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Effect of Group Teaching of Emotional Intelligence Components of Salovey and Mayer (1990) Model on Stigma in Cancer Patients

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Abstract

Background: Cancer stigma is an important issue in cancer patients and affects the follow-up, adherence, and acceptance of treatment. Therefore, it is necessary to take action to reduce cancer stigma.

Objectives: This study aimed to determine the effect of group training of emotional intelligence components of Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model on stigma in cancer patients.

Methods: This clinical trial with a pretest-posttest design was performed on 52 patients with cancer admitted to Omid Oncology Hospital in Mashhad, Iran, during 2018-2019. The participants were selected by the convenience sampling method and randomly allocated to two groups of intervention (n=25) and control (n=27). The intervention group received emotional intelligence group training based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model during 10 sessions. The control group received routine care during the study. The data collection tool was the Cancer Stigma Scale. Data analysis was performed by SPSS software (version 25) using the paired t-test and independent t-test. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered the significant level. **Results:** Based on the results, there was no significant difference between the intervention and control groups regarding the mean total stigma score in the pretest (P=0.46). However, there was a significant difference between the two groups regarding the changes in the mean total stigma score after the intervention (P<0.001)

Conclusion: Emotional intelligence group teaching can be effective in reducing stigma in cancer patients. Therefore, it is suggested to use emotional intelligence teaching to reduce stigma in cancer patients in oncology hospitals.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, group teaching, cancer, stigma

Introduction

Cancer is one of the most critical barriers to increasing life expectancy in the 21st century [1]. The increase in cancer incidence rate is associated with a significant global burden [2]. Cancer incidence is estimated to increase from 14 million

in 2012 to 24 million in 2035 [3]. According to the National Cancer Population Registry in Iran, this country is among the areas at moderate risk of cancer [4]. It is predicted that the incidence of cancer will increase by 2035 [5].

Cancer is a serious disease and is known as a deadly disease [6]. A fatalistic attitude toward cancer is usually associated with believing in the impossibility of curing and families not willing to choose or receive palliative care in the end-stage phase of the disease [7]. Consequently, one of the major psychosocial challenges of patients with cancer is cancer-related stigma, including fear of disease and death [8].

The term "stigma" was first coined by Erving Goffman (1963) as "characteristics that transform the individual carrying it from normal to worthless and abnormal" [9]. Cancer stigma might manifest as fear of familial transmission of the disease and responsibility for causing the disease [10]. Cancer stigma might also manifest itself in the form of compassionate attitudes toward cancer, such as shame, suffering, regret, sympathy, and compassion [11]. In some societies, cancer stigma involves unknown causes affected by fate or black magic [12]. Cancer stigma often stems from cultural stereotypes that, in addition to making cancer deadly, include its contagiousness and the punishment of immoral behaviors [13].

Lack of proper response of clinicians to how and why cancer develops has led to different interpretations of this disease. In numerous cultures, uncertainty about the unknown etiology of cancer has led to the interpretation of cancer as a punishment that individuals receive for committing a sin [7]. Cancer stigma is associated with negative psychological states, such as depression, anxiety, anger, low self-esteem, and demoralization, due to the use of ineffective coping techniques, such as self-blame, lack of self-disclosure, and receiving social support.

Feeling ashamed and embarrassed prevents health-related behaviors, such as not following, accepting, and following treatment [14]. In Iran, most cancer patients suffer from the stereotype of cancer stigma, including the impossibility of curing cancer [15]. Most cancer patients equate cancer with death and despair, thereby refusing to accept the disease due to cognitive beliefs and changing social roles. Additionally, cancer patients use defense mechanisms, such as non-disclosure, restricting social interactions, and avoiding new relationships with others to counter it [16]. Accordingly, from the point of view of cancer stakeholders, such as patients and their

families, the meaning of cancer stigma is explained with three main themes, including terrible and pathetic disease, communication failure, disease concealment, and identity crisis [17]. In addition to the religious and spiritual contexts of the Iranian individuals at the time of death and mourning, strong family connections are considered a strong point in coping with cancer stigma [18]. Nevertheless, negative attitudes about the impossibility of recovery and discrimination against cancer patients were common among urban Iranians [19].

