turn is negatively associated with burnout in emotionally demanding work environments. Therefore, in the context of Hungarian social care leadership, emotional intelligence may indirectly protect against burnout by fostering a cohesive and supportive community environment. **H2: A sense of community mediates the association between emotional intelligence and burnout.** *The hypothesis is represented in Figure 1 by the path labelled as $b_2 * b_3$.*

Individuals with higher emotional intelligence tend to build greater interpersonal trust, which is linked to lower burnout levels. This is especially important for Hungarian social care leaders, whose roles involve emotionally demanding tasks and collaboration. When trust exists, leaders provide more support, and employees strive harder to meet expectations. Hence, emotionally intelligent leadership could promote trust-rich environments that reduce burnout by alleviating emotional strain and strengthening teamwork. **H3: Mutual trust mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout.** *The hypothesis is depicted in Figure 1 by the pathway labelled as $b_4 * b_5$.*

Hungarian social care leaders face high job demands such as managing emotionally charged situations, coordinating teams, ensuring compliance with regulations, and addressing diverse client needs. These challenges require adaptability, collaboration, and strong interpersonal skills. Balancing such pressures increases burnout risk. However, leaders with high emotional intelligence can cultivate psychosocial resources like a strong sense of community and mutual trust, fostering a positive organisational climate. These resources act as critical buffers that help leaders manage demands effectively, reduce stress, and lower burnout risk. Consequently, this hypothesis asserts that a serial mediation pathway exists between emotional intelligence (EI) and burnout, wherein higher levels of leaders' EI promote the development of a stronger sense of community. This enhanced community, in turn, fosters greater mutual trust, which ultimately contributes to a reduction in burnout.

Thus, the causal sequence follows the path: EI → Sense of Community → Mutual Trust → Burnout. **H4: A serial mediating path exists through a sense of community and mutual trust, connecting emotional intelligence and burnout.** The hypothesis is illustrated in Figure 1 by the pathway labelled as $b_2*b_6*b_5$.

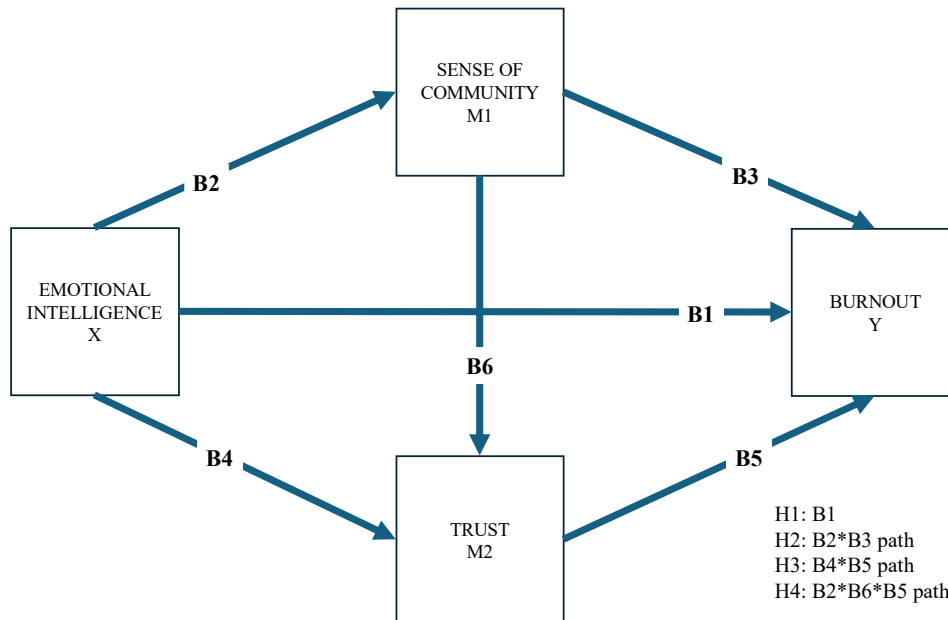


Figure 1: Direct and Indirect Pathways between workplace psychosocial resources (sense of community & trust), emotional intelligence and burnout (H2: b_2*b_3 . H3: b_4*b_5 and H4: $b_2*b_6*b_5$) (Source: Author’s own editing, unpublished)

Research Question 3 (RQ3): How does emotional intelligence moderate the association between emotional and quantitative demands and burnout among Hungarian social care leaders? In addition to analysing the role of workplace resources, this study also investigates whether emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between job demands and burnout. Specifically, two core job demands, emotional and quantitative job demands, are examined as these are highly prevalent in the Hungarian social context. Moderation analyses are conducted to determine whether EI can attenuate the adverse impact of these demands on burnout. The conceptual model outlining these relationships and the hypothesised moderating role of EI is depicted in Figure 2.

Hungarian Social care leaders, who frequently face significant emotional exposure and are responsible for managing the distress of clients and team members, may find EI help alleviate the effects of emotional demands through effective coping strategies. Numerous studies have established a significant positive correlation between emotional job demands and burnout. Furthermore, it has been suggested that the detrimental impact of emotional job demands on stress and burnout becomes pronounced when effective

emotion regulation strategies are lacking. Emotional intelligence serves as a vital personal resource, and it empowers professionals to regulate their emotions and navigate the interpersonal and emotional complexities of their work. Therefore, it is hypothesised that EI will serve as a moderator in the relationship between emotional job demands and burnout. **H5: Emotional intelligence moderates the impact of emotional demands on burnout.** This hypothesis is represented in Figure 2, which shows the *WX1* regression line.

Multiple studies have consistently found a positive relationship between quantitative demands and burnout, both highly prevalent among social care professionals in demanding situations. Whereas EI often buffers emotional or interpersonal job demands, this effect does not consistently extend to quantitative job demands. Unlike emotional demands, which require interpersonal sensitivity and emotional regulation, quantitative demands are more closely linked to cognitive and structural aspects of a job. These perspectives suggest that while EI is often considered a valuable personal resource, its buffering effect may be limited or non-existent when it comes to the impact of sheer workload or quantitative factors. In the Hungarian social care system, where resource constraints and high caseloads are common, these quantitative demands pose a significant challenge that emotional intelligence alone may not sufficiently mitigate. **H6: Emotional intelligence will not moderate the impact of quantitative demands on burnout.** This hypothesis is depicted in Figure 2, *WX2* regression line.

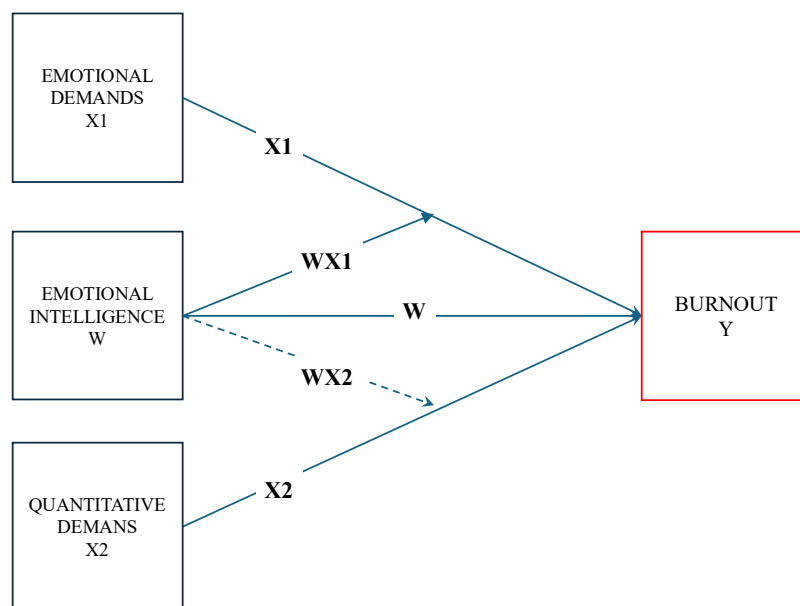


Figure 2: Conceptual Model of the Moderation Effect of Emotional Intelligence on the Relationship Between Quantitative and Emotional Job Demands and Burnout (Source: Author’s own editing, unpublished)

In this conceptual model, emotional intelligence is treated as a trait-like characteristic. Traits typically change slowly over many years and can be altered by environmental factors or life events only in a limited and long-term manner. Accordingly, in both models (mediation and moderation) examined here, EI is included as a predictor variable. The two resources under investigation both refer to aspects of the workplace's social climate. Given that this is a leadership sample, it is reasonable to assume that leader characteristics, such as EI, influence these resources. Thus, RQ2 applies a mediation model, hypothesising that EI affects burnout indirectly through its influence on the two resources. The two demands examined are factors over which leaders themselves have only limited control. Therefore, both demands are positioned in the model as predictor variables, with RQ3 exploring their interaction with EI (moderation). While this thesis investigates two resources – both modelled as mediators – and two demands – both modelled as predictors – it is not assumed that all resources necessarily operate as mediators, nor that all demands necessarily function as predictors.

Table 1: Summary of Hypotheses, Paths, and References

Research Question Number	Research Question	Hypothesis Number	Hypothesis	Path with Arrows	References
1	What is the nature and magnitude of the relationship between emotional intelligence components and burnout among social care leaders?	H1	A significant association exists between emotional intelligence and burnout.	EI → Burnout	Bakker & deVries, 2020; Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017; Kant & Shanker, 2021; Vlachou et al., 2016; Loi & Pryce, 2022; Taylor et al., 2024; Johnson et al., 2005; Lizano, 2015; Zunz, 1998; Schwartz et al., 2007; Wagaman et al., 2015; Wilson, 2016
2	How do workplace psychosocial resources, such as mutual trust and a sense of community, influence the interrelation between emotional intelligence and burnout among Hungarian Social Care Leaders?	H2	A sense of community mediates the association between emotional intelligence and burnout.	EI → Sense of community → Burnout	Özbey et al., 2018; Charoensukmongkol et al., 2013; McCarthy et al., 1990; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008; Lopes et al., 2006; Brackett et al., 2011
		H3	Mutual trust mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout.	EI → Mutual Trust → Burnout	Rezvani et al., 2018; Park et al., 2020; Jabareen & Carmon, 2010; Rezvani et al., 2016; Charoensukmongkol et al., 2013; Christie et al., 2015; Lambert et al., 2012; Bligh, 2017; Kim et al., 2018
		H4	There is a serial mediating path through a sense of community and mutual trust connecting emotional intelligence and burnout.	EI → (Mutual Trust → Sense of Community) → Burnout	Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Özbey et al., 2018; Rezvani et al., 2018; Brackett et al., 2011; McCarthy et al., 1990; Park et al., 2020; Jabareen & Carmon, 2010

Research Question Number	Research Question	Hypothesis Number	Hypothesis	Path with Arrows	References
3	How does emotional intelligence moderate the association between emotional and quantitative demands and burnout among Hungarian social care leaders?	H5	Emotional intelligence moderates the impact of emotional demands on burnout.	Emotional Demands × EI → Burnout	Jonge et al., 2008; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, 2014; Demerouti et al., 2015; Duarte et al., 2020; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Zapf & Holz, 2006; Di Fabio & Saklofske, 2014; Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Côté & Morgan, 2002; Karimi et al., 2014
		H6	Emotional intelligence will not moderate the impact of quantitative demands on burnout.	Quantitative Demands × EI → Burnout (No moderation)	Kumar & Narula, 2021; Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017; Kant & Shanker, 2021; Vlachou et al., 2016; Sinollah & Soetjipto, 2025;

3. Methods

3.1. Research Design and Sampling

This investigation employed a quantitative, cross-sectional primary research design to explore the complex relationships between emotional intelligence and burnout. By adopting this approach, the study aimed to elucidate both direct and indirect mechanisms through which EI influences burnout among professionals in demanding organisational contexts. Data collection involved administering structured questionnaires to a targeted sample of social care leaders, enabling the assessment of key workplace and psychosocial variables within a defined timeframe. This methodological framework facilitated the examination of correlation patterns, as well as the testing of mediation and moderation models to clarify the interplay between EI, workplace resources, job demands, and burnout.

Participants in this study were recruited from the Master's program in Hungarian Social Service Management Training. The recruitment period extended from April 11 to November 30, 2019 (Bálicity et al., 2019). This program was specifically designed for mid-level and senior managers in the Hungarian social care system, ensuring that the sample represents managerial roles within this sector. Recruitment was conducted through Semmelweis University in Budapest, Hungary, where a total of 667 social service managers enrolled in the program were invited to participate.

3.1.1. Ethical Statement

To uphold ethical standards and protect participant anonymity, no personally identifiable information was collected or disclosed. Instead, the research team implemented a system of pseudocodes during data collection, which facilitated the tracking of responses while maintaining strict confidentiality. The comprehensive questionnaire distributed to participants covered a range of topics relevant to social service management and leadership. Ethical approval for the study was granted by the Research Ethics Committee of Semmelweis University (SE RKEB 61/2019), ensuring that all procedures conformed to institutional and international standards for research involving human subjects.

3.1.2. Procedure

Participants were verbally informed about the study, and their consent was integrated as part of the training contract, constituting an active agreement. The questionnaire, comprising 22 pages, was administered in Hungarian on paper following the training sessions. Each participant dedicated approximately one hour to completing the questionnaire. Data were collected once, immediately following training, with no exclusion criteria applied. A total of 15 data collection sessions took place, and participants did not receive any incentives for participation. Respondents were informed that their involvement in the study was voluntary and that they could choose to discontinue their participation at any stage without providing a reason. They were also assured that they could withdraw from the study or stop filling out the questionnaire at any point, and that doing so would not result in any negative consequences or loss of benefits. *The Hungarian version of the questionnaire is provided in Appendix 1.*

3.1.3. Participants

The questionnaire was distributed to 667 social care leaders, with 547 completing it, resulting in an 82% response rate. After excluding incomplete responses and missing data for key variables, the final analytical sample consisted of 471 participants (Kozák et al., 2025). The sampling was targeted with inclusion criteria requiring leadership roles in social institutions, and exclusion criteria including lack of consent; additional exclusions were made solely for technical reasons. To maintain data quality, cases with any missing items were removed, as the statistical methods applied require complete data. Missing values were determined to be Missing Completely at Random (MCAR). This study comprised two main analyses: a mediation model and a moderation model, and for each separate sample size, estimations were performed (Agler & Boeck, 2017; Hayes, 2013). To ensure adequate statistical power for detecting indirect effects in a serial mediation model with two mediators, a priori power analysis was conducted. The study was based on an alpha level of .05 and a target statistical power of .80, assuming weak to moderate correlation coefficients among the pathways: $r = .10$ for the direct relationships between the independent variable and outcome (X–Y), the independent variable and the second mediator (X–M2), and the first mediator and outcome (M1–Y); $r = .20$ for the relationships between the independent variable and the first mediator (X–M1), as well as between the second mediator and the outcome (M2–Y); and $r = .40$ for the relationship between the two mediators (M1–M2). For moderation, a model was tested with three

predictors and two interaction coefficients. The interaction coefficients were assumed to be weak ($f^2 = .02$) at an alpha level of .05 and target statistical power of .80. For estimation, G*Power was used. Under these parameters, a minimum sample size of 350 participants for the serial mediation and 395 participants for the moderation was deemed sufficient to detect the hypothesised indirect effects reliably.

