

INVESTIGATING THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB
SATISFACTION ON WORK ENGAGEMENT AND BURNOUT OF EMPLOYEES
IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR, WINDHOEK

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT
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ABSTRACT

The public sector is required to have a diverse, competent, and well-managed workforce that is capable and committed to delivering quality services to the Namibian people. In helping achieve this, the purpose of this study was to identify whether emotional intelligence and job satisfaction have an impact on employee work engagement and burnout. Further examination of whether work engagement and burnout are experienced differently according to sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification, and marital status was also undertaken. The focus is on public service employees specifically from the offices of the: Ministry of Labour, Industrial Relations and Employment Creation; the Ministry of Industrialisation and Trade, and the Ministry of Finance in Windhoek. The convenience sampling technique was used, with the data collected from 130 employees. The study took on a quantitative approach by making use of questionnaires. The *Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire* (EQQ) was used to measure emotional intelligence; the *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) measured job satisfaction; the *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* (UWES-9) measured work engagement and the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) was used to measure burnout. The Cronbach Alpha, the Pearson correlation and, Kruskal-Wallis test were used to analyse the data. The study found a positive correlation between emotional intelligence with burnout ($r=.10, p < 0.05$) and work engagement ($r= .21, p < 0.05$), as well as a positive correlation between job satisfaction with burnout ($r= .07, p < 0.05$) and work engagement ($r= .25, p < 0.05$). Overall, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction have a positive correlation with work engagement and burnout. An emotionally intelligent and satisfied employee can become more engaged and can experience burnout. The study also reported that the variance in combined burnout is experienced differently based on sex, yet combined burnout and combined work engagement are not experienced differently based on age, number of years in the industry, marital status, number of dependants, highest qualification, and management level. The study recommends that human resources improve emotional intelligence and job satisfaction to influence employee engagement and burnout. Through emotional intelligence training and assessments, constant evaluation of job satisfaction and work engagement through surveys and regular practical day-to-day engagement activities. Introduce effective

wellness programs and interventions to aid employees to cope with none work-related stress or demands. Further research is needed to further evaluate the experiences of burnout and work engagement with sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and, marital status that was found.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, employee engagement, burnout

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EQ	Emotional Intelligence
COVID-19	Coronavirus Disease 2019
JD-R	Job Demand Resources Model
COR	Conservative of Resource Theory
JSS	Job Satisfaction Survey
UWES-9	Utrecht Work Engagement 9
MBI	Maslach Burnout Inventory

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this paper to my parents, Mrs. Aino Ingo and Mr. Ingo Ingo, as well as my second mother, Ms Hilkka Musilika.

To my siblings Albertina, Andrew, Tangi, and Grace:

“When something is important enough, you do it even if the odds are not in your favour.”

- Elon Musk

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This chapter was aimed at introducing the study by looking at the background information and providing an understanding of the four variables. The chapter also provided an overview of the research, objectives, and the reasons for the study. In addition, it highlights why the study is important, the limitations, and the delimitation of the study. The main focus is on investigating how emotional intelligence and job satisfaction impact work engagement and burnout of employees in the public sector.

1.2 Background of the study

The government's main aim is to transform the public service, to be able to achieve targets set in Vision 2030, the national planning, and the Harambee Prosperity Plan. These targets require having a diverse, competent, and well-managed workforce that is capable and committed to delivering quality services to the Namibian people (Office of the Prime Minister, 2017). This shows how the well-being of employees should be a major focus in organisations (Moshoeu & Geldenhys, 2015). At the same time, Namibia intends to efficiently adapt and develop the Namibian economy (IBP, 2013). However, the public service in Namibia has been experiencing difficulties because of poor service delivery (Helao & Naidoo, 2016), but good service delivery capacity lies with their employees (Ashraf et al., 2016), as employees have to strive to provide the quality of services needed (Jackson, 2020). Thus, showing the pressure the public service employees have to face at work.

Stress is likely to occur in such a demanding workplace (Kejriwal, 2019). A constantly stressful environment would give rise to burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). An employee experiencing burnout is more likely to be emotionally exhausted, less capable, and disengaged from their work (Dall'Ora et al., 2020). This demonstrates that these individuals are less likely to engage and perform (Mitonga-Monga & Mayer, 2020). This is because work engagement and burnout are inversely related (Calvo et al., 2021).

Employees who are disengaged have a negative impact on their performance and well-being (Knight et al., 2017), and they are more likely to leave the organisation (Kuok, & Taormina, 2017).

The above-mentioned outcomes are unfavourable because the public sector has to produce results to contribute to the country's social welfare and economic growth (Sarr, 2015). The public sector needs to be productive because they are important in providing business and social services to the people, tax resource consumers, and they are the biggest employer, so when these organisations are not productive, it will have significant problems for the economy (Linna et al., 2020). To gain quality services it is significant for an organisation to become efficient and effective, this is done by making their employees the focus (Rodrigues & Pieters, 2019). This is where emotional intelligence (EQ) and job satisfaction come into play.

The importance of emotional intelligence in organizational productivity cannot be overstated (Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018). The reason is that employees with high levels of emotional intelligence are more capable of dealing with demanding situations which helps them control deviant work behaviours (Kim & Qu, 2019). Emotional intelligence also influences the different ways people handle frustrating situations by controlling their emotions and interacting with others (Cohen & Abedallah, 2015). and all these reduce the impact of burnout (Ismail et al., 2013). Through job satisfaction, EQ has been shown to have an indirect effect on performance (Mafini, 2014). An employee's job satisfaction should be improved, to decrease burnout and avoid the employee from leaving their work (Yurtsever & Vilmaz, 2019). Employees who are satisfied with their jobs are more engaged and committed, which reduces the effects of burnout (Ismail et al., 2013). As a result, a highly intelligent and satisfied employee is usually regarded as the best performer (Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018).