Iran, several interventions, including knowledge enhancement, coping skills training, emotional-spiritual support, and counseling, have been suggested as care programs to reduce stigma in cancer patients [20]. However, interventions in this area are limited, and there are conflicting results regarding the relationship between knowledge and stigma reduction [21]. Based on the evidence, emotional intelligence is a supportive factor against stigma acceptance [22]. Moreover, high emotional intelligence can be associated with lower stigmatic attitudes [21]. Additionally, the evidence has confirmed that emotional intelligence teaching can help strengthen performance and health-related behaviors [23].

Different models in the field of emotional intelligence teaching have been designed based on the two main perspectives of emotional intelligence as "ability" or "feature". Among the ability models, Salovey and Mayer's (1990) emotional intelligence teaching model has the highest application and validity researchers believe that emotional intelligence as ability can be changed and taught. In this model, emotional intelligence includes the ability in four areas of correct perception of emotions in self (i.e., personal intelligence) and others (i.e., social intelligence), using emotions to facilitate thinking, understanding the meaning of emotions, and managing emotions. Emotional intelligence generally involves the processing of emotional information [24].

The focus of the Salovey and Mayer's (1990) emotional intelligence model is on the application of emotional knowledge and specific emotion regulation mechanisms in emotional situations and performance. It seems that education based on this model can help individuals regarding

The results of studies in Iran showed that there is significant positive relationship emotional intelligence with problem-oriented coping styles and avoidance in cancer patients [27]. In addition, emotional intelligence can be a predictor of psychological well-being in cancer patients [28]. Furthermore, the results of studies showed that emotional intelligence teaching can contribute to the happiness and general health of cancer patients [29]. Considering that most of the studies conducted in the field of emotional related intelligence teaching are to the psychological issues of cancer patients, few studies have been conducted on cancer stigma, especially in Iran. Therefore, this study was conducted for the first time to determine the effect of group training based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model on stigma in cancer patients.

Methods

This single-blind randomized controlled clinical trial was conducted with a pretest-posttest design and a control group. This study was performed on 52 patients with cancer admitted to Omid Oncology Hospital in Mashhad, Iran, during 2018-2019 (early June and late November). The inclusion criteria were an age range of 20-60 years, definitive diagnosis of cancer by an oncologist, and class I or II cancer (according to pathology tests). The exclusion criteria were unwillingness to continue participating in the study, absence in one or more sessions of intervention, and failure to participate in the posttest.

All the ethics points in the study approved by the Research Vice-Chancellor of Mashhad University of Medical Sciences related to the present study were observed in all stages of the research. The ethics points included obtaining a written agreement from the University Ethics Committee, obtaining a written letter of introduction from Mashhad University of Medical Sciences and presenting it to the director of Omid Oncology Hospital of Mashhad, obtaining informed written consent from study participants, coding questionnaires to keep participants secret, and assuring participants' withdrawal at any time, if not willing to continue participation.

The sample size was estimated based on a previous study and using the formula comparison of the mean of two communities $(\frac{\left(z_{1}-\alpha_{/2}+z_{1}-\beta\right)^{2}\left(s_{1}^{2}+s_{2}^{2}\right)}{\left(\bar{x}_{1}-\bar{x}_{2}\right)^{2}}) \quad \text{on} \quad 20 \quad \text{cancer patients}$

participating in the present study. The mean values of the total stigma score in the intervention (23.02±3.1) and control (26.84±4.2) groups were calculated after the intervention with a 95% confidence interval and 85% test power for each group of 24 patients. A 15% loss of sample size was considered in each group of 27 patients (54 subjects in total).

The participants were selected by the convenience sampling method and randomly allocated to two groups of intervention and control. After obtaining the approval of the Ethics Committee of Mashhad University of Medical Sciences, a list of patients eligible to participate in the study was prepared through hospital records. A random sequence of participants entering the two groups was determined through a table of random numbers using a computer. Accordingly, a number was randomly selected by the computer and the two digits to the right of it were considered. If the two digits to the right were even, they were assigned to the intervention group. If the two digits to the right were odd, they were assigned to the control group. This process was performed based on the number of the sample size and continued until the sample size was completed.