The average age of respondents was 45.7, with ages spanning from 23 to 60. The sample is predominantly female (84.8%), consistent with the sex distribution typically found in social care leadership roles. The educational background of participants indicates a high level of qualification, with 79.0% holding tertiary degrees and 20.7% holding postgraduate qualifications, while only a small fraction (0.4%) had completed secondary education. On average, participants had 21.8 years of full-time work experience and 10.2 years in leadership positions. The majority held senior management roles (71.3%), with the remainder serving as middle managers (28.7%), highlighting the leadership-focused nature of the sample. In terms of organisational context, participants represented a range of settings: 26.6% worked in villages, 44.4% in smaller cities, 18.1% in county seats or towns with county rights, and 10.8% in the capital, ensuring coverage across diverse Hungarian municipalities. Team sizes supervised by the respondents varied widely, with an average of 54.7 subordinates reflecting considerable variation in organisational scope and responsibility.

For the purposes of mediation and moderation analyses, cases with missing values on any variables of interest were excluded, assuming that these data were Missing Completely At Random (MCAR). After applying these criteria, the final sample size utilised in the mediation and moderation analyses consisted of 471 participants. This ensured robust statistical validity for the planned analyses while maintaining a high level of data completeness and integrity.

In the sample of 471 participants, the demographic variables closely mirrored those of the original larger sample (see Table 2).

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of the Demographic Characteristics of the Original Sample and Final Analytic Sample¹

Variable	Original Sample (n = 547)	Final Analytic Sample (n = 471)
Age (years), M±SD (Min-Max)	45.7 ± 7.10 (23–60)	45.6 ± 6.97 (23–60)
Full-time work experience (years) M±SD (Min-Max)	21.8 ± 8.90 (2–42)	21.7 ± 8.82 (2–42)
Leadership experience (years) M±SD (Min-Max)	10.2 ± 6.88 (1–33)	10.2 ± 8.84 (1–33)
Team size (no. of subordinates) M±SD (Min-Max)	54.7 ± 97.5 (0–901)	56.0 ± 101.2 (0–901)
Sex– Female n (%)	464 (84.8%)	398 (84.5%)
Sex – Male n (%)	83 (15.2%)	73 (15.5%)
Education – Secondary n (%)	2 (0.4%)	2 (0.4%)
Education – Tertiary n (%)	432 (79.0%)	368 (78.2%)
Education – Postgraduate n (%)	113 (20.7%)	92 (19.6%)
Management level – Senior n (%)	390 (71.3%)	335 (71.2%)
Management level – Middle n (%)	157 (28.7%)	136 (28.8%)
Workplace – Village n (%)	146 (26.6%)	120 (25.4%)
Workplace – Small city n (%)	243 (44.4%)	203 (43.0%)
Workplace – County seat/town with county rights n (%)	99 (18.1%)	91 (19.4%)
Workplace – Capital n (%)	59 (10.8%)	55 (11.7%)

The original sample encompasses the entire group of respondents who completed the survey, whereas the final analytical sample is a smaller subset resulting from the exclusion of cases with missing data deemed to be Missing Completely at Random (MCAR).

¹ In this thesis, the term "sex" is used consistently throughout in accordance with the SAGER guidelines to ensure clarity and standardisation in reporting gender-related data.

3.2. Instruments

3.2.1. Questionnaires

Experts from the research team involved in the Semmelweis University Social Leadership Training project developed the questionnaire. Their work was based on validated questionnaires translated into Hungarian and consensus questions formulated by the team members. The author of this dissertation was a member of this research team, contributing significantly to the development and compilation of the questionnaire. This collaborative effort ensured the creation of a comprehensive and contextually relevant instrument for the study.

The sections of the questionnaire used in the analysis were as follows:

1. The first section contained demographic questions such as age, sex, educational level, qualifications, professional experiences, leadership experience, type of employee, and institute location.

2. The second section included the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ) II, Middle Hungarian validated version (Nistor et al., 2015).

3. The third section included the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES), Hungarian validated version (Kun et al., 2011).

Demographic Questions

The demographic section of the questionnaire aimed to gather essential background information about the social care leaders participating in the study. It collected data on birth year and sex, highest educational qualifications, and professional certifications. Information was also obtained on total years of full-time work, leadership experience, and tenure in their current role and employer. Additional questions covered previous work experience abroad, current position level (senior or middle management), and the number of subordinates they oversee. Workplace characteristics such as region, settlement type, and institution maintainer were included as well. This comprehensive demographic data was intended to create a foundation for analysing leadership profiles, experiences, and contextual factors relevant to the Hungarian social care system.

Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ)

Burnout, mutual trust among employees, the sense of community, and quantitative and emotional job demands were measured by the Hungarian version of the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (COPSOQ) II middle version (Nistor et al., 2015).

The questionnaire was developed by researchers in Denmark, led by Professor Kristensen at the National Research Centre for the Working Environment in Copenhagen. It is widely used by organisations, researchers, and occupational health professionals to assess employees' well-being, recognise potential sources of stress or dissatisfaction, and develop strategies for a healthier and more supportive work environment (Burr et al., 2019; Nistor et al., 2015). It has been translated into 25 languages, establishing itself as one of the most widely employed risk assessment tools. Currently, there are three versions of COPSOQ: COPSOQ I, II, and III, each available in short, medium, and long formats (Burr et al., 2019). The medium version of COPSOQ II was validated in Hungarian in 2012 (Nistor et al., 2015). COPSOQ II offers the advantage of integration into the JD-R framework (Berthelsen et al., 2018).

The Hungarian version of COPSOQ II comprises 28 scales with 92 questions, primarily measured using a five-point Likert-type scale. All questions were converted into 0-100 values, with Cronbach's alpha demonstrating internal consistency ranging from 0.68 to 0.90 (Nistor et al., 2015).

Burnout questions: From the 92 questions included in the questionnaire, four specifically addressed burnout. How often have you felt worn out? How often have you been physically exhausted? How often have you been emotionally exhausted? How often have you felt tired? According to the agreement that exhaustion is the central component of burnout (Demerouti, 2024; Maslach & Leiter, 2009), the burnout-related questions in COPSOQ II seem suitable for capturing the main tendencies of the phenomenon.

Sense of community questions (labelled as social community at work in COPSOQ II) were the following three questions: Is there a good atmosphere between you and your colleagues? Is there good cooperation between colleagues at work? Do you feel part of a community at your place of work?

Mutual trust between employees was measured using three questions: Do employees withhold information from each other? Do the employees withhold information from the management? Do the employees, in general, trust each other?

Emotional demands were evaluated through three questions: Does your work put you in emotionally disturbing situations? Do you have to relate to other people's personal problems as part of your work? Is your work emotionally demanding? Do you get emotionally involved in your work?

Quantitative demand questions comprised three questions, as follows: Is your workload unevenly distributed, so it piles up? How often do you not have time to

complete all your work tasks? Do you get behind with your work? Do you have enough time for your work tasks?

In this research, Cronbach's alpha values for the relevant scales were deemed acceptable: for burnout, $\alpha = .904$, for the sense of community, $\alpha = .684$, for mutual trust between employees, $\alpha = .744$, for quantitative demands, $\alpha = .805$ and for emotional demands, $\alpha = .619$.

The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

The evaluation of emotional intelligence utilised the Hungarian-validated version (AES-HU) (Kun et al., 2011) of the freely available Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009). The Assessing Emotions Scale, developed by Schutte and colleagues in 1998 based on the original model by Salovey and Mayer (1990), is a well-known self-reporting test widely employed to measure all hypothesised aspects of emotional intelligence. The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale is a trait emotional intelligence questionnaire and measures people's typical emotional skills and dispositions – how individuals perceive their emotional abilities, rather than their maximum emotional performance or ability in test situations (Schutte et al., 1998). The questionnaire is known by various names, including the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence (SSREI) scale, Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS), Assessing Emotions Scale (AES), Schutte Self-Report Inventory (SSRI), and Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT), likely due to the lack of a definitive name initially given by its authors.

Schutte and Colleagues initially developed the questionnaire with 62 items, and after a factor analysis, it was finalised with 33 items (with a one-factor structure; Cronbach's Alpha = 0.9) (Schutte et al., 1998). Of the 33 items, 3 are reverse items (5, 28, and 33), and scores can range from 33 to 165 (Schutte et al., 2009). Since their publication, the scale has been utilised in many international research studies (Cronbach's alphas usually range between 0.84 and 0.9). However, the scale has also been frequently criticised, primarily due to questions about its one-factor structure. Several independent studies support the adoption of multifactorial scales. Petrides and Furnham (2000) proposed four factors, while Austin et al. (2004) identified three factors. Gignac et al. (2005) proposed six factors, while Keele & Bell (2008) identified four factors. Participants rated each item on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Sample items include statements such as "I am aware of my emotions as I experience them" and "I expect good things to happen."

Reflecting on the critiques and assumptions raised (Austin et al., 2004; Gignac, 2010; Keele & Bell, 2008; Petrides & Furnham, 2001) regarding the questionnaire, a Principal Component Analysis was conducted within the current sample to examine the feasibility of identifying multiple subscales. A component structure reflecting the multifaceted characteristics of emotional intelligence was adopted to best suit the sample of social care leaders. Three EI components were adopted (EI-Self, EI-others and EI-Positivity). As detailed in the Results section, this tailored assessment offers more profound insights into the impact of emotional intelligence in the context of this special sample.

3.3. Data Analysis

To evaluate the structure of the AES Emotional Intelligence components within the sample of Hungarian social service managers, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Kaiser Criteria and Direct Oblimin Rotation was initially conducted. The suitability of the data for PCA was verified using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. Component scores were saved using the regression method.

The principal component analysis has already been published as supplementary material in Kozák et al. (2025); however, the dissertation provides a more detailed presentation of the study, including correlation analyses between the emotional intelligence components and demographic variables.

Pearson correlation analyses were conducted to examine the relationships and strengths among all relevant variables measured by the COPSQ questionnaire, including the burnout levels, workplace psychosocial resources, and job demands (quantitative and emotional demands), and the three identified emotional intelligence components from the AES Scale. This comprehensive correlation analysis aimed to elucidate the interrelations among these key variables and to specifically address the association between EI components and burnout in relation to Hypothesis 1 (H1).

Subsequently, three serial mediation models were employed to investigate these relationships further. In each model, one of the three EI components served as the predictor variable, with a sense of community and mutual trust specified sequentially as mediators, and burnout as the outcome. These mediation analyses evaluated the indirect effects of each EI component on burnout through psychosocial resources, thereby testing Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 (H2, H3, and H4). Mediation analyses were conducted on saturated models, and robust methods were employed to estimate standard errors.

Moderation analyses were conducted to investigate whether specific components of emotional intelligence influence the strength or direction of the relationship between job demands and burnout among social care leaders. The study focused on two distinct types of job demands: emotional job demands and quantitative job demands. In total, three moderation analyses were conducted, each with both emotional and quantitative demands as the predictor, one of the emotional intelligence components as the moderator, and burnout as the outcome variable. Interaction terms between the predictor and moderator were included in the models to test for moderation effects, thus addressing Hypotheses 5 & 6 (H5, H6). Moderation effects were tested using linear regression analyses. To avoid issues of multicollinearity, all variables were standardised before analysis. The results were graphically presented using simple slope analysis. For simple slope analysis, the Emotional Intelligence components were categorised into three groups based on their standardised scores: a low group (standardised scores below -0.5), a moderate group (scores between -0.5 and 0.5), and a high group (scores above 0.5). This categorisation enabled the examination of interaction effects at distinct levels of the moderator variable. Additionally, the Johnson-Neyman technique was employed to identify the specific values of the moderator at which the effect of the predictor on the outcome variable became statistically significant.

All measurement scales demonstrated acceptable levels of skewness and kurtosis, with skewness values [- 0.905 – 0.215] and kurtosis values [- 0.284 – 1.901]. These results indicate that the distributions of the scale scores do not substantially deviate from normality, supporting the appropriateness of subsequent statistical analyses. This comprehensive approach enabled a nuanced understanding of how EI components influence burnout, taking into account the mediating and moderating effects of workplace relational factors. (*Detailed Descriptive Statistics – Comprehensive Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Distributional Assessment of Key Study Variables are presented in Appendix 2*). All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 22 (IBM Corp, 2016) and JASP (0.18.3).

4. Results

4.1. Emotional Intelligence scale's component structure

Principal Components Analysis of the AES SCALE

The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) results supported a five-factor solution, accounting for 45.8% of the total variance ($KMO = .89$; $\chi^2(528) = 4889.53$, $p < .001$). Five components emerged based on the PCA outcomes, with three of these components being pertinent to this research. Component loadings are detailed in Table 3, published in Kozák et al. (2025).

Table 3: Component loadings of the Principal Component Analysis of the Schutte EI components (n = 471)

EI-Items	EI-positivity	EI-others	EI-self	PC4	PC5
10 I expect good things to happen	-.753				
12 When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last	-.703				
3 I expect that I will do well on most things I try	-.527				
31 I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles	-.518				
14 I seek out activities that make me happy	-.456			.431	
24 I compliment others when they have done something well	-.441				
1 I know when to speak about my personal problems to others	-.439				
4 Other people find it easy to confide in me	-.436				
2 When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them	-.433				
29 I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them		.691			
32 I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice		.678			
30 I help other people feel better when they are down		.588			
26 When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself		.552			
25 I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send		.543			

EI-Items	EI-positivity	EI-others	EI-self	PC4	PC5
18 By looking at their facial expressions, I recognise the emotions people are experiencing		.526			
19 I know why my emotions change			-.599		
22 I easily recognise my emotions as I experience them			-.583		
15 I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others			-.582		
20 When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas			-.490		
17 When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me			-.473	.431	
9 I am aware of my emotions as I experience them			-.441		
8 Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living				.682	
7 When my mood changes, I see new possibilities				.666	
6 Some of the significant events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important				.599	
33 It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do					-.545
16 I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others					.493
28 When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail					-.466
23 I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on					.451
5 I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people					-.433
Eigenvalue after rotation	5.12	5.05	4.235	2.844	2.333
Percentage of variance after rotation	15.515	15.303	12.833	8.618	7.069

Note. Data reduction method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation method: Direct Oblimin with Kaiser Normalisation; Component loadings > .04 were displayed in the table. N = 528. KMO = .89; and for Bartlett's test $\chi^2(528) = 4889.53$ $p < .001$. Total variance explained: 45.8%. Scales were re-standardised using the mean and standard deviation of the subsample used in the mediation analyses.

The first component, **Emotional Intelligence-Self (EIS; EI-Self)**, encompasses six items, a set of intrapersonal emotional competencies that reflect an individual's ability to engage with their internal emotional world in a nuanced and insightful manner. This self-focused emotional awareness could be critical for effective self-regulation, personal decision-making, and emotional resilience. High levels of EIS could suggest a person is not only aware of what they are feeling but can also trace the causes of those emotions and anticipate their consequences, enabling more adaptive responses in both personal and professional settings. Reliability was good, with an α of .75.

Items: *I know why my emotions change (19); I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them(22); I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others(15); When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas(20); When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me(17); I am aware of my emotions as I experience them(9).*

The second component, **Emotional Intelligence-Positivity (EIP; EI-Positivity)**, comprising nine items, reflects an individual's general emotional orientation toward optimism, positive expectations, and constructive engagement with their work environment and colleagues. This dimension encompasses a dispositional tendency to perceive situations and interpersonal interactions in a hopeful and affirming light. Items loading onto this factor indicate a pattern of positive emotional appraisal. Thus, EIP could include the ability to foster and sustain positive affect and could also contribute to a supportive organisational climate. This component exhibits excellent reliability ($\alpha = .80$).