Past studies have researched each construct separately and how they correlate to it. Most studies showed that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction (Idrus et al., 2015). A positive relationship between emotional

intelligence with work engagement (Sarangi & Vats, 2015), and a negative relationship with burnout (Cazan & Nastasa, 2015). A positive relationship between job satisfaction with work engagement (Garg et al., 2017) and a negative relationship with burnout (Vousiopoulos et al., 2019). As well as a negative relationship between burnout and work engagement (Calvo et al., 2021). However, limited research has been done to understand how these constructs relate to each other, especially in a public sector context. This study then argues that emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, work engagement and the level of burnout are simultaneously critical elements that may influence the way the public sector's employees perform.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Certain financial constraints were imposed as a result of increased government spending, a decline in economic growth, and climate impact (drought, for example) (Melber, 2017). Simultaneously, public institutions are facing the inefficiency and irresponsible management of public resources (Arora et al., 2021). The other challenges confronting the public sector are an inadequate performance management system, a lack of talent development, and poor communication between management and employees (Filippus, & Schultz, 2019). Lack of motivation, a lack of professional development and training opportunities, and ineffective activity coordination (Ndeipanda, 2018). Employees also believe that their pay is insufficient and that there is a high workload as a result of certain positions not being filled (Washey & Furst, 2021).

All the above mentioned, give rise to decreased work engagement and high levels of burnout. This will impact individuals emotionally, psychologically and mentally (Sufia & Latifa, 2016). Poor well-being, low absenteeism, and a high turnover rate would lead to poor quality service (Johnson et al., 2018). In this case, government institutions should equip their workforce to move closer to achieving Namibia's Vision 2030. (Helao & Naidoo, 2016). It will be difficult for public sector organizations to satisfy all of their employees (Ndeipanda, 2018). As the pressure mounts on public institutions to assist in pushing their employees to become more effective, committed, and satisfied (Pushpika, 2019). As a result, efforts must be made to reduce or prevent burnout and increase work

engagement (Van den Broeck et al., 2017). Hence, this study postulates that there exists a correlation between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, work engagement and the level of burnout as they are imperative to encourage productivity in such a demanding workplace.

According to the Office of the President National Planning Commission (2012), to meet their objectives (of 2010 to 2025), Namibia needs to invest in the development of human capital for an excellent labour force that can meet the demands of the economy and to address any issues regarding human resource skills across all sectors. So, the government does need committed and effective employees (Office of the Prime Minister, 2017). Public institutions need their employees dedicated, energetic, and proactive to perform (Borst, 2018). The public employees must be motivated to protect the public interest and build a compassionate civil society (Ritz et al., 2016). Understanding the level of influence the demographic variables impact the levels of burnout and work engagement may help enhance productivity even further. In this way, knowing the impact of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction on work engagement and burnout; as well as the demographic variables will help determine ways to increase the commitment and effectiveness of employees to provide quality services to the Namibian people.

1.4 Research objectives

The objectives of this study are:

1. To investigate whether emotional intelligence and job satisfaction impact burnout of employees.
2. To investigate whether emotional intelligence and job satisfaction impact the work engagement of employees.
3. To investigate whether burnout is experienced differently according to sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status.
4. To investigate whether work engagement is experienced differently according to sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status.

1.5 Hypothesis of the study

Null hypothesis (H0)

1. The variance in burnout of employees in the Namibian public sector cannot be statistically explained by emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.
2. The variance in work engagement of employees in the Namibian public sector cannot be statistically explained by emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.
3. The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status.
4. The variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status.

Alternative hypothesis (H1)

1. The variance in burnout of employees in the Namibian public sector can be statistically explained by emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.
2. The variance in work engagement of employees in the Namibian public sector can be statistically explained by emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.
3. The variance in burnout can be experienced differently based on sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status.
4. The variance in work engagement can be experienced differently based on sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status.

1.6 Significance of the study

Public organizations are realizing that tapping into their employees' knowledge and creative potential gives them a competitive advantage and moves them closer to their goals (North & Kumta, 2018). If an organisation wants to remain competitive, they need engaged employees with a good amount of energy, dedication and absorption. Engaged employees become creative and innovative (Bakker, 2017); this causes rapid growth and change in an organisation (Grobler et al., 2012). Public institutions are anticipated in meeting citizens' needs and interests (Lawton et al., 2013). This is because the public sector should deliver services that reach the wider society to improve the living standard of the citizens (Koma & Tshiyoyo, 2015).

Emotional intelligence should be applied to organisations as a developmental process instead of it being an outcome because it becomes a strategy for the development of the employees and the organisation as a whole. Work engagement leads to key organisational outcomes which include innovation and creativity, good financial results, client satisfaction and a decrease in absenteeism (Bakker, 2017). When an employee is engaged, they are empowered to make an effort, to initiate and create solutions to problems, while employees experiencing burnout are less productive and might seek alternative work (Timms et al., 2012). Burnout prevention helps an employee decrease any negative feelings from the stress that they have developed about their work (Charoensukmongkol et al., 2016).

Organisations need to have engaged and satisfied employees (Moura et al., 2014). Because when an employee is satisfied and engaged in their work there will be lower turnover, low absenteeism, and low burnout (Sirgy, 2012). Employees have higher satisfaction with their jobs when they feel they are supported, and being supported helps decrease emotional exhaustion (Charoensukmongkol et al., 2016). Increasing emotional intelligence is an effective method to reduce burnout (Srivastava et al., 2019). Overall, public organisations are supposed to continuously evaluate their service delivery processes (Korir et al., 2015). Starting with their employees will help in this regard.

1.7 Limitation of the study

The information collected may not be generalised as the study was only focused on the public service. The COVID-19 pandemic has resulted in a limited number of employees participating, and this has affected the number of respondents.

1.8 Delimitation of the study

The scope of the study was only limited to the Ministry of Labour, Industrial Relations and Employment Creation, the Ministry of Industrialisation and Trade and the Ministry of Finance in Windhoek.

1.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is the ability to use, monitor, regulate and perceive our emotions (Pan et al., 2014). Employees are faced with the continuous increase of stress and responsibilities with constantly having to deliver in a constantly demanding environment (Eldor, 2018). Job satisfaction is a person's total feeling about their job and it is related to satisfaction with supervisor, co-workers, pay, promotion and the work itself (Lumley et al., 2011). It causes low absenteeism, low tardiness, lower turnover and a high productivity rate (Sirgy, 2012). Work engagement is a positive motivational state of fulfilment (Cooper & Cartwright, 2009). A low work engagement causes a decrease in an employee's well-being and work performance (Knight et al., 2017). Burnout has been defined as the draining of one's energy (Schaufeli et al., 2009) and a negative influence on satisfaction and performance (Liu et al., 2020).