Data collection tools included a demographic characteristics form (including information, such as age, gender, and marital status) and the Cancer Stigma Scale (patient version). The Cancer Stigma Scale consists of 12 items, each of which is scored based on a Likert scale within a range of strongly agree (4 points) to strongly disagree (1 point). This tool has three subscales of the

impossibility of recovery, social discrimination (items 1,2,3,4,8,9,10,11 and 12), and stereotypes of cancer patients (items 5,6 and 7). The scores are within a range of 12-48. A higher score indicates a higher level of stigma [30]. This scale was translated in the forward-backward method. The internal consistency of the questionnaire items in a study conducted by Badihian et al. (2017) was satisfactory, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the impossibility of recovery, stereotypes, and social discrimination reported as 0.67, 0.38, and 0.66, respectively [19]. In this study, the reliability of this scale was calculated by the internal consistency method (α =0.89). This reliability was confirmed based on the acceptable alpha coefficient ($\alpha > 0.70$).

In the intervention group, emotional intelligence teaching was performed according to the protocol of emotional intelligence components of Salovey and Mayer (1990) [31]. The patients were taught by a PhD student in counseling who was trained in this field. The patients were taught during 10 sessions each of which lasted 90 min twice a week (Saturdays and Wednesdays). The patients were taught in groups of 12 and 13 in the training room located in Omid Oncology Hospital of Mashhad. The educational content of the sessions is presented in Table 1. The control group received routine care during the study. For the observation of research ethics, after completing the study, the control group was invited to receive emotional intelligence teaching. The data were collected in two stages of the pretest and 8 weeks after the intervention.

Table 1: Group Training Sessions on Components of Emotional Intelligence of Salovey and Mayer (1990)

Session	Content
1 st	Introducing and stating the goals of meetings, defining emotional intelligence and its importance
2 nd	Perception and evaluation of emotions (teaching the physical characteristics of different emotions and identifying emotions)
3 rd	Expressing emotions (teaching the importance of expressing emotions and presenting new communication methods to increase the ability to express emotions)
4 th and 5 th	Facilitate thinking by emotion (the importance of emotions in life and how they affect the promotion of personal development, relationship between thinking and emotions, and creating positive and negative moods in individuals by interpreting pleasant and unpleasant real situations)
6 th	Understanding and analyzing emotions (relationship between thinking, emotion, and behavior, analyzing the effect of thoughts on the experience of emotions by examining specific emotional states in a real situation and acting on these emotions)
7 th	How to use emotional knowledge (empathy training and active listening)
8 th and 9 th	Reflection of emotion regulation to promote intelligence and emotional development (teaching how the brain works in the expression of emotions, relaxation training to increase the ability to stay calm in conflict situations)
10 th	Summary of previous sessions

The data were analyzed by SPSS software (version 25). The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to investigate the normal distribution of quantitative data. The Chi-square, Fisher's exact test, and independent t-test were used to compare the qualitative and quantitative demographic variables of the participants before the intervention. The independent t-test was used for comparison between variables, and the paired t-test was used for comparison within the group. In the performed tests, the confidence level and

significance level were reported as 95% and 0.05, respectively.

Results

The final evaluation was performed on 52 cancer patients (25 and 27 in the intervention and control groups, respectively). Two members of the intervention group (due to absence in more than one session of training sessions) were excluded in the final data analysis. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed that all the

quantitative variables of the study had a normal distribution (P>0.05).

In this study, 30 (57.7%) and 22 (42.3%) participants were female and male, respectively, with a mean age of 43.38 ± 16.18 years. In the pre-

intervention phase, there was no significant difference between the intervention and control groups regarding the demographic characteristics of cancer patients participating in the study (P>0.05) (Table 2).