Items: *I expect good things to happen (10); When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last(12); I expect that I will do well on most things I try(3); I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles(31); I seek out activities that make me happy(14); I compliment others when they have done something well (24); I know when to speak about my personal problems to others (1); Other people find it easy to confide in me (4); When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them (2).*

Finally, the third component consisted of 6 items that described the understanding and appraisal of others' emotions, referred to as **Emotional Intelligence–Others (EIO; EI-Others)**. This dimension reflects an individual's ability to accurately perceive, interpret, and respond to others' emotional states and expressions. Individuals high in EIO could be more skilled at empathic accuracy, effective social functioning, and relationship management. Furthermore, this component demonstrates good reliability with $\alpha = .79$.

Items: *I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them (29); I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice (32); I help other people feel better when they are down(30); When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself(26); I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send(25); By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing(18).*

These three Emotional Intelligence components align broadly with various elements and multifaceted solutions proposed since the publication of the original questionnaire by Schutte et al. (1998). For example, the component related to understanding one's own emotions parallels the "Appraisal of Emotions in the Self" described by Gignac et al. (2005) and the "Appraisal of Emotions" constructs identified by Petrides and Furnham (2000), Saklofske (2003), Austin et al. (2004), and Keele and Bell (2008). Similarly, the component focused on understanding others' emotions corresponds to the "Appraisal of Emotions in Others" from Gignac et al. (2010) and overlaps with social skills or managing others' emotions as discussed by the same authors. The third component, Positive Appraisal, reflects concepts such as positive utilisation (Chan, 2004) and optimism or mood regulation (Austin et al., 2004; Keele & Bell, 2008; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Saklofske et al., 2003). However, while these components share conceptual similarities with established EI frameworks, the specific items and their operationalisation in this study differ, suggesting that in the Hungarian social care leader sample, self-perception, perception of others' emotions, and positive attitude may function differently. These differences likely reflect unique cultural, organisational, and contextual characteristics of this population, highlighting the distinctiveness and particularities of emotional intelligence within this professional group.

4.2. Correlations Among EI Components, Workplace Psychosocial Resources, Burnout and Demographical Variables

The means and standard deviations of the EI components were consistently 0 and 1, respectively, as these represent standardised scores derived from the PCA analysis.

The descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among the main study variables are presented as follows. The mean scores and standard deviations were as follows: sense of community (M = 82.33, SD = 12.60), mutual trust (M = 65.28, SD = 17.77), burnout (M = 48.20, SD = 21.10), quantitative demands (M = 46.63, SD = 17.92), emotional demands (M = 65.39, SD = 13.96).

EI-self was significantly correlated with EI-others and EI-positivity. It also showed a small but significant correlation with sense of community and mutual trust but was not significantly correlated with burnout. EI-self did not show significant correlations with emotional or quantitative job demands.

EI-others was significantly associated with EI-positivity and moderately correlated with sense of community and mutual trust. Similar to EI-self, EI-others was not significantly related to burnout, emotional job demands, or quantitative job demands.

EI-positivity demonstrated a moderate correlation with sense of community, a small but significant correlation with mutual trust, and a significant negative correlation with burnout. Additionally, EI-positivity showed a weak negative correlation with quantitative job demands.

A sense of community was strongly correlated with mutual trust and negatively correlated with burnout. Mutual trust was also significantly and negatively correlated with burnout.

Emotional job demands exhibited a positive correlation with quantitative job demands and a negative correlation with mutual trust. Additionally, quantitative job demands showed a positive correlation with burnout and a negative correlation with sense of community and mutual trust.

Considering demographical variables (age and sex), only EI-Others showed a positive correlation with sex ($r = .19, p < .001$).

The correlation matrix of Emotional intelligence components, burnout, and workplace resources and demands is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Pearson correlations between Emotional Intelligence Components (EI-Self, EI-Others, EI-Positivity), Psychosocial Job Resources (Mutual trust between employees and a Sense of community) and Job Demands (Emotional Job demands and Quantitative Job Demands) (n = 471)

	EI-Others	EI-Positivity	Sense of Community	Mutual Trust	Burnout	Emotional Job Demands	Quantitative Job Demands
EI-Self	.27***	.29***	.11*	.13**	-.01	.07	.05
EI-Others		.32***	.27***	.16**	-.03	.08	.05
EI-Positivity			.32***	.12**	-.12**	-.06	-.11
Sense of Community				.46***	-.17***	-.07	-.09*
Mutual Trust					-.16***	-.13***	-.16**
Burnout						.07	.16***
Emotional Job Demands							.27***

Notes: values * indicates $p < .05$; ** indicates $p < .01$; *** indicates $p < .001$.

In contrast with both theoretical assumptions and existing literature (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Kant & Shanker, 2021; Loi & Pryce, 2022; Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017; Taylor et al., 2024; Vlachou et al., 2016), emotional intelligence components demonstrated surprisingly weak negative or non-existent correlations with job-related burnout. Furthermore, the study found only weak positive correlations between the workplace psychosocial variables and the EI components. The correlation results suggest that different components of emotional intelligence may have varying effects on burnout or more pronounced ones when other factors are also taken into consideration, particularly within this specific sample of social care leaders. This implies, in parallel with H2, H3, and H4, that other psychosocial variables, which operate independently of the organisational context, could also play a role in moderating or mediating this relationship. Therefore, it is vital to incorporate these psychosocial variables in further analyses to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms at play. Additional mediation and moderation analyses could uncover these underlying factors and clarify how various EI components interact with workplace and psychosocial factors to influence burnout. Such investigations would deepen insight into how emotional intelligence contributes to resilience and well-being among social care leaders and inform targeted interventions to effectively reduce burnout risks.

4.3. Mediation Analyses

Three serial mediation models were used to examine the indirect pathways through which components of emotional intelligence influence burnout (Figure 3). Each model treated one of the EI components as a predictor and burnout as the outcome variable. Two key mediators were included in the analysis: sense of community and mutual trust among employees (Figure 3-5). The models controlled for age and sex to ensure robustness and generalizability of the findings. School education level was not controlled due to homogeneity in the sample, as 99% of the participants held a university degree. For the mediation analyses, saturated models were conducted to allow for all possible direct and indirect relationships. The indirect effects were presented using standardised beta coefficients, and standard errors were calculated using robust estimation methods. The significance of regression coefficients and indirect effects was evaluated within the Maximum Likelihood framework.

4.3.1. Mediation Analysis of EI-Positivity

EI-Positivity was found to be a significant positive predictor of sense of community, and sense of community, in turn, significantly predicted mutual trust. However, the direct association between EI positivity and trust was not statistically significant. Sense of community showed a marginally significant negative direct association with burnout, while trust demonstrated a significant negative effect on burnout. The direct path from EI-Positivity to burnout did not reach statistical significance. The regression coefficients of the model are presented in Appendix 3 published earlier (Kozák et al., 2025), and the direct effects between the variables are depicted below in Figure 3.

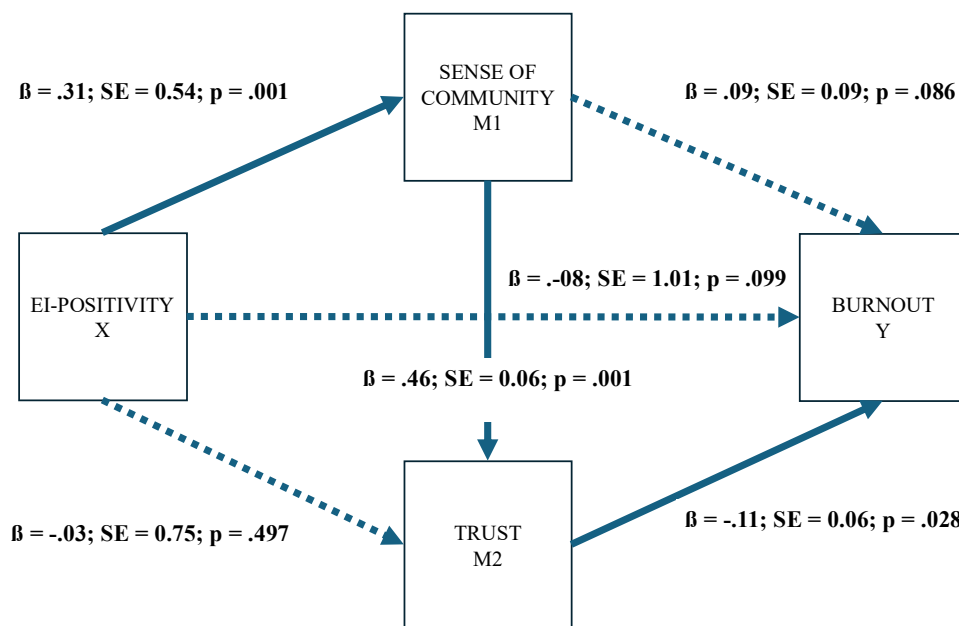


Figure 3: The direct mediational pathways between EIP, Sense of community, Mutual trust and Burnout (Source: Author’s own editing, unpublished)

Regarding indirect effects, a significant negative serial mediation was observed through both a sense of community and mutual trust (EIP → Community → Trust → Burnout $\beta = -.016$, $p = .039$). In contrast, the individual indirect paths involving only one mediator (either community or trust) were not significant (EIP → Community → Burnout: $\beta = -.028$, $p = .095$; EIP → Trust → Burnout: $\beta = .003$, $p = .516$). These findings suggest that the significant total effect of EI-Positivity on burnout operates entirely through the combined mediation of both community and trust (Total indirect effect: $\beta = -.041$, $p = .015$).

4.3.2. Mediation Analysis of EI-Others

EI-Others exhibited a significant positive relationship with a sense of community, which again positively influenced trust. However, no significant direct link was found between EI-Others and trust. A significant negative direct effect was observed between sense of community and burnout, as well as between trust and burnout. EI-Others did not show a significant direct effect on burnout. The regression coefficients of the model are presented in Appendix 4, published earlier (Kozák et al., 2025), and the direct effects between the variables are given below in Figure 4.

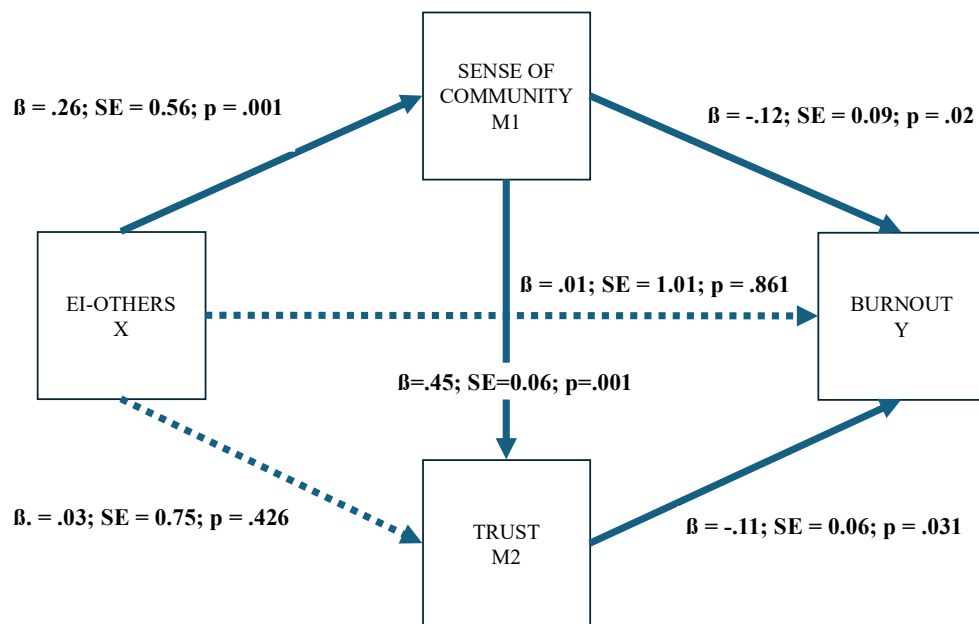


Figure 4: The direct mediational pathways between EIO, Sense of community, Mutual trust and Burnout (Source: Author’s own editing, unpublished)

Analysing the indirect effects revealed a significant mediation pathway through sense of community alone (EIO → Community → Burnout: $\beta = -.031$, $p = .034$), whereas the path through trust alone was not significant (EIO → Trust → Burnout: $\beta = -.004$, $p = .456$). Furthermore, the serial indirect effect via both mediators – community followed by trust – was also significant and negative (EIO → Community → Trust → Burnout, $\beta = -.013$, $p = .048$). Total indirect effect: $\beta = -.047$, $p = .002$.

4.3.3. Mediation Analysis of EI-Self

EI-Self was positively associated with a sense of community, while its direct effect on mutual trust was marginally significant. A significant positive relationship was found between sense of community and trust. Both mediators – community and trust – were significantly and negatively related to burnout. However, EI-Self did not exert a

significant direct effect on burnout, indicating that its association with burnout is mediated indirectly. The regression coefficients of the model are presented in Appendix 5, published earlier (Kozák et al., 2025), and the direct effects between the variables are demonstrated below in Figure 5.

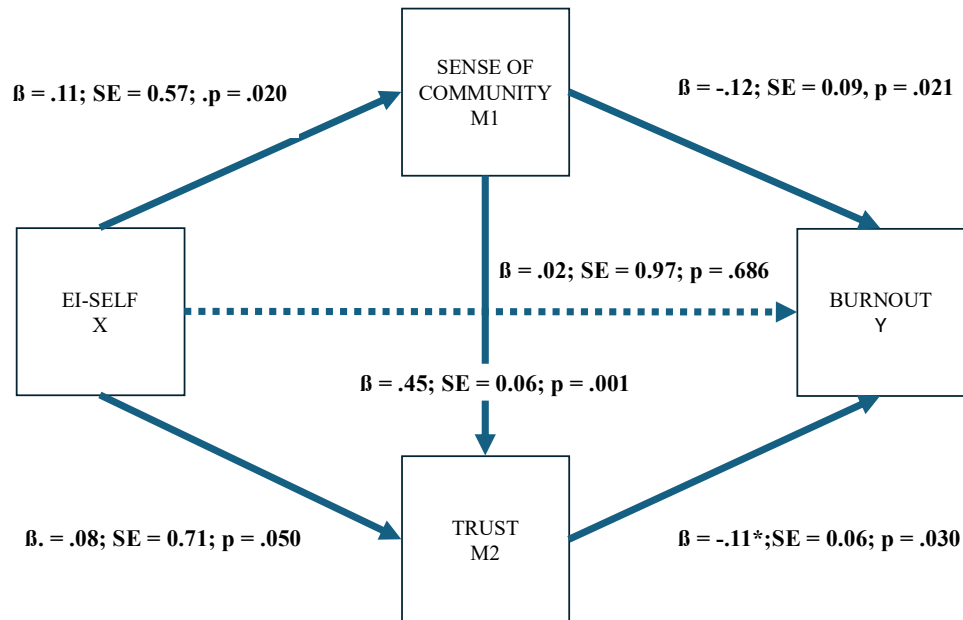


Figure 5: The direct mediational pathways between EIS, Sense of community, Mutual trust and Burnout, (Source: Author's own editing, unpublished)

The total indirect effect of EI-Self on burnout through both mediators was significant and negative (Total indirect effect: $\beta = - .047$, $p = .002$), although neither of the serial pathways, when considered separately, reached significance (EIO \rightarrow Trust \rightarrow Burnout: $\beta = - .004$, $p = .456$; EIO \rightarrow Community \rightarrow Burnout: $\beta = - .031$, $p = .034$; EIO \rightarrow Community \rightarrow Trust \rightarrow Burnout: $\beta = -.005$, $p = .115$).