1.2.1 Theoretical Framework

This study was based on the mixed model of emotional intelligence developed by Daniel Goleman (2001). It explains EQ as a compilation of abilities and personality characteristics, which focuses on knowing your emotions, how you manage your emotions, motivating yourself, how one handles relationships and being able to recognize others' emotions (Stenberg & Kaufman, 2011). An individual's competencies are not innate but learned or adapted (mastering skills of self-management, social awareness, self-awareness and relationship management) and when applied it affects their work performance (Goleman, 2001).

1.3. Research Methodology

1.3.1 Research design

This study was using a non-experimental research design; this kind of design is used in descriptive studies (Maree, 2016). The study employed quantitative research, which involves the use of numerical data to answer the research question (Apuke, 2017). A questionnaire was used to assess and explore the impacts of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction on work engagement and burnout.

1.3.2. Population

The study looked at the employees of the Ministry of Labour, Industrial Relations and Employment Creation, Ministry of Industrialization and Trade and Ministry of Finance working in Windhoek (N= 112 276 civil servants). The exact population size was only provided once permission was granted.

1.3.3. Sample

This study used the random sampling technique (which means any individual in these three ministries had an equal opportunity of becoming part of the study) and anyone willing participated. A sample of n=350 employees was expected to respond to these questionnaires.

1.3.4. Research instrument

A self-administered questionnaire composed of five sections was used. The first section contained the respondent's demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status and education level. The second section has the revised *Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire* (EQQ) developed by Daniel Goleman (Sulianti et al., 2018). The third section has the revised *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) which was developed by Spector (1994). The fourth section looks at the *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* (UWES-9) developed by Schaufeli et al., (2006). The fifth section looks at the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) which was developed by Maslach et al., (1996).

1.3.5. Procedure

After participants consent to participate, the printed questionnaires were distributed based on the above-discussed criteria and online questionnaires were sent. Employees were expected to complete the questionnaires after working hours. The responses were entered into SPSS for analysis, and the results were reported, the data stored on Google drive and the questionnaires stored in a secure cabinet for five years.

1.3.6. Data analysis

The SPSS was used to analyze the data. The Cronbach alpha helped measure the reliability of the instruments, Pearson correlation examines the relationship and strength of the variables and multiple regression analysis assessed the predictability of the two independent variables (Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction) onto the dependent variables (Work engagement and burnout).

1.3.7. Research ethics

Ethical clearance (FHSS/610/2021) was obtained from the University of Namibia and permission from the three ministries. No names were used instead numbers were assigned after the data collection and information obtained was not divulged. The respondents were informed that their participation was voluntary and that they can withdraw at any time without discrimination. Data will be stored for five years before disposing of it.

1.4 Conclusion

This chapter focused on the research proposal. The purpose of this study is to identify whether emotional intelligence and job satisfaction have an impact on employee work engagement and burnout. The other objective of this study is to identify how work engagement and burnout are experienced by the demographical variables. The limitations and delimitations that can affect the outcome of the research were explained. Also, the importance of this study to evaluate these variables with the employees of the public sector was stated. Lastly, explaining the literature review and how the study will collect the data.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter has focused on a better understanding of the study by looking at the definition of emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, work engagement and burnout. The chapter also introduces the concepts concerning past literature on the variables and how this study was drawn up. Their dimensions, antecedents, outcomes and the multiple theoretical backgrounds are outlined. Further, reflection is made on the past literature and past relationships between the different variables.

2.2. Defining emotional intelligence

To understand emotional intelligence (EQ), one has to look at a person's nature when interacting which will help us understand their social functioning (Snyder et al., 2011). Emotions are messages sent to let a person know how they feel about people and situations, while intelligence has to do with naturalistic, linguistic, spatial, musical, bodily-kinaesthetic, logical-mathematical, interpersonal and intrapersonal skills (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). Emotional intelligence refers to the capacity to understand, manage and recognise your own emotions and the emotions of others (Carr, 2004). According to Creed (2011), EQ is the ability to sense and respond to interactions. In another definition, emotional intelligence is defined as the social side of a person which is formed by their total range of interpersonal skills (Mullins, 2013). This study will make use of Carr's (2004) definition of emotional intelligence which defines it as the ability to manage, understand and recognise your own emotions and the emotions of others.

To further understand emotional intelligence, we look at its dimensions which are: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. Self-awareness is being able to have confidence and being aware of your emotions, and self-regulation is being able to control your emotions (Mullins, 2013). Motivation is focusing on your emotions when achieving a goal (Bargrain et al., 2016). Empathy refers to how to

manage and engage with others' emotions (Mullins, 2013). Social awareness is the ability to recognise, monitor and understand your emotions and others' emotions and moods, while social skills refer to the ability to manage and build relationships (Bagram et al., 2016).

Lee and Chelladurai (2017) looked at emotional intelligence in terms of acting (a dysfunctional coping strategy) and deep acting (functional copying strategies; your genuine expression). An employee with low levels of emotional intelligence is more likely to suppress his/her inner feelings which would make them fake their outward expressions (acting). Having a high emotional intelligence helps one increase their social effectiveness and social relations; this way you become better in verbal, social and other aspects of intelligence by being open and agreeable (Snyder et al., 2011).

2.2.1. Antecedents of emotional intelligence

Past research focused on increasing emotional intelligence through communication for mutual understanding. Communication is the transmission and understanding of information from one person to another (Adu-Oppong & Agyin-Birikorang, 2014). Emotional intelligence is founded on the basic human skills of controlling feelings and inner potential to create positive interactions. The ability to communicate efficiently and effectively is an example of emotional intelligence in action (Petrovici & Dobresou, 2014). This means emotional intelligence is developed through communication making it the core capability for effective communication (Murno et al., 2015). This is important in helping employees function effectively in their work environment (Sigmar et al., 2012). It is critical to note that communication is vital in the establishment and maintenance of workplace relationships (Adu-Oppong & Agyin-Birikorang, 2014).

Self-regulation is the capability to change, adjust and control impulses or emotions (Sadri & Janani, 2015). This is similar to what Sadri and Janani (2015) noted that employees who can control their emotions influence their emotional intelligence, and when this control lacks, it affects performance. Self-monitoring is the ability to knowingly observe and regulate one's behaviour (Sandhaya et al., 2011). It has a

positive impact on cognitive, emotional and behavioural aspects of an individual (Gupta et al., 2013); this affects one's awareness and skills which increases emotional intelligence. Self-monitoring is an advantage, especially in the service industry where employees need to know how to present themselves when interacting with clients/customers (Sandhaya et al., 2011).