Table 2: Comparison of Demographic Characteristics of Cancer Patients

Based on Intervention and Control Groups

Group		Intervention	Control		
Variable		n=25	n=27	Test result	
		n (%)	n (%)		
Gender	Female	14(56.0)	16(59.3)	$P^* = 0.50$	
Gender	Male	11(44.0)	11(40.7)	P = 0.50	
	Married	11(44.0)	16(59.3)	$x^2 = 2.14$	
Marital status	Single	3(12.0)	4(14.8)	x = 2.14 df = 3	
Marital Status	Divorced	2(8.0)	2(7.4)	$P^* = 0.54$	
	Widow	9(36.0)	5(18.5)	r = 0.34	
Educational	Secondary	16(64.0)	17(63.0)	$x^2 = 0.43$	
Educational level	Diploma	5(20.0)	7(25.9)	df = 2	
ievei	Academic	4(16.0)	3(11.1)	$P^* = 0.81$	
	Intestine	7(28.0)	8(29.6)		
	Breast	6(24.0)	7(25.9)		
O	Ovary	1(4.0)	2(7.4)	$x^2 = 0.73$	
Organ with	Esophagus	2(8.0)	1(3.7)	df = 6	
cancer	Stomach	4(16.0)	4(14.8)	$P^* = 0.99$	
	Bone marrow	1(4.0)	1(3.7)		
	Uterus	4(16.0)	4(14.8)		
E1	Government employment	1(4.0)	1(3.7)	$x^2 = 0.25$	
Employment status	Self-employed	7(28.0)	8(29.6)	df = 3 $P^* = 0.97$	
status	Housewife	11(44.0)	13(48.1)		
	Unemployed	6(24.0)	5(18.5)		
		mean± sd	mean ± sd		
Age (year)		42.36 ± 16.80	44.33 ± 15.84	t = 0.44 df = 50 $p^{***} = 0.66$	
Cancer duration (year)		2.84 ± 2.21	3.07 ± 2.54	t=0.35 df= 50 p*** = 0.72	

Fisher test

The results of the paired t-test for before-after intragroup comparison in the intervention group showed that the mean total scores of stigma and its subscales in the post-intervention phase were significantly lower than those before the intervention (P<0.05). In the control group, the mean score of the stereotypes subscale in the post-

intervention phase was significantly lower than that reported after the intervention (P=0.006). There was no significant difference in the mean total score of stigma and subscales of the impossibility of recovery and experience of social discrimination in the pre- and post-intervention in the control group (P>0.05) (Table 3).

^{**}Chi-square test

^{****}Independent T-test

_	_	Pre-inter	tervention Post-in		tervention	•		•
Stigma scale		Mean	Standard	mean	Standard deviation	Paired t-test		
		deviatio	deviation			t	df	P-value
Impossibility of	Intervention	18.92 ± 4.31	4.31	16.04	3.30	3.87	24	0.001
recovery and experience of social	Control	18.04 ± 4.78	4.78	18.04	4.74	0.01	26	0.99
discrimination Stereotypes of	Intervention	8.12	1.56	6.48	1.66	5.48	24	0.001
cancer patients	Control	7.96	1.53	7.70	1.64	3.02	26	0.006
_	Intervention	24.96	4.60	22.52	4.46	7.71	24	0.001
Total stigma	Control	26.00	5.45	25.74	5.55	1.89	26	0.09

Table 3: Before-After Intragroup Comparison of Stigma and Its Subscales' Mean Scores in Both Intervention and Control Groups

In before-after intergroup comparison, the results of the independent t-test showed that there was no significant difference between the intervention and control groups regarding the mean total stigma score (P=0.46) and subscales of the impossibility of recovery, experience of social discrimination (P=0.49), and stereotypes in the pre-intervention phase (P=0.72). However, the

results of the independent t-test showed that there was a significant difference between the intervention and control groups regarding the mean score of total stigma (P=0.03) and subscales of the impossibility of recovery, experience of social discrimination (P=0.001), and stereotypes in the post-intervention phase (P=0.01) (Table 4).

Table 4: Intergroup Comparison of Stigma and Its Subscales' Mean Scores After Intervention in Both Intervention and Control Groups

Stigma sca	nle	Mean	Standard deviation	Т	df	P-value (Independent t-test)
Impossibility of	Intervention	16.04	3.30			
recovery and experience of social discrimination	Control	18.04	4.47	1.75	50	0.001
Stereotypes of cancer	Intervention	6.48	1.66	2.67	50	0.01
patients	Control	7.70	1.64	2.07		0.01
Total atioms	Intervention	22.52	4.46	2.29	50	0.03
Total stigma	Control	25.74	5.55		30	0.03

Discussion

This study aimed to determine the effect of group teaching of emotional intelligence based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model on stigma in cancer patients. The results showed that in the pre-intervention phase, there was no significant difference between the control and intervention groups in terms of the mean total score of cancer stigma. However, in the post-intervention phase, the mean total stigma score in the intervention group was significantly reduced, compared to that reported for the control group. Therefore,

emotional intelligence teaching can be effective in reducing stigma in patients with cancer.

One of the main goals of emotional intelligence teaching is to strengthen relationships with others and receive empathetic and emotional support from them [25]. The results of a study performed by Banerjee et al. (2020) confirm the results of the present study, stating that receiving empathetic responses from thoracic oncology staff can reduce stigma in patients with lung cancer [32].