4.4. Moderation Analysis

As a secondary line of inquiry, three moderation analyses were performed to elucidate the moderating effects of emotional intelligence components on the relationships between emotional and quantitative job demands and burnout. Given the assumption that intrapersonal abilities may exert the most significant influence on the relationship between emotional demands and burnout, EI-Self (EIS) was selected as the primary potential moderator for analysis. To ensure replicability of the moderation analysis by other researchers, the following methodological requirements were observed: In the three moderation analyses, emotional intelligence components acted as moderators in the relationship between emotional and quantitative job demands (predictors) and burnout

(outcome variable). Age and sex were controlled for in the analysis, while educational level was not, due to the homogeneity of the sample. Both moderator and predictor variables were standardised before the interaction term was calculated using their product, reducing collinearity and facilitating interpretation. Predictor, moderator, and interaction terms were entered simultaneously in the regression analyses (ENTER method) to test both main effects and interactions.

4.4.1. Moderation Analysis of EI-Self

The moderating effect of EI-Self on the relationship between emotional and quantitative demands and burnout is illustrated in Figure 6 below. The moderation analysis revealed that the Emotional Intelligence Self-component (EIS) significantly moderates the relationship between emotional demands and burnout ($B = .106, p = .026$). However, neither the direct effect of EIS on burnout ($B = -.212, p = .639$), nor the direct effect of emotional demands on burnout ($B = .176, p = .700$) reached statistical significance. Johnson-Neyman analysis was used to identify the specific ranges of emotional intelligence where the effect of emotional demands on burnout became significant. The Johnson-Neyman technique identified a critical EIS value of 0.40 (on the standardised scale), above which the impact of emotional demands on burnout becomes significant. Approximately 66.4% of the sample had EIS scores below this threshold, where the effect of Emotional job demands (EJD) was not significant, while 33.6% scored above it, where the impact of EJD became significant at $p < .05$. In this range, the association between EJD and Burnout was positive.

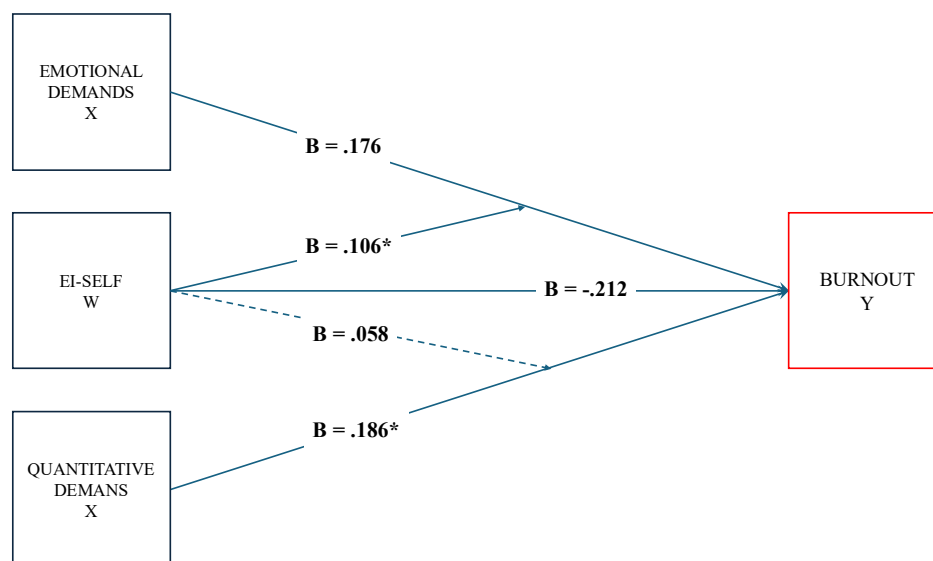


Figure 6: The moderation effect of EI-Self on the relationship between job demands and burnout (*Source: Author's own editing, unpublished*)

Additionally, a simple slope analysis was conducted to elucidate further and visualise the nature of the interaction. Figure 7 presents this interaction pattern. For individuals with low emotional intelligence, burnout levels remain uniformly high across all levels of emotional job demands. In contrast, when EI is high and EJD is low, burnout levels are substantially reduced; however, under conditions of high EI combined with high EJD, burnout increases sharply. Based on the results of the Johnson-Neymar and Simple Slope analyses, it is demonstrated that individuals with higher emotional intelligence are more sensitive to the emotional demands of their environment, which can be both beneficial and detrimental. When emotional needs are low, those with high EI-Self experience less burnout. However, in high-emotional-demand settings, their heightened awareness may lead to greater burnout. This idea aligns with the suggestion that having high emotional intelligence might actually make people more sensitive to stress and slower to recover from difficult situations, which could lead to mood declines after experiencing stress (Davis & Nichols, 2016; Sevdalis et al., 2007). In contrast, individuals with low EI self-report moderately high levels of burnout, regardless of emotional demand. Moderation analysis confirmed that EI-self reduces burnout only when emotional demands are low; under high demands, this protective effect disappears and may even increase vulnerability. This supports the notion that self-awareness and empathy are typically protective but may increase personal burden and cause high emotional strain. In contrast, the direct impact of quantitative demands on burnout was significant ($B = .168, p < .001$), whereas the indirect effect of quantitative demands on burnout was not significant ($B = -.058, p = .223$).

The moderator role of AES Questionnaire EI-Self (EIS) scale on the relationship between emotional demand and burnout

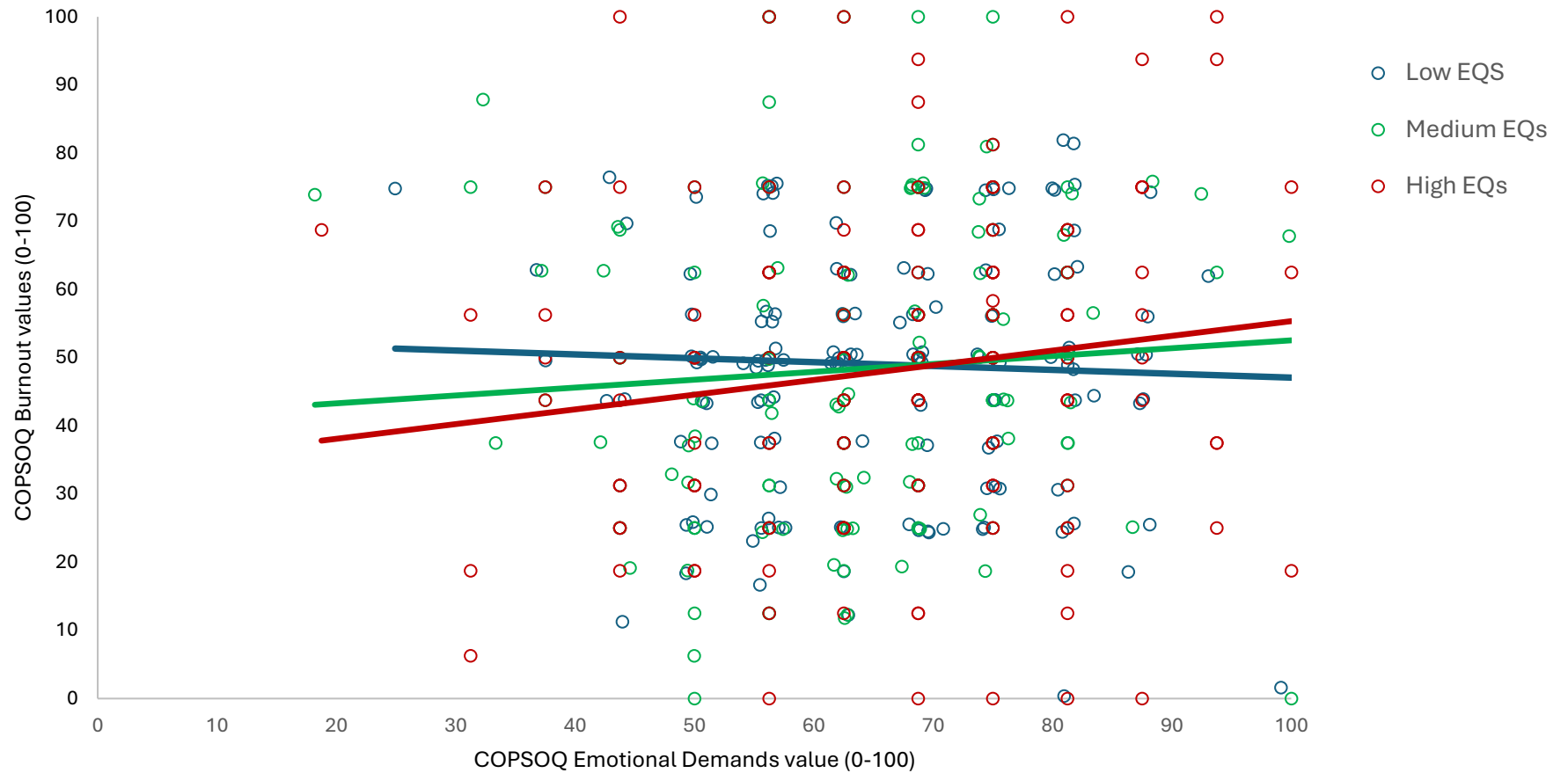


Figure 7: The moderation effect of EI-Self on the relationship between emotional demands and burnout by the levels of emotional demands, (Source: Author's own editing, unpublished)

4.4.2. Moderation Analysis of EI-Others

Regarding the EI-Others component, neither the direct effect of EIO on burnout ($B = -.029, p = .513$) nor the direct effect of emotional demands on burnout ($B = .033, p = .494$) was statistically significant. Additionally, no significant moderation effects were observed for the interactions between EI-Others and emotional demands on burnout ($B = -.035, p = .479$) or quantitative demands ($B = .017, p = .732$). This indicates that the ability to understand others' emotions did not moderate the relationship between either emotional or quantitative job demands and burnout in this sample. Furthermore, a high workload was consistently associated with increased burnout, irrespective of EI-Others levels ($B = .158, p < .001$). The moderating effect of EI-Others on the relationship between emotional and quantitative demands and burnout is illustrated in Figure 8 below.

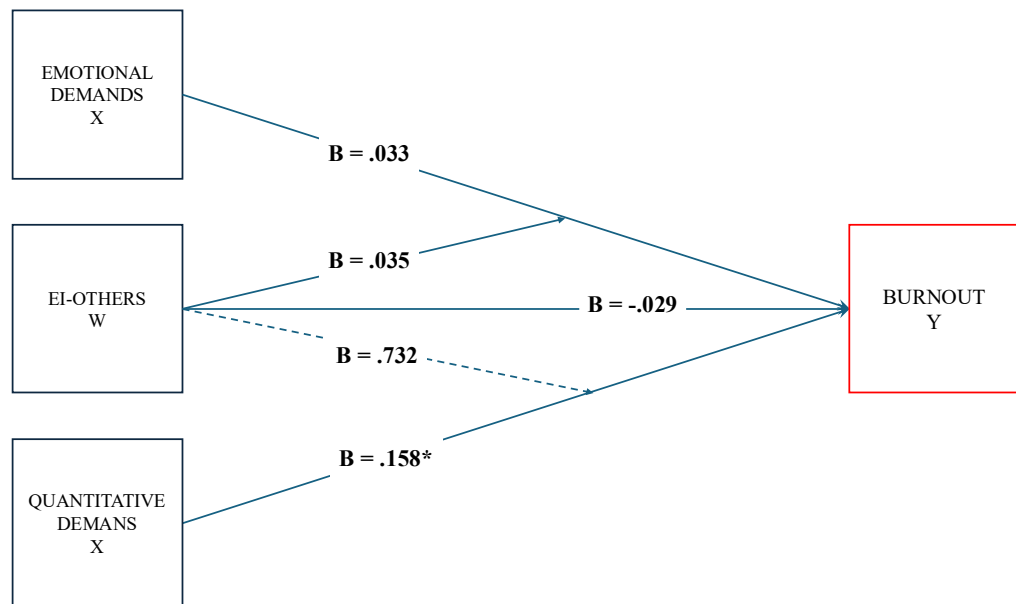


Figure 8: The moderation effect of EI-Others on the relationship between job demands and burnout (*Source: Author's own editing, unpublished*)

4.4.3. Moderation Analysis of EI-Positivity

In terms of the **EI-Positivity** component, no significant moderation effect was found for the interaction with emotional demands ($B = -.039, p = .402$) or quantitative demands ($B = -.028, p = .548$) on burnout. This suggests that maintaining a positive appraisal of emotions did not influence the relationship between job demands and burnout, whereas quantitative demands showed a significant direct effect on burnout ($B = .154, p = .001$) regardless of EI-Positivity levels, indicating that this component does not moderate the impact of quantitative workload on burnout. The moderating effect of EI-Positivity on the relationship between emotional and quantitative demands and burnout is illustrated in Figure 9 below.

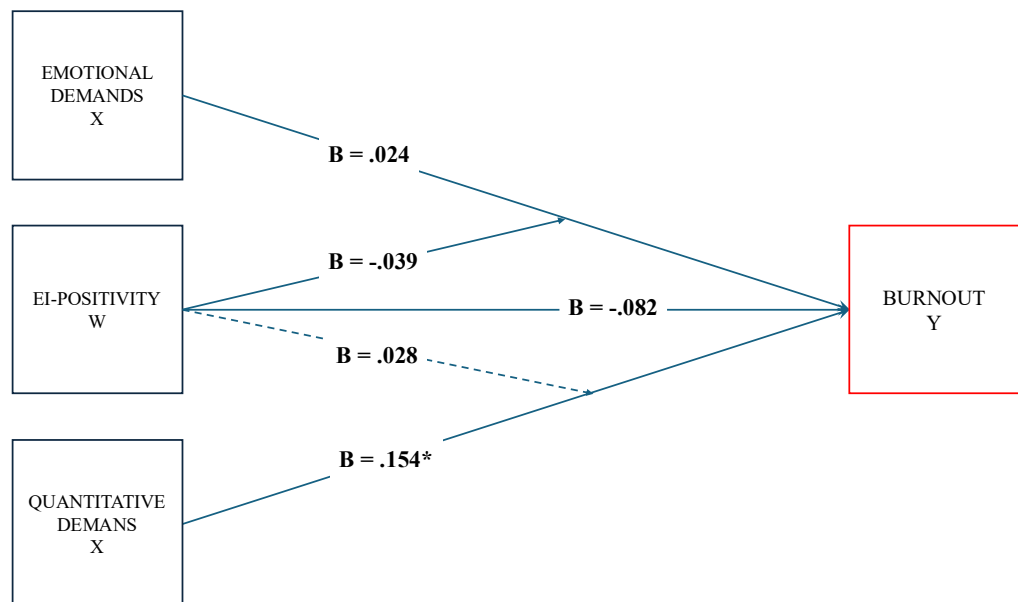


Figure 9: The moderation effect of EI-Positivity on the relationship between job demands and burnout (Source: Author's own editing, unpublished)

5. Discussion

Historically, organisational management was heavily influenced by mechanistic thinking, viewing organisations as collections of discrete, controllable parts. This paradigm assumed that optimal performance could be engineered by manipulating isolated variables through hierarchical control. However, recent scientific developments emphasise interconnectedness, continuous adaptation and the role of dynamic processes, contending that organisational mental health and employee well-being emerge from supportive relational environments and systemic coherence, rather than just linear, top-down interventions (Wheatley, 2006). Within this modern context, the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Demerouti, 2024) model provides a scientifically robust framework for understanding how workplaces influence employee strain and well-being.