Mullins (2013) looks at steps that develop emotional intelligence which are: knowing what you feel, why you feel it, being able to acknowledge emotions and managing them. Further processes are knowing how to motivate yourself and make yourself feel better; being able to recognise the emotions of other people and developing empathy, and lastly, expressing your feelings appropriately and managing relationships. Creating an emotional intelligence culture and having emotionally intelligent leaders will help increase emotional intelligence in an organisation (Mullins, 2013). An emotionally intelligent culture is enhanced by fostering climates such as caring or empathy because they enhance the level of understanding of emotions at an individual and group level (Downey et al., 2011).

Using silence as a strategic tool will increase emotional intelligence, as employees will be able to think better before reacting to a situation (Srivastava et al., 2019). Knowledge sharing in an organisation was found to influence emotional intelligence, as it is vital to making work more effective (Jamshed & Majeed, 2018). Avoiding uncertainty in every aspect of the job has an impact on a person's emotional intelligence; a person becomes emotionally intelligent when they avoid any kind of uncertainty through observing the emotions of others (Gunkel et al., 2013).

A leader is the centre of any organisation and their behaviour impacts all (Abraham & Scaria, 2017). Therefore, having a leader who can control their emotions and is aware of their and others' emotional reactions equate to an emotionally intelligent leader (Allen et al., 2012). Organisations that have emotionally intelligent leaders should help reinforce the leaders with theoretical and experiential learning. This type of learning helps in constantly recalling experiential and cognitive backgrounds for good understanding in resolving workplace problems and demands (Abraham & Scaria, 2017). Another way to cultivate an emotionally intelligent leader is through reflection, as it is a means to

stimulate learning (Heckemann & Halfens, 2015). This means being able to constantly reflect on oneself; an emotionally intelligent leader will then model this behaviour to their subordinates encouraging an emotionally intelligent culture (Abraham & Scaria, 2017).

Collectivism, focusing on working with others/groups and less about oneself, enhances emotional intelligence. An individual that is part of a collective environment will develop abilities that will help them understand and express their emotions (Gunkel et al., 2013). While in an emotionally intelligent culture, supervisors can increase emotional intelligence by addressing the employees' emotions (Downey et al., 2011).

2.2.2. Outcomes of emotional intelligence

Public service employees need high levels of emotional intelligence because of its outcomes and their work involves emotionally intense work in keeping up with serving the public (Lee, 2017). A person with low levels of emotional intelligence can repress their inner feelings and fake outward expressions of emotion which is a dysfunctional coping mechanism. However, a person with high levels of emotional intelligence tends to change their inner feelings to display the right emotions in the right situations, and this can lead to a decrease in burnout (Lee & Chelladurai, 2017). This is likely to impact customer service. Emotional intelligence is a protective barrier against burnout consequences, and this increases performance (Sanchez-Gomez & Bresó, 2020). An employee with a high level of emotional intelligence can reduce burnout and give more time and effort to all obligations (Cohen & Abedallah, 2015). It helps one to control any potential job stressors because the person will be able to control their emotions when they encounter challenges (Chen & Chen, 2018). This is similar to what Kim and Qu (2019) said when they noted that a highly intelligent person is capable of dealing with demanding conditions which can help an individual control their deviant work behaviours and avoid incivility. This then impacts employees by decreasing their exhaustion, and the employee also becomes better at adapting to a constantly changing environment (Sanchez-Gomez & Bresó, 2020). Emotional intelligence is needed to enhance the public sector's efficiency (Arfara & Samanta, 2016).

Effective communication is an outcome of emotional intelligence. An emotionally intelligent individual becomes self-aware and has social skills which enable them to communicate effectively (Murno et al., 2015). Emotional intelligence helps one handle frustration by controlling their emotions and interacting with others, developing their lives, understanding better in-role performance and organisational behaviours, jobs and social skills (Cohen & Abedallah, 2015). It can influence one's work performance, especially with work that requires low skills because emotional intelligence is significant in carrying out work tasks (Castillo & Delvalle, 2017). Emotional intelligence is positively related to job satisfaction and work engagement; an emotionally intelligent person becomes vigorous, dedicated and absorbed in their work which leads to positive work attitudes (Extremera et al., 2018). It increases satisfaction with an employees' job by accepting their emotions so that they can indicate their displeasure or pleasure within their workplace and that they will be interpreted correctly in the workplace (Downey et al., 2011). It affects well-being, commitment and turnover intentions. An emotionally intelligent employee's perception/view of their commitment and their well-being will impact their intentions to leave their position/organisation (Brunetto et al., 2012).

Emotional intelligence increases the awareness of an employee emotionally or psychologically which can lead to commitment (Downey et al., 2011). This then leads to less absenteeism and turnover (Lee, 2017). Another outcome of emotional intelligence is self-esteem through being self-aware (knowing yourself is important to your self-esteem), less negative social behaviours and more pro-social behaviours, positive moods and less violent behaviours. These are built through being socially aware and having social skills because emotional intelligence enables one to be aware, manage and control others' moods and emotions (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). Employees with high emotional intelligence are capable of keeping their emotions under control during difficult and unpleasant experiences; this helps keep potential stressors under control and encourages a supportive work climate (Chen & Chen, 2018). Being able to recognise, understand and manage the way you apply emotions and self-assessing your inner resources, limits and abilities will help become an emotionally intelligent person (Mullins, 2013). Because of their emotional intelligence, employees in the public sector can be motivated to be committed to their work (Ahad et al., 2021).

2.2.3. Theoretical approaches to emotional intelligence

2.2.3.1. Ability model of emotional intelligence

This theoretical framework which is made up of components such as appraisal and expression, regulation and utilisation was developed by Salovey and Mayer (Carr, 2004). These are emotional abilities that can give individuals a pool of intellectual resources (Snyder et al., 2011). It focuses on this set of competencies or mental resources as four stages (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). The ability model explains that abilities are used as a way to process information about an individual's emotions and that of others (Carr, 2004). The ability model looks at four branches, and these are skills that help one reason with emotions; the three components are regulation, utilisation, appraisal and expression (Snyder et al., 2011).