Although the stigma of different diseases has different contents, in all cases it is associated with

the experience of negative emotions in individuals with stigmatized diseases, which is the result of cognitive consequences of stereotypes, prejudices, and experiences of discrimination in society [33]. Some studies have investigated the relationship between self-stigma and social stigma with emotional intelligence in various disorders, the results of which are in line with the results of the present study. Trigueros et al. (2020) showed that family members of patients with mental disorders who had higher emotional intelligence reported lower levels of stigma. Therefore, emotional intelligence can play a protective role against the experience of negative emotions caused by a patient's stigma, such as predicting rejection and negative self-image [22].

Kulikowska and Pokorsk showed a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and social stigma of self-harming behaviors in adolescents. Consequently, higher emotional intelligence is associated with a more remarkable ability to tolerate stress and less social stigma regarding adolescent self-harming behaviors [34]. Armstrong (2015) showed a negative correlation between mental patient's stigma and emotional intelligence. Therefore, individuals with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to stigmatize mental disorders [35]. Carmona-Navarro and Pichardo-Martínez (2012) showed a significant negative relationship between nurses' negative attitudes toward suicidal behaviors and emotional intelligence. As a result, nurses with higher emotional intelligence have fewer negative beliefs and attitudes toward suicidal behaviors and are less likely to stigmatize them [36].

One of the goals of emotional intelligence teaching is to increase the ability to regulate emotions [22]. In this regard, Wei et al. (2016) showed that emotion regulation has a mediating role in the relationship between the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) stigma and emotional state in children with HIV. Emotion regulation by reducing the expression of negative emotions and increasing the degree of resilience might act as a buffer against the negative effects of stigma and help individuals adapt to stigmatization conditions [37].

On the other hand, Valavanis (2019) showed no significant relationship between the stigma of patients with mental disorders and nurses' emotional intelligence [38]. This result is not in

line with the results of the present study. This discrepancy could be due to the use of the social distance scale to measure stigma in nurses, which cannot distinguish between implicit and explicit attitudes of nurses about their perceptions of patients with mental disorders and does not measure all aspects of stigma.

The results of the present study showed that in the pre-intervention phase, there was no significant difference between the intervention and control groups regarding the mean of subscales of the impossibility of recovery, social discrimination experience, and stereotypes. Nevertheless, in the post-intervention phase, the results of the intervention group showed that the mean scores of subscales were significantly compared to those reported for the control group. Therefore, emotional intelligence teaching can be effective in reducing stigma subscales in patients with cancer. Previous studies employed specific scales appropriate to the content of the studied stigma, composed of different subscales: therefore, it was not possible to compare them with the subscales of the present study.

The results of the present study showed that cancer stereotypes in both intervention and control groups were significantly reduced during the pre- and post-intervention phases. It could be due to the degree of resilience of individuals that is consistent with the stereotypes of stigma over time; however, in this study, it was not measured before the intervention.

Limitations

One of the limitations of the present study was the lack of cooperation of many patients to participate in the study due to unfavorable psychological conditions. Therefore, most of the patients included in the study had better mental conditions and were in more favorable psychological conditions. Some patients also refused to participate in the study due to be in the suburbs and transportation problems; therefore, most of the participants in the present study were selected from the residents of Mashhad. It is suggested to perform the present study again on cancer patients who are in the critical condition of cancer diagnosis and reside in other parts of Iran

Conclusion

The results of the present study showed that emotional intelligence teaching helps reduce

stigma and its subscales in cancer patients. One of the benefits of emotional intelligence teaching is to reduce the expression of negative emotions and increase resilience to stressors, which in Iranian society due to religious beliefs is interpreted as patience in the face of difficult living conditions such as cancer, which is a reward from God. Consequently, emotional intelligence teaching in the present study showed a high level of acceptance among participants due to its relevance to Iranian culture. However, the degree of resilience of individuals could be effective as an intervening variable in regulating emotions and adapting to cancer stigma. In this study, the degree of resilience was not considered an intervening variable in the pre-intervention phase in the intervention and control groups. According to the results of this study, considering that emotional intelligence teaching is effective in reducing cancer stigma, health care providers working in oncology hospitals are advised to use emotional intelligence teaching to reduce stigma in cancer patients. In future studies, it is recommended to study the resilience of before the implementation individuals of emotional intelligence teaching and its effect on cancer stigma.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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