The JD-R model provides a robust framework for understanding employee well-being by highlighting the dynamic balance between job demands and resources. Job demands, including emotional, cognitive, and quantitative pressures, impose strain and contribute to burnout, while job resources such as social support, autonomy, and growth opportunities buffer these effects and foster engagement. Importantly, the JD-R model moves beyond mechanistic views by recognising employees as whole, adaptive individuals whose well-being is influenced by reciprocal interactions between workplace conditions and personal capacities.

Within this model, burnout emerges as a prominent indicator of systemic imbalance, arising from the chronic misalignment between high job demands and insufficient resources. This organisational perspective on burnout acknowledges the essential role of the work environment, rather than framing burnout solely as an individual pathology. Emotional intelligence and relational resources have gained recognition within the JD-R framework as vital personal and psychosocial assets that enhance resilience and mitigate burnout by nurturing supportive, trustful, and cohesive workplace environments (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Charoensukmongkol et al., 2013; Duarte et al., 2020; Özbey et al., 2018; Park et al., 2020; Zapf & Holz, 2006).

In the context of social care, characterised by intense emotional labour and complex organisational demands, these insights are especially salient. Burnout is profoundly prevalent in social care due to the intense emotional, organisational, and systemic pressures inherent in this sector. These include chronic infrastructural deficits, workforce

shortages, heavy administrative burdens, and rapidly evolving regulatory requirements. Despite this, social care leadership remains underexplored in burnout research. Social care leaders operate within fragile systems, especially in resource-limited settings such as Hungary and Eastern Europe, where chronic infrastructural deficits and workforce shortages exacerbate stress and diminish available supports. This gap in research is concerning, given their crucial role in navigating systemic vulnerabilities and sustaining service provision. There is an urgent need for increased scholarly focus on social care leadership to better understand, prevent, and manage burnout, ultimately supporting sustainable leadership effectiveness and the resilience of social care systems.

Inspired and driven by this holistic view, as well as adopting the Job Demands-Resources Model as an umbrella framework, my dissertation aimed to investigate the intricate relationships between emotional intelligence, psychosocial resources (mutual trust and sense of community), job demands (both emotional and quantitative) and burnout among Hungarian social care leaders. This is particularly relevant in the Hungarian social services context, where persistent resource shortages make strengthening psychosocial resources through emotional intelligence a cost-effective and practical way to enhance employee well-being and reduce burnout. The study hypothesised both direct and indirect effects of EI on burnout, with sense of community and mutual trust as key mediators that foster positive team dynamics. It also tested EI's moderating role in the relationship between emotional demands and burnout, anticipating no such effect for purely quantitative demands. Component analysis of the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale revealed three factors: EI-Self (self-awareness), EI-Others (social awareness), and EI-Positivity (positive emotional appraisal). This streamlined description avoids unnecessary repetition while capturing the core research aims and hypotheses.

5.1. Summary of Hypothesis Realisation

In the following section, the formulated hypotheses are presented alongside the empirical results and their corresponding interpretations. For each hypothesis, the extent to which the data supported it is evaluated, and theoretical as well as practical explanations for these outcomes are discussed in relation to the existing literature. This integrated overview aims to synthesise the key findings, assess their alignment with the study's objectives, and highlight their implications for both research and practice.

Hypothesis 1: A significant association exists between emotional intelligence and burnout.

Contrary to the documented negative correlation between emotional intelligence and burnout (Gong et al., 2019; Loi & Pryce, 2022; Mérida-López & Extremera, 2017; Moraes et al., 2015; Platsidou, 2010; Schoeps et al., 2021; Trainor et al., 2025; Vlachou et al., 2016), this study revealed only weak or non-existent relationships between the various components of emotional intelligence (EI-positivity, EI-Others, and EI-Self) and burnout. Specifically, regarding the optimism and positive appraisal component, a weak negative association was identified. In contrast, neither the self-focused emotional intelligence component nor the dimension related to understanding others' emotions showed a significant direct association with burnout. In light of this, H1 was only partially supported. These findings could align with recent meta-analyses by Mendonca and Colleagues (2023), suggesting moderate and highly variable effect sizes for EI–burnout associations across studies, which highlights the influence of the broader workplace context and resource availability. Thus, these findings prompted a deeper exploration into complex suppression effects, suggesting that the EI component's impact on burnout may operate indirectly through job resources and demands.

The research employed mediation analyses to explore how psychosocial resources mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence components and burnout. psychosocial resources were included as mediators based on the theoretical assumption that understanding oneself and others' emotions in the workplace primarily influences psychosocial resources by nature. This approach was designed to clarify the indirect pathways through which emotional intelligence may impact burnout, particularly by fostering a sense of community and subsequently enhancing mutual trust among employees.

Hypothesis 2: A sense of community mediates the association between emotional intelligence and burnout.

Hypothesis 2 (H2) proposed that a sense of community mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout. The mediation analyses confirmed that a strong sense of community plays a critical role in mitigating burnout, with particularly pronounced effects observed for the EI-Others component. This component, which involves understanding and responding to others' emotions, facilitates the development of a supportive and cohesive work environment, thereby reducing the risk of burnout. For the EI-Positivity component – which reflects a positive appraisal of emotions – the

protective effect against burnout was significant only through the indirect pathway involving both a sense of community and mutual trust, highlighting the necessity of these psychosocial resources in harnessing the benefits of a positive emotional outlook. In contrast, the EI-Self component, which centres on self-awareness and understanding of one's own emotions, showed a weaker and largely nonsignificant mediating effect through the sense of community. This suggests that while EI-Self may contribute to burnout mitigation, its influence is less dependent on fostering community connections and may require additional resources or mechanisms beyond social integration to exert a meaningful impact on reducing burnout among social care leaders. The results suggest that while EI generates numerous psychosocial resources (Charoensukmongkol et al., 2013; Gong et al., 2019; Law et al., 2004; Miao et al., 2017; Özbey et al., 2018; Sy & Cote, 2004; Wong & Law, 2002), not all components of EI contribute uniformly to this effect. Although emotionally intelligent individuals are generally better at managing emotions and building social connections that contribute to a cohesive work environment (Charoensukmongkol et al., 2013; Özbey et al., 2018), the differential roles of EI components suggest a nuanced mechanism. The relatively weaker mediating effect of EI-Self through a sense of community indicates that this dimension may require additional mechanisms beyond social integration to mitigate burnout among social care leaders effectively. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was only partially supported, indicating a more complex and component-specific relationship between emotional intelligence, psychosocial resources, and burnout reduction.

Hypothesis 3: Mutual trust mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout.

Hypothesis 3 (H3) examined the role of mutual trust as a mediator between emotional intelligence and burnout. The analysis confirmed that mutual trust is indeed an essential psychosocial resource that can help mitigate burnout by fostering positive interpersonal relationships and emotional support within the workplace. Notably, this study's results extend existing knowledge by demonstrating that, while interpersonal trust plays a crucial role, it alone is insufficient to provide a robust protective effect against burnout. Mirroring the earlier findings regarding sense of community (H2), the protective impact of trust depends heavily on the presence of a broader, cooperative workplace climate and a shared sense of belonging.

These findings indicate that mutual trust functions most effectively within an integrated social context characterised by collective engagement, shared values, and cohesive collaboration among employees. Without a strong communal foundation, mutual interpersonal trust lacks the necessary environment to completely buffer the psychological strain associated with burnout. In other words, the results reveal a synergistic interaction whereby trust and communal bonds together strengthen social cohesion and emotional resilience among social care leaders. This nuanced insight adds a critical dimension to the existing literature, which recognises trust as a significant psychosocial resource (Lambert et al., 2012).

Previous research has established that a strong sense of community correlates positively with employee trust (Milliman et al., 2003; Miranti & Evans, 2019) and that feeling trusted enhances job outcomes by improving access to resources and opportunities (Dirks & Jong, 2022). Emotional intelligence has also been linked to the formation of trust (Christie et al., 2015; Rezvani et al., 2016). Trust, in turn, shapes employees' perceptions of managerial behaviours and decisions (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Jiang & Probst, 2016, 2019). When managers are perceived as trustworthy, employees feel more secure and respond more positively to organisational decisions, whereas low trust in management corresponds with higher psychological stress (Jiang & Probst, 2019). Furthermore, strong supervisory support promotes positive exchange relationships, which in turn boost communication, collaboration, organisational citizenship behaviours, and commitment, all of which reduce turnover intentions (Hassan et al., 2012). Trust in management also buffers the impact of high job demands by reducing strain and fostering more constructive interpretations of workload (Burtscher et al., 2018). Conversely, a lack of trust has been associated with an increased risk of burnout, reflecting depleted social resources (Lambert et al., 2012; Nicholson et al., 2014). Hence, trust is a vital dimension of leadership success and organisational effectiveness (Khan et al., 2020).

Building on this foundation, the current findings importantly clarify that mutual trust must be embedded within a strong sense of community to exert a meaningful protective effect against burnout. Overall, H3 is only partially supported: the effectiveness of trust hinges on the communal framework that enables it to foster social cohesion, resilience, and positive work outcomes. This distinction is a key original contribution of the study, emphasising that isolated social resources may be insufficient without an integrated, community-oriented environment.

Hypothesis 4: A serial mediating path exists through a sense of community and mutual trust, connecting emotional intelligence and burnout.

Hypothesis 4 (H4) addressed the combined mediation of sense of community and mutual trust in the relationship between EI and burnout. The findings demonstrated that in the case of EI-Positivity and EI-Others, the protective effects of EI components rely mainly on the co-existence of both psychosocial resources. EI-Positivity's protective influence was exerted predominantly through this combined mediation, reinforcing the importance of an integrated psychosocial resource framework. EI-Others, focusing on understanding others' emotions, showed a positive indirect effect on burnout through pathways that included a sense of community and mutual trust. This component was pivotal in fostering a supportive work environment, essential for building trust and mitigating burnout. Notably, a robust sense of community alone was effective in mitigating burnout symptoms, even without mutual trust, highlighting its critical role in this EI component.

The data further nuance our understanding by showing that the protective impact of a leader's EI depends on the presence of both a positive community and mutual trust. The path analyses show that optimism and empathy alone, without a genuinely cohesive team or absolute mutual trust, are insufficient to prevent burnout. These findings align with the JD-R model's assertion that cumulated psychosocial job resources can buffer work stress and enhance well-being (Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, 2024; Demerouti et al., 2001; Schaufeli, 2017). They refine the model by specifying that only those forms of social capital rooted in trust and community – rather than generic collegiality – mediate the EI–burnout link in these specific managerial contexts. Overall, these results suggest that EI-Positivity and EI-Others exert their protective effects on burnout through distinct social mechanisms.

In contrast, EI-Self, which focuses on self-awareness and understanding one's own emotions, showed the weakest explanatory power. Direct and indirect paths between EI-Self and burnout via psychosocial resources were largely nonsignificant when analysed separately, with only the cumulative indirect effect attaining significance. This pattern suggests that while self-awareness may contribute to burnout mitigation, its impact is overshadowed by the effects of positive emotional appraisal and interpersonal understanding in fostering a constructive workplace environment. Consequently, additional resources beyond a sense of community and mutual trust may be required to fully harness the protective potential of EI-Self in social care leadership contexts.

Therefore, this hypothesis was partially supported, emphasising that the different emotional intelligence components exert varying degrees of influence and effect sizes within the examined relationships.

Emotional intelligence could function as an effective resource generator within the workplace. However, the findings suggest that the intrapersonal aspects of EI – such as self-awareness, self-evaluation, and self-knowledge – are less practical in enhancing key psychosocial resources, including trust and a sense of community. Instead, these self-focused components of EI may be more valuable in managing job demands and building resilience. Specifically, individuals with high EI demonstrate superior emotion recognition and regulation skills, which are crucial in emotionally demanding work situations where they encounter stressors such as difficult clients or high workloads. They tend to use effective coping strategies to actively manage or reduce stressors, thereby mitigating job strain and lowering burnout risk (Bakker & Vries, 2021).

This form of emotional intelligence could moderate the relationship between job strain and outcomes by promoting adaptive self-regulation rather than maladaptive responses (Bakker & Vries, 2021). Moreover, core self-evaluations, which encompass self-esteem, locus of control, general self-efficacy, and emotional stability, serve as personal resources that buffer the negative effects of job demands on psychological distress (van Doorn & Hülshager, 2015). Thus, while EI is a powerful resource generator, its self-focused components primarily may foster resilience and help employees manage job demands, rather than directly strengthening psychosocial resources such as trust or a sense of community. This distinction highlights the multifaceted role of EI in workplace outcomes, where both interpersonal and intrapersonal dimensions contribute differently depending on the context.

Overall, these results highlight that distinct EI components exert their protective effects on burnout through differentiated social mechanisms, with sense of community and mutual trust playing central, yet component-specific, mediating roles. Therefore, when examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and burnout in the workplace, it is essential to consider not only the available psychosocial resources but also the job demands that contribute to the development of burnout. As a second “research” study, this investigation focused explicitly on emotional demands, operating under the premise that emotional intelligence is effective at recognising, understanding, and managing these demands, thereby helping to prevent burnout among leaders.

Additionally, quantitative job demands were included as control variables to provide a more thorough analysis.

Hypothesis 5: Emotional intelligence moderates the impact of emotional demands on burnout.

The moderation analyses identified that EI-Self, the ability to recognise and manage one's own emotions, significantly moderates the impact of emotional job demands on burnout. Individuals with low EI-Self demonstrated elevated burnout, even in an environment with low emotional demands. In contrast, individuals with high EI-Self demonstrated better protection against burnout when emotional demands were low to moderate; however, this buffer effect diminished and may even reverse as emotional demands reach very high levels. This suggests a “double-edged effect” where, under high emotional strain, strong emotional awareness may heighten vulnerability, perhaps due to excess empathy or overidentification with others' distress. Conversely, at more manageable demand levels, self-focused EI enables adaptive coping and emotional boundaries.

This hypothesis aligns with existing research that highlights the role of emotional regulation and emotional intelligence in reducing burnout stemming from emotional job demands. Emotional job demands are well-established stressors that significantly affect organisational outcomes, employee well-being, and risk of burnout (Aiello & Tesi, 2017; Bakker et al., 2003; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Burnout, particularly common in people-oriented professions, is understood as an individual response to high emotional demands (Aiello & Tesi, 2017; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Maslach, 1982; Maslach et al., 2001). The negative impact of emotional demands on burnout is especially pronounced when employees lack sufficient personal or job-related resources or emotional intelligence capabilities (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Duarte et al., 2020; Jonge et al., 2008; Demerouti et al., 2015; Zapf & Holz, 2006). Emotional intelligence, with its emphasis on recognising, understanding, and regulating emotions, serves as a powerful personal resource that enables employees to manage emotional strain more effectively, thereby mitigating burnout. Individuals with higher EI can better appraise and regulate their emotional responses to stressors, utilise adaptive coping strategies, and reduce emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Chen et al., 2024; Gong et al., 2019; Mendonça et al., 2023). However, when high emotional intelligence is not balanced and is challenged by excessive emotional demands, its protective buffering

effect may be diminished (Davis & Nichols, 2016; Sevdalis et al., 2007), potentially increasing individuals' vulnerability to the negative consequences of high job demands.