Branch one looks at the expertise that one would need to express and recognise feelings (Hultin, 2011). Emotional perception is being able to register, interpret and attend to a variety of emotional messages that are expressed (Carr, 2004). This is the ability to perceive emotions that are displayed accurately by another person which is the starting point of understanding emotions (Narboevich, 2020). This branch looks at perceiving emotions by recognising the emotions in yourself and others; this will help the person be better at dealing with any social situation. Employees can perceive emotions by asking questions like how do they feel or how do others feel? (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011).

Branch two looks at understanding thinking by using emotions (Snyder et al., 2011). Using emotions that facilitate thoughts by focusing on important things, looking at different perspectives and reasoning helps in decision-making (Hultin, 2011). Individuals who have high levels of emotional intelligence work well with their emotions to help improve their problem-solving ability and increase their creativity (Snyder et al., 2011). If you need to calm yourself down when you need to perform work like surgery, you can talk to yourself by looking at questions like how does your mood influence your thinking? How is this affecting your decision-making? (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). People that are developed in this area can look at situations from a

different perspective which allows them to have creative problem-solving skills, and these people tend to have an optimistic perspective of things (Carr, 2004). Additionally, they are also able to connect to the experiences of other people (Mayer et al., 2016).

Branch three looks at skills that can facilitate a deep understanding of complex emotions, relationships among and between emotions and the outcomes of behaviour (Snyder et al., 2011). This is having an emotional understanding which is being able to grasp the complications of emotions (Carr, 2004). This branch can be identified as understanding emotions; it is a matter of not just being angry or hurt, or happy or sad but a combination of all of them at the same time. One can understand emotions by asking questions like why am I feeling like this? What do these emotions mean? How is this going to go? (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). This means one will be able to understand how emotions can change in the long run; how an emotion can lead to another; how the material of emotions can affect relationships and how to handle conflicting situations (Carr, 2004). Emotions carry information like anger which shows a desire of attacking; happiness shows a desire of uniting with people, and fear shows a desire of escaping, so when a person understands the underlying message it helps with reasoning (Narboevich, 2020).

Branch four looks at having to regulate your mood by balancing your emotions (Snyder et al., 2011). This branch looks at managing emotions which is being able to regulate and manage your own emotions by recognising where and when to express a certain emotion or waiting for the right time. There is a time and place for an appropriate emotion, so you have to ask questions like; what can you do about it, and how can these emotions be regulated? (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). Moreover, this branch indicates that a person needs to constantly evaluate and monitor ways to decrease, maintain or intensify an emotional response; when to engage or when to disengage and stay open (Mayer et al., 2016). This includes; being able to engage and disengage with their feelings (Carr, 2004). This theoretical framework is the most influential because it makes use of one's cognitive ability in the procedure when it comes to emotions (Van de Merwe, 2005). These are sets of abilities that help with the processing of information, but when an individual has developed these abilities, it doesn't mean they will be used

routinely (Carr, 2004). This is one way of looking at how emotional intelligence functions.

2.2.3.2. Combined emotional intelligence theory

This theory focuses on combining abilities and traits, and it was developed by Daniel Goleman (McClellan et al., 2017). This looks more at intelligence as a mental ability, so this theory focuses on a combination of personality characteristics with emotional intelligence abilities (Stenberg & Kaufman, 2011). This theory looked at five abilities or components of emotional intelligence which are: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, social awareness and social skills (Gibson, 2006), self-awareness of one's emotions which is by recognising a feeling from a moment to a moment (Stenberg & Kaufman, 2011). Self-awareness refers to being aware of your personality (Gibson, 2006), and when one can identify and understand their own emotions (Hefferon & Kaufman, 2011). It is concerned with monitoring your own and others' moods, emotions and drives such that you can react to situations appropriately. Here, an individual is objective and realistic in identifying and analysing a certain situation before deciding on a reaction; this includes having a dry sense of humour (Werner, 2016). Carr (2004) also adds abilities such as confidence in self, assessing oneself realistically and being emotionally self-aware.

Another component is self-regulation; being able to control emotions which will help one react appropriately to anger (Gibson, 2006). You can also call it managing emotions which is an appropriate way of handling your feelings like soothing yourself, shaking off anxiety and irritability (Stenberg & Kaufman, 2011) and trying to release the feelings of distress (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). This happens by being able to control any impulses, moods and judgement that is hostile. By this, a person has self-control, is tolerable and can constructively manage their anger in a constructive manner as well as acquire trust, integrity, comfortability, and they are being open (Werner, 2016). This also includes conscientiousness, adaptability, being achievement-oriented and being an initiator (Carr, 2004). It also includes impulses, self-control, trustworthiness, adaptability, innovation and conscientiousness (McClellan et al., 2017).

Motivation is another component that focuses on working because it is a passion (Gibson, 2006). This refers to being able to motivate yourself by matching emotions with your goals (Stenberg & Kaufman, 2011), and being skilful in slowing down gratification for a successful future (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). This is achieving drive, initiative, commitment, and optimistic (McClellen et al., 2017). An individual can transmit emotions that are directed to goals especially those that are externally rewarding and those that give an individual inner pleasure; this will then increase self-mastery, creativity, and perseverance. This has to do with enhancing your drive to achieve and being optimism (Werner, 2016).

Empathy is reacting to unexpressed feelings from other individuals (Gibson, 2006). It is concerned with recognising the emotions of others by being empathetic but being aware of others' wants and needs (Stenberg & Kaufman, 2011). Showing empathy is very significant for social relationships (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). Having empathy is a necessary skill as it is all about understanding others' feelings, being sensitive to others and being able to listen to others, and these are things like cross-cultural sensitivity, managing talent and customer service (Werner, 2016). It can also include service orientation and organisational awareness (Carr, 2004).

Social skills look at an individual having expertise in managing and building relationships (Gibson, 2006). This is handling relationships by managing emotions in others (Stenberg & Kaufman, 2011) and being able to motivate and help others with their distress (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). Having social skills is being able to resolve conflict, negotiate, communicate, participate, be a leader, and manage and build relationships. People that are good in this aspect can lead to change, and they can impact other people to reach their goals (Werner, 2016). It also includes abilities such as having influence, communicating, being a change catalyst, managing conflict, building bonds, and leading and developing others (Carr, 2004).

This model is combined because it looks at mixing an employee's ability and their personality to how they apply them to components that correspond to their work performance. Since such competencies or skills are learned, it will all depend on an employee's potential to master them, and this will establish the success and drive of this

employee's performance in the organisation (Goleman, 2001). Besides, Jung and Yoon (2016) found that emotional intelligence is important for the performance of the organisation. Looking at the public sector's employees' abilities and personalities will help understand how their emotional intelligence affects the way they become effective.

2.2.3.3. Bar-Ones personality model

Emotional intelligence is a skill that makes one understands themselves and others as well as interact with them (Hefferon & Boniwell, 2011). This model looks at correlated emotional and social competencies or skills which help one understand how we can understand and express ourselves, understand others and cope with all the demands and challenges we face every day (Passmore, 2010). The model focuses on five components/domains which comprise fifteen subfactors (Van De Merwe et al., 2005). In each of these dimensions, there are specific competencies/skills which if put together, add up to emotional and social intelligence (Passmore, 2010).

The first domain is intrapersonal skills such as self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence and self-actualisation (Devan, 2003). Intrapersonal skills have to do with the awareness and expression of oneself (McClellan et al., 2017). It is about being understanding and aware of feelings and emotions or ideas of self (Rajput, 2016). Self-regard is being able to understand, accept and perceive accurately; self-awareness is being aware and understanding emotions and feelings; self-actualisation is being able to be motivated to achieve one's potential and personal goals (Bar-On et al., 2007).

The other domain is interpersonal skills such as empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationship (Devan, 2003). Interpersonal skills refer to one's social awareness and close relationships (McClellan et al., 2017). Empathy has to do with understanding the feelings, ideas or immaturity of others (Rajput, 2016). Social responsibility is being aware and understanding others' feelings, and how one identifies themselves (Bar-On et al., 2007).

Adaptability is the ability of openness to change and not depend on situations (Rajput,

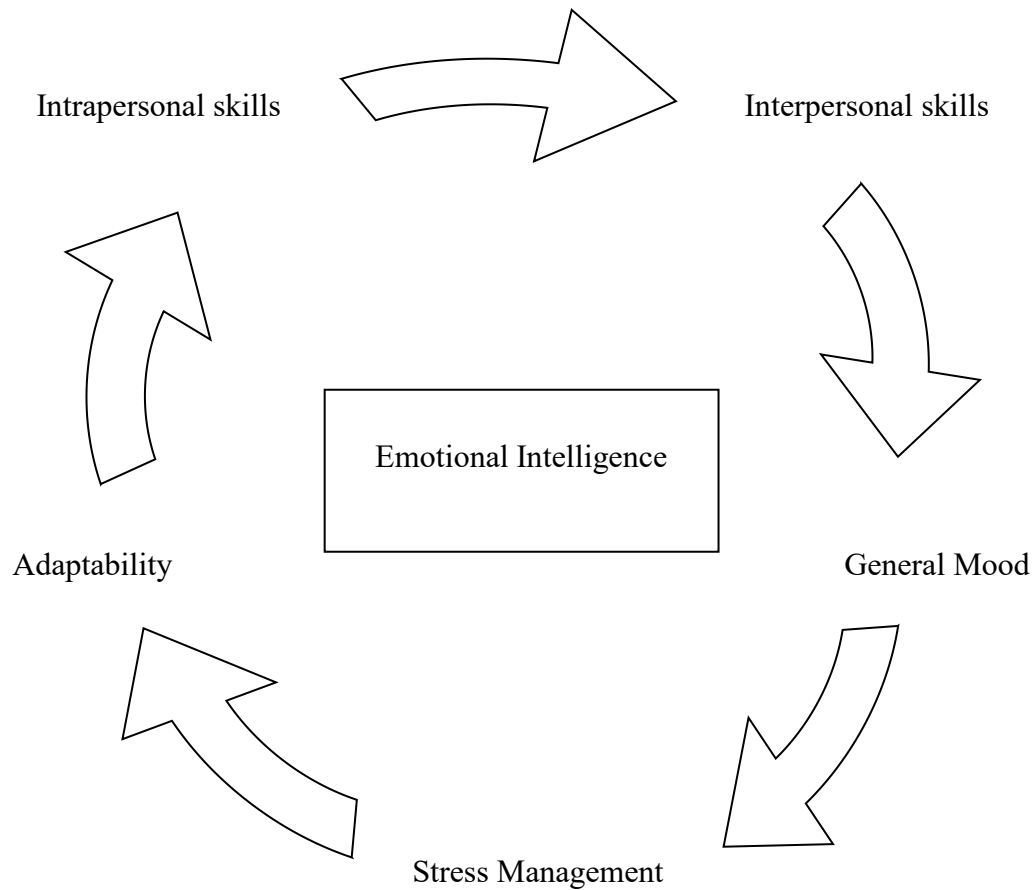
2016). This is being able to solve problems constructively, being able to manage change and ambiguity and being realistic (Day & Leggat, 2015). The subdomains are flexibility, reality testing and problem-solving (Devan, 2003). Flexibility has to do with being able to adjust to situations or the magnitude of being able to look at various problems and develop solutions (Gunduz, 2013). Reality testing is verifying and testing one's beliefs in given situations (Mangal & Mangal, 2015). While problem-solving is the process of acquiring a better solution to an issue (Rahmawati, 2018).

Stress management is the ability to cope with stress and manage emotions (Rajput, 2016). It has to do with managing stress effectively, controlling your emotions and resisting impulses (Day & Leggat, 2015). The subdomains are impulse control and stress tolerance (Devan, 2003). Impulse control is the resistance to tension behaviour (Grant et al., 2014). Stress tolerance is the ability to resist the pressure from events that are stressful (Mangal & Mangal, 2015).

The general mood is the manifestation of expressing and feeling positive emotions with optimism (Rajput, 2016). This refers to having satisfaction with life and maintaining positive attitudes (Day & Leggat, 2015). It looks at optimism and happiness (Devan, 2003). Optimism is concerned with having enthusiastic expectations of the future (Carver et al., 2010). Happiness is a positive feeling state (Binkley, 2011). This model looks at the mixture of qualities of personal, emotional and cognitive intelligence that impact an individual that can show how a person has to succeed (Rajput, 2016). Intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, and stress management are all components that public sector employees can require to deal with a constantly demanding environment and perform effectively.

Figure 2.1

Bar Ones Personality Model



Note. The above model was adapted from Kanesan & Fauzan (2019).