Strikingly, neither EI-Others nor EI-Positivity moderated the effect of emotional demands on burnout. While empathy and optimism are often believed to insulate against emotional strain, in this population, their benefits operate primarily through social mechanisms – such as building community and trust – rather than directly buffering stressful encounters. Consequently, in alignment with the mediation analyses, Hypothesis 5 was partially supported, as the EI-Self component exhibited a significant effect on the relationship between emotional demands and burnout. In contrast, the other two EI components – EI-Others and EI-Positivity – did not demonstrate significant effects.

Hypothesis 6: Emotional Intelligence will not moderate the relationship between quantitative demands and burnout.

It was hypothesised that emotional intelligence would have a limited effect on the relationship between quantitative demands and burnout, as these demands are less likely to be mitigated by emotional competencies. This approach enables a more nuanced understanding of how emotional intelligence interacts with various types of job demands related to leader burnout.

None of the three emotional intelligence components – EI-Self, EI-Others, and EI-Positivity – exhibited significant moderating effects on the relationship between quantitative job demands and burnout, thereby providing empirical support for Hypothesis 6. The findings suggest that while emotional intelligence and related psychosocial resources can help social care professionals better manage the emotional challenges of their work, they are insufficient to counteract the pressures from severe and persistent organisational demands such as excessive workloads. These structural and physical demands create burnout risks that psychosocial-emotional capacities alone cannot entirely shield against. It is essential to recognise that these emotional factors do not supersede the necessity for systemic organisational changes to address the root causes of burnout. Thus, emotional intelligence should be viewed as a critical tool among many, supporting resilience but not serving as a standalone protective shield against burnout caused by organisational overload.

This finding contributes novel insight to the burnout literature by clearly differentiating the protective scope of emotional intelligence across types of job demands. Whereas prior research has extensively documented the buffering role of EI in emotionally and socially complex work contexts, less attention has been given to its

limitations under purely quantitative pressures such as high workload and time constraints. The current results suggest that emotional intelligence alone cannot compensate for the strain caused by structural and resource-related job demands, highlighting the need for organisational interventions aimed at reducing excessive workloads and enhancing material supports. This distinction emphasises that addressing burnout requires a multilevel approach – combining individual emotional competencies with organisational strategies that tackle quantitative job demands – thus expanding the conceptual framework beyond socio-emotional factors to include tangible job design elements.

5.2. Theoretical and Practical Implications

The findings highlight the significance of various EI components – namely, EI-Self, EI-Positivity and EI-Others – in fostering supportive workplace environments, managing emotional strains and reducing burnout among Hungarian social service managers. The findings also contribute to the enhancement of the JD-R model by highlighting that not all dimensions of emotional intelligence provide direct protection against burnout. Their effectiveness varies depending on the type of demands and whether they are expressed through socially embedded resources, such as trust and community. Moreover, the mediation of psychosocial resources occurs sequentially: EI cultivates a sense of community, which subsequently fosters trust, and this chain ultimately serves to protect against burnout. Additionally, the moderation of emotional demands is specific to components: only intrapersonal EI alleviates the impact of emotional stress, and even this effect has its limits. These outcomes challenge the simplistic notion of EI as a universal protective factor. Instead, specific facets of EI interact dynamically with both job demands and workplace resources to influence the risk of burnout.

The findings emphasise the value of organisational interventions focused not only on developing leaders' EI but, more importantly, on using those capacities to foster a supportive, trusting community culture within teams. These results support the notion that emotional intelligence, when leveraged by leaders to promote community and trust, can serve as a buffer against burnout. However, in unsupportive or hostile contexts, emotional sensitivity may expose leaders to greater risk, highlighting the complexity and context-dependent value of emotional intelligence in organisational settings.

The following table presents the results of this study in comparison to the initial hypotheses. It summarises which hypotheses were fully or partially supported,

highlighting the key findings and contributions that emerged from the research. This overview provides a concise synthesis of how the study's outcomes align with, extend, or qualify the expectations set out at the beginning of the investigation.

Table 5: Initial hypotheses compared to the main findings of the research

Hypothesis	Tested Relationship	Key Results	Interpretation / Contribution	Hypothesis Fulfilment
H1	Emotional Intelligence (EI) → Burnout	Partially supported; weak/no direct effects; EI-Positivity weakly negative association.	EI influences burnout mainly indirectly, through psychosocial resources, rather than through direct effects.	Partially fulfilled
H2	EI → Sense of Community → Burnout (Mediation)	Partially supported; EI-Others mediates; EI-Positivity via community & trust; EI-Self weak/non-significant	Sense of community is a key pathway for EI's protective effect, but different EI components contribute unevenly.	Partially fulfilled
H3	EI → Mutual Trust → Burnout (Mediation)	Partially supported; trust alone is insufficient; needs a strong community as a foundation.	Trust and community interact synergistically to buffer burnout, extending prior literature.	Partially fulfilled
H4	EI → (Mutual Trust → Sense of Community) → Burnout (Serial Mediation)	Partially supported; EI-Positivity and EI-Others protective only with both psychosocial resources; EI-Self weak	Integrated psychosocial resource framework maximizes EI's effect on reducing burnout	Partially fulfilled
H5	Emotional Demands × EI → Burnout (Moderation)	Partially supported; only EI-Self moderates; buffer effect fades under very high demands.	EI-Self aids coping at moderate emotional demands but not under extreme pressure.	Partially fulfilled
H6	Quantitative Demands × EI → Burnout (No Moderation)	Supported; no EI components buffered workload effects	Structural/quantitative job demands cause burnout resistant to socio-emotional capacities, calling for organisational change	Fully fulfilled

5.3. Implications for Leadership in Social Services and the novelty of findings

This dissertation offers valuable insights directly relevant to Hungarian social care leaders who operate in a challenging environment defined by systemic fragility, persistent resource shortages, and high workforce turnover. Moving beyond outdated mechanistic models, the study emphasises the complexity and interconnectedness of leadership dynamics in Hungary's social care system. The study distinguishes three essential components of emotional intelligence for this population: EI-Self (self-awareness), EI-Others (social awareness), and EI-Positivity (positive emotional appraisal). Contrary to common assumptions, the results reveal that EI does not exert a clear, direct protective effect against burnout. Instead, the preventive benefits mainly arise indirectly. By effectively developing emotional intelligence, managers can foster a workplace culture rooted in trust, collaboration, and shared values, thereby strengthening psychosocial resources such as community and mutual trust, which are crucial for reducing stress, increasing job satisfaction, and preventing burnout among social care professionals. Cultivating psychosocial resources – through EI trainings could and should be effectively supported through a combination of peer- and team-based interventions, alongside individual efforts aimed at reducing burnout. Given that emotional intelligence can be intentionally developed across all professions and life stages with appropriate motivation, structure, and practice (Cote, 2017; Enríquez et al., 2017; Goleman & Boyatzis, 2017; Matthews et al., 2017; Serrat, 2017), organisations should adopt a blended approach leveraging group-based learning, coaching, and practical applications to enhance EI effectively (Gorgas et al., 2015; Munir & Azam, 2017; Tadmor et al., 2016). Interventions should incorporate group-based sessions to improve emotional awareness and regulation, alongside individualised coaching that develops intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies for more resilient leadership (Dippenaar & Schaap, 2017; Mehler et al., 2024). Workplace well-being programs can be enriched by integrating burnout prevention strategies, including resilience-building, mindfulness, and stress reduction, coupled with communication skills training for empathetic interactions and conflict resolution (Darban et al., 2016; Safavi et al., 2023; Shoker et al., 2024; Stier-Jarmer et al., 2016; Wert et al., 2023). Additionally, coping skills training grounded in cognitive-behavioural techniques and mindfulness develops emotional adaptability and stress management (Lee et al., 2016; Maresca et al., 2022; Rowe, 2000). Finally, to address burnout comprehensively, combined organisational and individual interventions are recommended, targeting

structural demand-resource imbalances alongside personal coping and recovery strategies, with flexible approaches sensitive to varying burnout levels among individuals (Bakker & Vries, 2021; Kiss et al., 2018; Maslach & Leiter, 2016). This multi-tiered strategy, integrating EI development with targeted well-being programs and burnout training, promises sustainable improvements in leader effectiveness and workforce health.

These findings highlight the crucial role of embedded psychosocial resources and their targeted training in mitigating burnout among Hungarian social care leaders. The evidence suggests that EI training alone – without parallel efforts to develop community and trust – may have limited efficacy. Given Hungary’s high-stress social care context, with labour shortages and limited funding, investing in psychosocial competencies such as emotional intelligence, trust-building, and community cultivation presents practical, sustainable, and cost-effective approaches for improving leader well-being and organisational resilience. Enhancing these human factors will help stabilise teams, reduce turnover, and improve the overall quality of care provision within the Hungarian social services landscape.

5.4. Limitations

The sampling was conducted based on the population obligatorily enrolled in the training program of the Semmelweis University; however, no information is available regarding the precise sampling frame or the representativeness of the participants relative to the entire population. Only those who registered for the training were surveyed, which may introduce selection bias due to non-random participation and voluntary response. Consequently, caution must be exercised when generalising the study findings to the broader population.

Possible response biases related to participation in training programs, such as motivation or prior experience with emotional intelligence, could affect outcome measures.

The cross-sectional design restricts the ability to capture the full dynamics and potential reciprocal or reverse causal relationships between emotional intelligence, workplace resources, demands, and burnout. While the mediation and moderation model establishes clear causal pathways, a comprehensive exploration of these relationships over time would require longitudinal studies. This limitation points to the need for future

longitudinal research to validate and deepen the understanding of temporal and causal effects.

The uniqueness of the sample, particularly in terms of sex, age, and its specific Hungarian context, may have influenced the observed correlation values. This specificity limits the generalizability of the findings to other cultural or demographic groups, thereby constraining their wider applicability.

The reliance on self-report questionnaires such as the AES-HU and COPSOQ II introduces potential common method variance bias. Self-report measures can be affected by social desirability or respondent interpretation, suggesting that future studies deploy mixed-method approaches or integrate objective measures to enhance robustness.

Despite employing selected COPSOQ II items to measure burnout, psychosocial resources, and job demands, more targeted and precise instruments could enable a finer-grained analysis. This would allow clarification of the nuanced relationships between different emotional intelligence components and specific burnout dimensions.

The study also recognises that additional job resources and demands beyond those included may play important roles in mediating or moderating the emotional intelligence–burnout relationship. Expanding future models to incorporate a wider array of factors could provide a more holistic understanding of the mechanisms involved.

Moreover, while this study controlled for age and sex, other potentially confounding variables such as personality traits (e.g., the Big Five), coping styles, or organisational culture were not controlled for but may influence relationships among the studied variables. Incorporating these factors could clarify unique contributions. Future research should consider controlling for such variables to isolate the unique contribution of emotional intelligence.

Cultural and systemic factors specific to the Hungarian or Eastern European context, including organisational hierarchies and resource constraints, may moderate the applicability of findings elsewhere.

Addressing these limitations in future research will refine theoretical models and enhance the practical implications of findings for organisational interventions and leadership development in high-stress settings like social care. This will better equip leaders with the tools needed to foster supportive work environments, build emotional resilience, and ultimately reduce burnout.

5.5. Possible Future Directions

A promising avenue for future research is to investigate further the role of EI components in sustaining individual effectiveness, particularly in situations where workplace structures or routines are disrupted or undergoing rapid change (e.g. after the COVID-19 Pandemic). While previous findings suggest that EI helps individuals regulate, maintain and restore their social relationships globally, it remains unclear how these competencies function when established organisational frameworks become unstable. Future studies could, for example, examine whether individuals with higher EI-Self (the ability to understand and manage their own feelings and emotions) are more resilient and capable of maintaining performance and well-being during periods of uncertainty, organisational change, or social fragmentation. Such research could also explore the extent to which EI-Others (understanding others' emotions) and EI-Positivity (adaptive positive appraisal) contribute to sustaining connectedness and managing the stress of losing or redefining professional relationships. This line of inquiry will help clarify if high emotional intelligence enables individuals to navigate better, compensate for, or rebuild social ties – even when these networks are weakened or lost – thus mitigating the adverse effects of workplace disruption.

Moreover, investigating how deficits in self-awareness or difficulty interpreting others' emotions may accelerate the erosion of work relationships and decrease overall connectedness would offer valuable insights. By clarifying these dynamics, future research could inform interventions aimed at strengthening emotional intelligence as a means of fostering resilience and adaptability in increasingly dynamic or unpredictable organisational environments.

6. Conclusions

This study challenges traditional, mechanistic views of organisational management by emphasising the importance of complexity and interconnectedness as central themes for contemporary leadership, reflecting modern systems theory. Within this framework, the research explores the nuanced relationship between emotional intelligence (EI), workplace resources – specifically mutual trust and sense of community – as well as emotional and quantitative job demands, and burnout among Hungarian social care leaders. The Job Demands–Resources (JD-R) model provided the theoretical foundation, while emotional intelligence was assessed through three components: EI-Self, EI-Positivity, and EI-Others, tailored to this specific leadership population.

In the unique context of Hungary's social care system, characterised by resource constraints, high staff turnover, and systemic fragility, understanding how emotional intelligence interacts with workplace dynamics is especially critical. Hungarian social care leaders often operate in environments marked by limited organisational support and emotionally taxing demands, which heighten vulnerability to burnout. The findings offer insights that are directly applicable to these challenges, highlighting psychosocial resources as key mitigating factors.

Key findings reveal that emotional intelligence does not offer a simple, direct protective effect against burnout. Specifically, EI-Positivity, which involves optimism and positive appraisal of emotions, showed a weak negative association with burnout. In contrast, EI-Self (self-awareness) and EI-Others (understanding others' emotions) did not on their own predict lower burnout. Instead, the protective influences of EI operate largely through indirect pathways: leaders with higher EI create stronger workplace communities and foster mutual trust, which together mediate burnout risk. Path analyses indicate that both a cohesive community and mutual trust are necessary to meaningfully reduce emotional exhaustion, implying that interventions focused solely on EI skill development are unlikely to be effective without corresponding efforts to enhance social resources and organisational culture.

Moderation analyses revealed that only EI-Self moderated the impact of emotional job demands on burnout. However, this buffering effect weakened significantly when stress reached very high levels. No EI components moderated the effect of quantitative demands, underscoring that structural challenges like workload excess require organisational, rather than individual, remedies.

These findings suggest a shift away from one-dimensional EI training towards multidimensional strategies that simultaneously cultivate personal skills and strengthen team cohesion. For Hungarian social care leaders, effective interventions should integrate self-regulation, empathy, and trust-building within frameworks that foster shared community. Inclusion of ongoing feedback, peer support, and continuous development in leadership training is vital for sustaining progress over time.