2.3. Defining job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a complex term that has different meanings and perspectives (Jalagat, 2016). According to Bagraim et al. (2016), job satisfaction is one's general attitude regarding their job. It can also be defined as the way individuals feel about their job (Armstrong, 2014). Job satisfaction can be defined as a healthy feeling and a feeling of acceptance of one's position at work (Lussier & Hendon, 2013). Job satisfaction is considered an attitude that is usually linked to personal achievement feelings (Mullins, 2013). When an employee is satisfied with all aspects of their job that they find significant, it will help them experience satisfaction in their jobs (Bagraim et al., 2016).

When an employee does not have the opportunity to demonstrate their capabilities to perform, it will be hard to be productive because they can't demonstrate the ability to perform (Werner, 2016). It is critical that public sector employees are satisfied in order to serve the public interest (Aristovnik et al., 2018).

When an employee experience satisfaction in their work role, they will execute their duties with no difficulty, which creates a sense of belonging and decrease turnover (Pieters et al, 2020). An employee can be dissatisfied with some parts of their job while satisfied with other parts, so an employee's experience can influence their attitude (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2014). This study defines job satisfaction as the way an employee feels about different aspects of their job.

2.3.1. Antecedents of job satisfaction

Many factors that can affect one's satisfaction with their job (Mullins, 2013). Job satisfaction is related to satisfaction with supervisors; this is how an employee sees their supervisors (Mitonga-Monga et al, 2016). According to Han et al. (2017), supportive leaders lead to affective attitudes such as job satisfaction. The quality of the supervision and success can create an essence of satisfaction (Armstrong, 2016). The quality of supervision is important in contributing to positive work attitudes (Armstrong, 2014).

When employees perceive their relationships with their co-workers as healthy, their satisfaction increases (Mitonga-Monga et al., 2016). Strong relationships with colleagues lead to affective attitudes like job satisfaction (Han et al., 2017). When it comes to pay, it is when employees feel compensated fairly for their work (Mitonga-Monga et al., 2016). Fairness isn't about the amount of the rewards as some people can work for less pay if there are other rewards although it needs to be fair according to the demands of the job (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2014).

The other factor that influences job satisfaction is a promotion which is about employees seeing that decisions about promotions are made fairly (Mitonga-Monga et al., 2016). People want to build on their careers instead of just performing so that they can be satisfied (Coughlan et al., 2014). The way an employee is motivated depends on the

organisations' effectiveness in providing resources that can help employees reach their personal goals (Pieters et al., 2020). Having an open communication atmosphere increases an employee's satisfaction in their job (Srimindarti et al., 2017). According to Hijazi (2021), good governance can also increase job satisfaction in the public sector. However, the Namibian government is plagued by governance issues, which result in subpar service delivery (Helao & Naidoo, 2016).

The work itself, which is how employees perceive their working conditions, also impacts on job satisfaction of employees (Mitonga-Monga et al., 2016). The work needs to be challenging, have some variety, and freedom, employees should be able to use skills and abilities and receives feedback. Factors that can influence job satisfaction are intrinsic motivators that are linked to the content of the job- for example, the five job characteristics such as skill variety, tasks identity, task significance, feedback and autonomy (Miller, 2016). Factors such as the need to grow, the need to find the work context satisfying, and the knowledge and skills related to the work can give rise to job satisfaction (Miller, 2016).

Other different factors that leads to job satisfaction are such as individual factors like personality, age, marital status, work orientation, qualifications, intelligence and abilities and social factors like co-worker relationships, interaction opportunities and group working (Mullins, 2013). Positive workplace events also encourage job satisfaction (Han et al., 2017). Having a healthy working environment has helped with satisfying employees (Coughlan et al., 2014). Creating a healthy work environment can lead to increased job satisfaction (Taheri et al., 2020).

2.3.2. Outcomes of job satisfaction

Employees that are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to leave the organisation they are working for (Bagram et al., 2016). This means that job satisfaction has a negative impact on turnover intention (Srimindarti et al., 2017). Turnover is when an employee wants to leave an organisation (Chen et al., 2019). This was similarly found by Erdogan et al. (2012) and Gopinath and Chitra (2020). Consequently, when an employee experiences decreased enthusiasm for their work, it makes them want to leave the

organisation (Li et al., 2019). Satisfied and committed public sector employees can bring competitive advantage (Pushpika, 2019). The higher the job satisfaction the better and decreased burnout (Yurtsever & Yilmaz, 2019). There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and burnout (Dwinijanti et al., 2020). While job satisfaction was considered a critical element of work engagement (Garg et al., 2017).

Job satisfaction improves an employee's performance especially through supportive supervisors, meeting social needs and pleasant relationships (Armstrong, 2016). When an employee has positive feelings about their work, it enhances motivation to maintain and create good relationships (Lavy & Bocker, 2018). Job satisfaction can lead to performance and commitment (Erdogan et al., 2012). When an employee becomes committed, they are likely to be creative and innovative which will be valuable to any organisation (Malik et al., 2017). Job satisfaction also predicts work performance (Bagraim et al., 2016). Thus, when an employee is satisfied, their work becomes more meaningful, and their motivation is enhanced (Johnson & Dowey, 2021). However, when job satisfaction is low it is attributed to performance problems in the public sector (Mafini, 2014). Job satisfaction boosted their productivity and motivation (Dizgah et al., 2018).

Job satisfaction leads to one participating in organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) (Belwalker & Vohra, 2016). When public employees are satisfied with their work, they tend to behave in OCB to their colleagues, the organisation and the nation at large with no expectations (Basirudin et al., 2016). Job satisfaction encourages positive moods; this will make employees engage in behaviours that will support those moods (Belwalker et al., 2018). Other outcomes of job satisfaction are lower levels of absenteeism, lower accident rates and decreased tardiness, and it helps increase employee well-being (Sirgy, 2012). Employees spend most of their hours at work, so it is important to understand that the work environment can impact their well-being which in turn can affect their absenteeism (Soriano et al., 2018). These work attitudes such as organisation involvement, good co-worker and customer relations, motivation and work attachment are caused by an employee's job satisfaction (Tumen & Zeydanli, 2016). It is

important to analyse the satisfaction of public institutions' employees, especially during financial crises due to economical difficulties (Karamanis et al., 2019).