Amid the ongoing challenges in the Hungarian social care sector – including high turnover, staffing shortages, and inconsistent qualifications – investing in psychosocial resources such as emotional intelligence, trust, and community building offers practical and cost-effective interventions. These competencies help alleviate work-related stress, bolster team unity, and enhance resilience, thereby reducing burnout, improving staff well-being, and increasing job satisfaction. Given systemic weaknesses and instability in the Hungarian sector, focusing on these human factors is a sustainable approach to mitigating workforce pressures and limiting disruptive staff fluctuations. Cultivating emotional intelligence together with trust and community within social care teams emerges as a promising strategy to boost the sector’s overall effectiveness and long-term sustainability despite structural constraints.

A promising direction for future research involves exploring the role of EI components in navigating workplace disruptions specific to the Hungarian context, such as organisational restructuring or crisis events common in the sector. Understanding how EI-Self, EI-Others, and EI-Positivity enable leaders and staff to maintain relationships and performance during destabilisation could inform the design of culturally and contextually resilient work environments.

In summary, this study advances the JD-R model by showing that emotional intelligence’s effectiveness in reducing burnout depends on context and operates mainly through a supportive social environment. Achieving sustainable organisational health in Hungary’s social care system requires leaders to develop their emotional capacities while investing in a workplace culture grounded in trust, connectedness, and mutual support. This integrated, systems-informed perspective lays a strong foundation for future research and interventions tailored to the needs of Hungarian social care and related human services.

7. Plain Language Summary

This research explored how emotional intelligence influences burnout among leaders working in Hungary's social care system – a challenging environment marked by high job demands and limited resources. Emotional intelligence includes skills like understanding and managing one's own emotions, recognising others' feelings, and maintaining a positive outlook.

The study found that emotional intelligence on its own does not directly protect against burnout. Instead, leaders with higher emotional intelligence create stronger team connections and build trust among their colleagues, which work together to help prevent burnout. One particular skill, self-awareness, can help leaders handle emotional stress, but only up to a certain point – when emotional demands become extremely high, its protective effect weakens.

Additionally, the study showed that emotional intelligence does not reduce the negative effects of heavy workloads – these require changes at the organisational level, such as better staffing and resource allocation.

For social care leaders in Hungary, this means that programs aimed at developing emotional intelligence should also focus on fostering supportive team cultures and building mutual trust. This combined approach not only helps reduce stress and burnout but also improves workplace satisfaction and staff retention. Given the specific challenges faced by Hungarian social care services, investing in these psychosocial skills offers a practical and effective way to support leaders and sustain the quality of care.

8. Summary

Burnout among social care leaders is a significant challenge due to the emotional and quantitative demands of their roles. Within the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) framework, this study examines the impact of emotional intelligence (EI) on burnout, focusing on its indirect influence through workplace psychosocial resources – specifically, a sense of community and mutual trust. It also examines whether EI moderates the relationship between job demands (emotional and quantitative) and burnout among Hungarian social care leaders. The study analysed three EI dimensions: self-awareness (understanding one’s own emotions), social awareness (understanding others’ emotions), and positive emotional appraisal (maintaining an optimistic interpretation of emotions). It assessed whether workplace resources mediate the relationship between EI and burnout, and whether EI buffers the impact of job demands on well-being. Using a cross-sectional design, data were collected from 667 Hungarian social care leaders, resulting in a final sample of 471 respondents. Measures included the Assessing Emotions Scale (EI dimensions) and the Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire (burnout and workplace factors). Analyses involved descriptive statistics, correlations, mediation models testing each EI component with the resources as mediators, and moderation analyses on the job demands-burnout relationship. Results showed EI reduces burnout indirectly by fostering a workplace environment rich in community and trust. Direct effects of EI on burnout were weak or non-significant, highlighting the mediating role of psychosocial resources. EI-Self buffered moderate emotional demands, but this effect disappeared or reversed at very high emotional demands, likely due to emotional overload. None of the EI dimensions moderated the impact of quantitative demands, suggesting systemic workload issues require organisational solutions. In summary, EI contributes to reducing burnout primarily by enabling leaders to build psychosocial resources, such as trust and community. Thus, EI training focused solely on emotional skills may be insufficient. In the context of the Hungarian social care system, where financial compensation and societal recognition are often limited, fostering a positive and supportive workplace atmosphere becomes especially crucial. Effective interventions should integrate EI development with organisational strategies that nurture supportive workplace cultures. Such combined approaches can enhance leader resilience, reduce burnout and promote workforce well-being in demanding social care settings.

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10. Bibliography of the candidate's publications

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11. Appendix

11.1. Appendix 1

The Hungarian Version of the Questionnaire utilised in this study

Demográfiai adatok (Demographical Data)

1. Születési Éve:
2. Neme: Nő Férfi
3. Mi az Ön legmagasabb iskolai végzettsége?
 - Gimnázium
 - Szakközépiskola, technikum
 - Érettségire épülő szakképzés
 - Felsőfokú szakképzés
 - Főiskola, felsőfokú alapképzés (BA/BSc)
 - Egyetem, felsőfokú mesterképzés (MA/MSc), osztatlan képzés
 - Főiskolai szakirányú továbbképzés
 - Egyetemi szakirányú továbbképzés
 - Doktori (PhD-, DLA-) képzés
4. Milyen szakképzettséggel rendelkezik? (Kérjük, sorolja fel az összeset!)
5. Hány évre visszanyúló teljes munkaidős gyakorlata van? _____
6. Hány éves vezetői tapasztalattal rendelkezik? _____
7. Mennyi ideje dolgozik jelenlegi munkaadójának? _____
8. Hány éve dolgozik vezetőként jelenlegi intézményében? _____
9. Dolgozott-e valamikor külföldön?
 - a. Nem
 - b. Igen jelenlegi szakmájában
 - c. Igen, nem a szakmában (akkor milyen területen?)

Amennyiben igen:
 - d. Melyik országban?
 - e. Mennyi időt? (év).....
10. Milyen pozíciót tölt be jelenleg az intézményében?
 - a. Felsővezető
 - b. Középvezető
11. Hány beosztottja van Önnek? _____
12. Melyik régióban található az Ön munkahelye?
 - Észak-Magyarország
 - Észak-Alföld
 - Dél-Alföld
 - Közép-Magyarország
 - Közép-Dunántúl
 - Nyugat-Dunántúl
 - Dél-Dunántúl
 - Budapest

13. Milyen településtípuson van az Ön munkahelye?

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Falu, község | <input type="checkbox"/> Megyeszékhely |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Város | <input type="checkbox"/> Főváros |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Megyei jogú város | |

14. Kérjük adja meg munkahelye fenntartójának típusát!

- Állami
- Önkormányzati
- Egyházi
- Egyéb nem állami (pl. alapítvány, egyesület, kft...)

15. Kérjük jelölje meg azt a szolgáltatást (több választ is megjelölhet) amelyek esetében Ön vezető beosztást tölt be!

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Falugondnoki szolgáltatás (1) | <input type="checkbox"/> Fogyatékos személyek otthona (25) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Tanyagondnoki szolgáltatás (2) | <input type="checkbox"/> Pszichiátriai betegek otthona (26) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Szociális étkeztetés (3) | <input type="checkbox"/> Szenvedélybetegek otthona (27) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Házi segítségnyújtás (4) | <input type="checkbox"/> Hajléktalanok otthona (28) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Támogató szolgáltatás (5) | <input type="checkbox"/> Fogyatékos személyek rehabilitációs intézménye (29) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Jelzőrendszeres házi segítségnyújtás (6) | <input type="checkbox"/> Pszichiátriai betegek rehabilitációs intézménye (30) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pszichiátriai betegek közösségi ellátása (7) | <input type="checkbox"/> Szenvedélybetegek rehabilitációs intézménye (31) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Szenvedélybetegek közösségi ellátása (8) | <input type="checkbox"/> Hajléktalan személyek rehabilitációs intézménye (32) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Alacsonyküszöbű ellátás (9) | <input type="checkbox"/> Fogyatékos személyek rehabilitációs célú lakóotthona (33) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Utcai szociális munka (10) | <input type="checkbox"/> Fogyatékos személyek ápoló-gondozó célú lakóotthona (34) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Időskorúak nappali ellátása (11) | <input type="checkbox"/> Pszichiátriai betegek rehabilitációs célú lakóotthona (35) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Demens személyek nappali ellátása (12) | <input type="checkbox"/> Szenvedélybetegek rehabilitációs célú lakóotthona (36) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Fogyatékos személyek nappali ellátása (13) | <input type="checkbox"/> Támogatott lakhatás (37) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hajléktalan személyek nappali ellátása (14) | <input type="checkbox"/> Egyéb speciális szociális intézményi ellátás (38) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pszichiátriai betegek nappali ellátása (15) | <input type="checkbox"/> Család- és gyermekjóléti szolgálat (39) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Szenvedélybetegek nappali ellátása (16) | <input type="checkbox"/> Család- és gyermekjóléti központ (40) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Időskorúak gondozóháza (17) | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Fogyatékos személyek gondozóháza (18) | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pszichiátriai betegek átmeneti otthona (19) | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Szenvedélybetegek átmeneti otthona (20) | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Éjjeli menedékhely (21) | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hajléktalan személyek átmeneti szállása (22) | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Idősek otthona (23) | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Szakápolási központ (24) | |

- Bölcsőde (41)
- Mini bölcsőde (42)
- Munkahelyi bölcsőde (43)
- Családi bölcsőde (44)
- Napközbeni gyermekfelügyelet (45)
- Alternatív napközbeni ellátás (46)
- Helyettes szülői ellátás (47)
- Gyermek átmeneti otthona (48)
- Családok átmeneti otthona (49)
- Krízisközpont (50)
- Félutasház (51)
- Titkos menedékház (52)
- Nevelőszülői ellátás (53)
- Központi speciális gyermekotthon (54)
- Központi speciális gyermekotthonnak nem minősülő speciális gyermekotthon (55)
- Kizárólag kísérő nélküli kiskorúakat ellátó minősülő speciális gyermekotthon (56)
- Különleges gyermekotthon (57)
- Lakásotthon (58)
- Speciális lakásotthon (59)
- Különleges lakásotthon (60)
- Utógondozó otthon (61)
- Területi gyermekvédelmi szakszolgáltatás (62)
- Biztos Kezdet Gyerekház (63)
- Fejlesztő foglalkoztatás (64)
- Tanoda (65)
- Egyéb (66):
.....

COPSOQ II Kérdőív (COPSOQ II Questionnaire)

A következő kérdések az Ön munkahelyi környezetének pszichoszociális jellemzőire és az Ön munkahelyi elégedettségére vonatkoznak. Előfordulhat, hogy egyes kérdések inkább vonatkoznak az Ön munkájára, mint mások, de kérjük minden kérdésre válaszoljon.

	Mindig	Gyakran	Időnként	Ritkán	Soha/ szinte soha
1. Jellemző-e az Ön munkájára, hogy egyenlőtlenül van elosztva, ezért az elvégzendő feladatok felhalmozódnak?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Kerül-e Ön munkája folytán olyan helyzetekbe, melyek érzelmileg zavaróak, felkavaróak?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Jelentős mértékben képes-e Ön befolyásolni a munkáját?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Nagyon gyorsan kell Önnek dolgoznia?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Jó-e a légkör Ön és a munkatársai között?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Munkája részeként kell-e foglalkoznia más emberek személyes problémáival?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Van-e Önnek beleszólása abba, hogy kivel dolgozik együtt?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Van-e Önnek befolyása arra, hogy milyen munkát végez?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Elő szokott-e fordulni, hogy elmaradásai vannak a munkájával?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Jó-e az együttműködés a munkavégzés során a munkatársak között?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Milyen gyakran fordul elő, hogy nincs ideje minden feladatának elvégzésére?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Jut-e elég ideje feladatainak elvégzésére?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. A munkahelyi közösség részének érzi-e magát?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Tudja-e befolyásolni, hogy mennyi munkát kell elvégeznie?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Milyen gyakran gondolkodik azon, hogy másik munkahelyet kellene keresnie?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Milyen gyakran kap segítséget és támogatást munkatársaitól?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Milyen gyakran hajlandók munkatársai meghallgatni a munkával kapcsolatos problémáit?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Milyen gyakran beszélnek meg a munkatársai Önnel, hogy mennyire végzi jól a munkáját?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Nagon nagy mértékben	Nagy mértékben	Valamely est	Kis mértékben	Nagyon kis mértékben
19. Gyors tempóban kell-e dolgoznia?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

20. Érzelmileg megterhelő-e Önnek a munkája?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Munkája kíván-e Öntől kezdeményezőkézséget?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Értelmes munkát végez-e?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Jó előre értesítik-e Önt a munkahelyén a fontosabb döntésekről, változásokról vagy jövőbeni tervekről?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Világosak a célkitűzések az Ön munkájában?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Meg kell-e felelnie egymással ellentétes elvárásoknak a munkájában?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Elismeri-e és értékeli-e a vezetőség az Ön munkáját?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Fontosnak érzi-e a munkát, amit végez?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Ajánlaná-e egy jó barátjának, hogy az Ön munkahelyén vállaljon állást?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Tudja-e pontosan, hogy mely területek tartoznak az Ön felelősségi körébe?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. Elismeri-e, tiszteli-e Önt a vezetőség a munkahelyén?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. Érzelmileg bevonódik-e Ön a munkájába?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. Tudja-e hasznosítani képességeit vagy szakértelmét a munkája során?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. Örömmel mesél-e másoknak a munkahelyéről?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Megkap-e minden szükséges információt ahhoz, hogy jól tudja végezni munkáját?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. Szokott-e olyan dolgokat csinálni a munkája során, amit egyesek elfogadnak, mások viszont nem?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. Igazságosan bánnak-e Önnel a munkahelyén?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. Tudja-e, hogy pontosan mit várnak el Öntől a munkájában?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. Kell-e tennie időnként olyan dolgokat, amelyeket igazából másként kellene csinálni?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. Van-e lehetősége a munkája révén új dolgokat tanulni?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Nagon nagy mértékben	Nagy mértékben	Valamely est	Kis mértékben	Nagyon kis mértékben
40.Érdeklő, motiválja-e Önt a munkája?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41.Kell-e időnként olyan dolgokat csinálnia, amik fölöslegesnek tűnnek?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42.Egész nap nagyon tempósan kell-e dolgoznia?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43.Nyújt-e lehetőséget a munkája arra, hogy fejlessze készségeit, tudását?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44.Úgy érzi-e, hogy a munkahelye nagyon fontos az Ön számára?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Általánosságban a munkájával kapcsolatban mennyire elégedett Ön:				
	Nagyon elégedett	Elégedett	Elégedetlen	Nagyon elégedetlen
45.- a munkájában rejlő kilátásokkal ?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46.- a fizikai munkakörülményekkel?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
47.- ahogy a képességeit hasznosítják?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48.- a munkájával egészében véve, mindent beleszámítva?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

A következő kérdések nem az Ön munkájára, hanem a munkahely egészére vonatkoznak.

	Nagyon nagy mértékben	Nagy mértékben	Valamely est	Kis mértékben	Nagyon kis mértékben
49. A vezetőség bízik-e abban, hogy az alkalmazottak jól végzik a munkájukat?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50. Megbízhat-e az információkban, amelyek a vezetőségtől származnak?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51. A konfliktusokat igazságosan oldják-e meg?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
52. Visszatart-e a vezetőség fontos információkat az alkalmazottaktól?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
53. Részesülnek-e elismerésben az alkalmazottak, ha jó munkát végeztek?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
54. Visszatartanak-e információkat az alkalmazottak egymás elől?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
55. Visszatartanak-e az alkalmazottak információkat a vezetőség elől?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
56. Általában megbíznak-e egymásban az alkalmazottak?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Nagyon nagy mértékben	Nagy mértékben	Valamelyest	Kis mértékben	Nagyon kis mértékben
57. Komolyan veszi-e a vezetőség az alkalmazottak összes javaslatát?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
58. Kifejezhetik-e az alkalmazottak véleményüket, érzéseiket?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
59. Igazságosan van-e a munka elosztva?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

A következő kérdések a közvetlen felettesével való kapcsolatára vonatkoznak

	Mindig	Gyakran	Néha	Ritkán	Soha/ szinte soha
60. Milyen gyakran hajlandó közvetlen felettese meghallgatni munkával kapcsolatos problémáit?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
61. Milyen gyakran kap segítséget és támogatást közvetlen felettesétől?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
62. Milyen gyakran beszél Önnel közvetlen felettese arról, hogy mennyire végzi jól a munkáját?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ön szerint közvetlen felettese mennyire:					
	Nagyon nagymértékben	Nagy mértékben	Valamelyest	Kis mértékben	Nagyon kis mértékben
63.- biztosít az egyes munkatársak számára megfelelő fejlődési lehetőségeket?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
64.- tulajdonít nagy fontosságot a munkahelyi elégedettségnek?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
65.- tervezi meg jól a munkát?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
66.- oldja meg jól a konfliktusokat?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

A következő kérdések a munka és a magánélet kapcsolatára vonatkoznak

	Igen, gyakran	Igen, időnként	Ritkán	Nem, soha
67. Gyakran érez-e konfliktust a munkája és a magánélete között, egyszerre akarva mindkét helyen lenni?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Igen, teljes mértékben	Igen, bizonyos mértékig	Igen, de csak kissé	Egyáltalán nem
68. Úgy érzi-e, hogy munkája olyan sok energiát vesz el, hogy az negatív hatással van a magánéletére?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
69. Úgy érzi-e, hogy munkája olyan sok idejét veszi el, hogy az negatív hatással van a magánéletére?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
70. Mondogatják-e Önnek a barátai vagy a családja, hogy túl sokat dolgozik?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

71. Ha további megjegyzései vannak a munkahelyi környezet pszichológiai és társas jellemzőivel kapcsolatban, kérjük ide írja le őket (max karakter: 250 szó):

A következő kérdések arra vonatkoznak, hogy Ön hogyan érezte magát az utóbbi 4 hétben.

	Állandóan	Az idő nagy részében	Az idő egy részében	Az idő kis részében	Egyáltalán nem
72. Milyen gyakran aludt rosszul, nyugtalanul?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
73. Milyen gyakran érezte magát kimerültnek?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
74. Milyen gyakran volt nehézsége az elalvással?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
75. Milyen gyakran érezte magát fizikailag kimerültnek?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
76. Milyen gyakran érezte magát érzelmileg kimerültnek?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
77. Milyen gyakran fordult elő, hogy túl korán felébredt, és nem tudott visszaaludni?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
78. Milyen gyakran érezte magát fáradtnak?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
79. Milyen gyakran fordult elő, hogy többször is felébredt és nehezen aludt vissza?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
80. Milyen gyakran fordult elő, hogy nem tudott lazítani?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
81. Milyen gyakran volt ingerlékeny?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
82. Milyen gyakran érezte magát feszültnek, idegesnek?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
83. Milyen gyakran érezte magát stresszesnek?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Kitűnő	Nagyon jó	Jó	Tűrhető	Rossz
84. Összességében hogyan jellemezné Ön az egészségi állapotát?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Igen, napi rendszerességgel	Igen, heti rendszerességgel	Igen, havi rendszerességgel	Igen, néhány alkalommal	Nem
85. Ki volt-e Ön téve a munkahelyén nem kívánatos szexuális érdeklődésnek az elmúlt 12 hónapban?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Munkatárs	Vezető/Felettes	Beosztott	Ügyfél/Vásárló/Páciens
86. Ha igen, kinek a részéről? (Több választ is megjelölhet!)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Igen, napi rendszerességgel	Igen, heti rendszerességgel	Igen, havi rendszerességgel	Igen, néhány alkalommal	Nem
87. Ki volt Ön téve a munkahelyén erőszakkal való fenyegetésnek az elmúlt 12 hónapban?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Munkatárs	Vezető/ Felettes	Beosztott	Ügyfél/ Vásárló/ Páciens
88. Ha igen, kinek a részéről (Több választ is megjelölhet!)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Igen, napi rendszeres- séggel	Igen, heti rendszeres- séggel	Igen, havi rendszeres- séggel	Igen, néhány alkalom- mal	Nem
89. Ki volt-e Ön téve a munkahelyén fizikai bántalmazásnak az elmúlt 12 hónapban?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Munkatárs	Vezető/ Felettes	Beosztott	Ügyfél/ Vásárló/ Páciens
90. Ha igen, kinek a részéről (Több választ is megjelölhet!)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

"Szekálás" alatt azt értjük, ha valakit rendszeresen kényelmetlen vagy megalázó helyzetbe kényszerítenek, és az illető úgy érzi, nehéz vagy lehetetlen ettől megvédenie magát.

	Igen, napi rendszeres- séggel	Igen, heti rendszeres- séggel	Igen, havi rend- szeres- séggel	Igen, néhány alkalom- mal	Nem
91. Ki volt-e Ön téve a munkahelyén, "szekálásnak" az elmúlt 12 hónapban?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Munkatárs	Vezető/ Felettes	Beosztott	Ügyfél/ Vásárló/ Páciens
92. Ha igen, kinek a részéről (Több választ is megjelölhet!)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Schutte Érzelmi Intelligencia Skála (AES SCALE)

A következő kérdések 33 állítást tartalmaznak, kérjük olvassa el az egyes állításokat, és jelölje meg a válaszait az alábbiak szerint:

Válaszlehetőségek: 1: egyáltalán nem jellemző rám 2: kicsit jellemző rám 3: többé-kevésbé jellemző rám 4: jellemző rám 5: nagyon jellemző rám

1. Tudom mikor kell a személyes problémáimat megosztani másokkal.	
2. Ha akadályokba ütközöm, eszembe jut, hogy amikor hasonló akadályokkal kerültem szembe, hogyan győztem le azokat.	
3. Arra számítok, hogy majdnem mindenben jól teljesítek, amit megpróbálok.	
4. Mások könnyen megbíznak bennem.	
5. Nehéz megértenem mások nem verbális üzeneteit.	
6. Életem egyes fontos eseményei, újraértékeltették velem, hogy mi az ami fontos, és mi az ami nem.	
7. Hangulatváltozásaim kapcsán új lehetőségeket fedezek fel.	
8. Az érzelmek azon dolgok közé tartoznak, amelyek értelmessé teszik az életemet.	
9. Tisztában vagyok az érzelmeimmel.	
10. Jó dolgokra számítok.	
11. Szeretem másokkal megosztani az érzéseimet.	
12. Amikor pozitív érzelmeket élek át, tudom mit kell tennem, hogy ezt az érzést hosszasan fenntartsam.	
13. Általában olyasmiket szervezek, ami másokat szórakoztat.	
14. Olyan programokat keresek, melyek örömet okoznak nekem.	
15. Tisztában vagyok a másoknak küldött nem-verbális üzeneteimmel.	
16. Úgy állítom be magam, hogy jó benyomást keltsek mások előtt.	
17. Amikor jó hangulatban vagyok, a problémákat könnyen oldom meg.	
18. Arckifejezéseik alapján felismerem milyen érzelmeket élnek át az emberek.	
19. Tudom, hogy miért változnak az érzelmeim.	
20. Amikor jó hangulatban vagyok könnyen jutnak eszembe új ötletek.	
21. Szabályozni tudom az érzelmeimet.	
22. Könnyen felismerem az érzelmeimet.	
23. Úgy hozom meg a kedvem egy feladathoz, hogy elképzelem milyen sikeresen fogom majd teljesíteni.	
24. Megdicsérek másokat, amikor valami jót csinálnak.	
25. Értem a nem-verbális üzeneteket, amelyeket mások küldenek nekem.	
26. Amikor egy másik ember elmesél valami fontos dolgot ami velem történt, szinte úgy érzem, mintha én is átéltem volna.	
27. Új ötletek jutnak eszembe, amikor érzelmi változásokon esek át.	
28. Amikor kihívás előtt állok feladom, mert úgy érzem, hogy úgy is kudarcot vallok.	
29. Tudom, hogy mások mit éreznek pusztán abból, hogy rájuk nézek.	
30. Segítek másoknak, hogy jobban érezzék magukat, amikor maguk alatt vannak.	
31. A jó hangulatokat hívom segítségül, amikor akadályokba ütközöm.	
32. Mások hangjából már meg tudom állapítani, hogy hogyan érzik magukat.	
33. Nehéz megértenem, hogy mások miért éreznek úgy, ahogy éreznek.	

11.2. Appendix 2

Detailed Descriptive Statistics – Comprehensive Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Distributional Assessment of Key Study Variables

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis
Quantitative demands	0.22	0.17
Emotional demands	-0.17	0.14
Social community at work	-0.91	1.90
Mutual trust between employees	-0.05	-0.28
Burnout	0.11	-0.18
EI-Positivity	-0.60	1.06
EI-Others	-0.11	0.17
EI-Self	-0.27	0.69

11.3. Appendix 3

Serial mediation model of EI-Positivity (EIP) and burnout with two mediators (Published in Kozák et al., 2025)

Path	Variables	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>CI</i> ₉₅	
a ₁	EIP - Community	.31	3.84	0.54	<.001	***	2.67 5.00
a ₂	EIP - Trust	-.03	-0.51	0.75	.497		-2.16 0.94
b ₁	Community - Burnout	-.09	-0.16	0.09	.086		-0.35 0.04
b ₂	Trust - Burnout	-.11	-0.14	0.06	.028	*	-0.27 -0.01
d	Community - Trust	.46	0.65	0.06	<.001	***	0.53 0.78
c'	EIP - Burnout (Direct effect)	-.08	-1.67	1.01	.099		-4.07 0.53
Indirect effects		β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>CI</i> ₉₅	
a ₁ *d	EIP - Community - Trust	.143	2.48	0.42	<.001	***	1.75 3.28
a ₁ *b ₁	EIP - Community - Burnout	-.028	-0.60	0.36	.095		-1.52 0.11
a ₂ *b ₂	EIP - Trust - Burnout	.003	0.07	0.11	.516		-0.10 0.40
a ₁ *d*b ₂	EIP - Community - Trust - Burnout	-.016	-0.34	0.16	.039	*	-0.72 -0.04
	Total indirect effect	-.041	-0.87	0.36	.015	*	-1.80 -0.21
Total effect		β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>CI</i> ₉₅	
c	EIP - Burnout	-.12	-2.54	0.97	.009	**	-4.74 -0.50

Note. Age and sex were included as covariates. EIP: EI-positivity; Community: Sense of community; Trust: Mutual trust between employees. *N* = 471. β and *B* indicate standardised and unstandardised regression coefficients, respectively. The standard errors and confidence intervals of the B-values were obtained using a percentile bootstrap.

* indicates *p* < .05; ** indicates *p* < .01; *** indicates *p* < .001. Bold formatting indicates significance.

11.4. Appendix 4

Serial mediation model of EI-Others (EIO) and burnout with two mediators
(Published in Kozák et al., 2025)

Path	Variables	β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>CI</i> ₉₅	
a ₁	EIO - Community	.26	3.20	0.56	<.001	***	2.15 4.27
a ₂	EIO - Trust	.03	0.59	0.75	.426		-1.04 2.17
b ₁	Community - Burnout	-.12	-0.20	0.09	.023	*	-0.40 -0.02
b ₂	Trust - Burnout	-.11	-0.13	0.06	.031	*	-0.27 -0.01
d	Community - Trust	.45	0.62	0.06	<.001	***	0.51 0.75
c'	EIO - Burnout (Direct effect)	.01	0.18	1.01	.861		-1.90 2.35
Indirect effects		β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>CI</i> ₉₅	
a ₁ *d	EIO - Community - Trust	.12	1.99	0.40	<.001	***	1.32 2.86
a ₁ *b ₁	EIO - Community - Burnout	-.031	-0.65	0.31	.034	*	-1.48 -0.04
a ₂ *b ₂	EIO - Trust - Burnout	-.004	-0.08	0.11	.456		-0.41 0.12
a ₁ *d*b ₂	EIO - Community - Trust - Burnout	-.013	-0.27	0.13	.048	*	-0.56 -0.02
Total indirect effect		-.047	-1.00	0.32	.002	**	-1.83 -0.37
Total effect		β	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>CI</i> ₉₅	
c	EIO - Burnout	-.04	-0.82	0.99	.408		-2.88 1.25

Note. Age and sex were included as covariates. EIO: EI-others; Community: Sense of community; Trust: Mutual trust between employees. *N* = 471. β and *B* indicate standardised and unstandardised regression coefficients, respectively. The standard errors and confidence intervals of the *B*-values were obtained using a percentile bootstrap.

* indicates $p < .05$; ** indicates $p < .01$; *** indicates $p < .001$. Bold formatting indicates significance.

11.5. Appendix 5

Serial mediation model of EI-Self (EIS) and burnout with two mediators
(Published in Kozák et al., 2025)

Path	Variables	β	B	SE	<i>p</i>	CI ₉₅		
a ₁	EIS - Community	.11	1.32	0.57	.020	*	0.22	2.46
a ₂	EIS - Trust	.08	1.40	0.71	.050	*	0.14	2.71
b ₁	Community - Burnout	-.12	-0.20	0.09	.021	*	-0.39	-0.01
b ₂	Trust - Burnout	-.11	-0.14	0.06	.030	*	-0.27	0.00
d	Community - Trust	.45	0.62	0.06	<.001	***	0.51	0.74
c'	EIS - Burnout (Direct effect)	.02	0.39	0.97	.686		-1.61	2.22
Indirect effects		β	B	SE	<i>p</i>	CI ₉₅		
a ₁ *d	EIS - Community - Trust	.047	0.82	0.36	.022	*	0.05	1.57
a ₁ *b ₁	EIS - Community - Burnout	-.013	-0.27	0.16	.100		-0.73	0.02
a ₂ *b ₂	EIS - Trust - Burnout	-.009	-0.19	0.13	.145		-0.58	0.00
a ₁ *d*b ₂	EIS - Community - Trust - Burnout	-.005	-0.11	0.07	.115		-0.36	0.01
Total indirect effect		-.027	-0.57	0.23	.014	*	-1.19	-0.21
Total effect		β	B	SE	<i>p</i>	CI ₉₅		
c	EIS - Burnout	-.01	-0.18	0.98	.857		-2.21	1.60

Note. Age and sex were included as covariates. EIS: EI-self; Community: Sense of community; Trust: Mutual trust between employees. $N = 471$. β and B indicate standardised and unstandardised regression coefficients, respectively. The standard errors and confidence intervals of the B-values were obtained using a percentile bootstrap.

* indicates $p < .05$; ** indicates $p < .01$; *** indicates $p < .001$. Bold formatting indicates significance.