2.3.3. Theoretical approaches to job satisfaction

2.3.3.1. Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory

This theory was developed by Fredrick Herzberg (Pettinger, 1996); it focuses on two factors named hygiene and motivators (Werner, 2016). When one is dissatisfied with their job, it is usually because of environmental factors such as working conditions, pay, supervision and relations with others, and this is called hygiene. Intrinsic factors like responsibility, achievement and advancement are called motivators (Amos et al., 2019). Pettinger (1996) explains other motivators such as recognition and opportunities that give personal growth and development. Hygiene factors are those that look into the work environment, and when they are present, they don't influence work performance, and if it isn't there, it will cause dissatisfaction (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2016). Motivators will motivate employees which will lead to job satisfaction, while hygiene factors lead to employees' no dissatisfaction (Werner, 2016).

Motivators relate more to the nature of the work, and they affect job satisfaction positively. They cause satisfaction, but if they are not there, it does not cause dissatisfaction unless hygiene factors are dissatisfied (Amos et al., 2019). They are part of the working situation which leads to high levels of job satisfaction when it comes to the workplace (Pettinger, 1996). Motivators look at the challenging job, personal growth opportunities, recognition and feelings of achievement, and hygiene factors look at company policy, administration, quality of supervision, interpersonal relationships, working conditions, salary and status (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2016). When hygiene factors (also known as maintenance factors) are abandoned, they can affect performance badly and make employees get dissatisfied; they are independent (Amos et al., 2019). When these factors are bad and it is extreme, dissatisfaction will be experienced (Pettinger, 1996).

When employees feel that the companies' policies are fair, when they get paid on time

and have access to adequate resources that can help them perform at their jobs, it will not get them satisfied, but if they lack these factors, they can protest or strike (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2016). It is a matter of ensuring that policies and the working environment do not give rise to employee dissatisfaction (Amos et al., 2019). This theory explained that the opposite of job satisfaction is not dissatisfaction but no satisfaction, while the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction (Creed, 2011). The theory suggests that public institutions should focus on increasing their employees' motivating factors and assure that hygiene factors are present to avoid dissatisfaction. As motivation is an important factor in the quality of public institutions (Ritz et al., 2016).

2.3.3.2. Equity theory

This theory focuses on how employees compare themselves with others and it was developed by Stacey Adams (Werner, 2016). Employees compare themselves to their colleagues or with employees in other organisations (Smit, 2007). An employee perceives equity through a balance of their input and output compared to their colleagues (Sharma & Chandia, 2004). This theory shows that employees seek to balance and decrease any tension and discrepancy. They compare their efforts to those of other employees according to the rewards, and when they see it is similar, they become satisfied; when there is no similarity in rewards (over or under-rewarded) it leads to dissatisfaction (Miller, 2016). An employee is focused on the relationship between their performance and the rewards they receive (Smit, 2007). Equity is perceived when measuring the ratio between an individual's perception of their outcome and their perception of others' outcomes (Gangull, 1994). When there are equal ratios, we have an increase in job satisfaction, while when the ratios are not equal, it leads to job dissatisfaction (Thomas, 2004).

When it comes to inputs, these are experience, skills, time spent on the job and knowledge, while the outputs are status, the level of the job and pay (Gangull, 1994). Inputs can be qualifications, effort and seniority while output can be recognition, praise and promotion (Smit, 2007). When an employee feels under-rewarded, they feel unfairly treated, while if they feel over-rewarded, they can feel guilty or uncomfortable (Sharma

& Chandra, 2004). Although, this theory's main focus is regarding employees' perceptions, not the actual outputs and inputs (Smit, 2007). Sometimes employees will adjust the kind of input they put in just to make it fair (e.g. when they feel under-rewarded they will decrease the efforts they put in) (Miller, 2016). The inequality between rewards and effort causes psychological tensions that enhance attitude changes (Gangull, 1994). Organisations should focus on their reward systems to avoid an imbalance of rewards because the success of job satisfaction depends on how employees compare to each other (Miller, 2016). This study considers whether employees in the public sector compare their work to that of their colleagues and whether their contributions are rewarded to increase their job satisfaction.

2.3.3.3. Job Characteristics Model

This model looks at how job design impacts job satisfaction (Miller, 2016) through aspects of the job that are motivational (Scarpello, 2008). It was developed by Richard Hackman (Daft & Marcic, 2011) and can be used by team members or managers (Lussier, 2009). It focuses on five job characteristics, namely skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. These factors influence the psychological state of employees (Miller, 2016) and the need for growth (Lussier, 2009).

Skill variety can be defined as the extent to which the job requires a variety of skills and knowledge (Miller, 2016). This looks at a job that is composed of different job activities as well as how many skills are needed to perform it (Daft & Marcic, 2011). The more skills one uses or activities they do concerning their jobs, the more make it engaging and motivating it will be (Johnson & Dawey, 2021). A job that has a specific routine score low on skill variety, while a job that requires one to work on different problems every day is high in skill variety (Daft & Marcic, 2011).

Task identity refers to the extent to which a job leads to a desirable outcome (Miller, 2016). Is the employee only completing a part or completing the whole job (Wall & Parker, 1998)? It is recognising all aspects of the work- from the beginning and the end of the work (e.g. a chef that prepares an entire meal experiences task identity more than the one that is only supposed to grill the chicken/meat) (Daft & Marcic, 2011). One

question that can be asked is whether the job or task is identifiable (Lussier, 2009). Task significance means how important the job is to others (Miller, 2016). Others refer to an employee, colleagues, the department, organisation, customer or community (Lussier, 2009). It looks at the impact the job has on the consumers and the organisation-how important it is to all stakeholders (Daft & Marcic, 2011) both inside and outside of the company (Wall & Parker, 1998). How all these stakeholders perceive the importance of the job- the more the work is seen as important, the more it matters (Johnsons & Dowey, 2021).

Autonomy refers to what extent employees have discretion, freedom and self-determination when planning and doing the tasks (Daft & Marcic, 2011). Having an employee organising and controlling the process of performing a task (Lussier, 2009) and exercising choice are all parts of autonomy (Wall & Parker, 1998). This means employees have a sense of control and responsibility in regarding their jobs (Smit, 2007). The more an employee can decide how to do their work, the more determined they get to accomplish a job, and this gives them motivation (Johnson & Dowey, 2021).

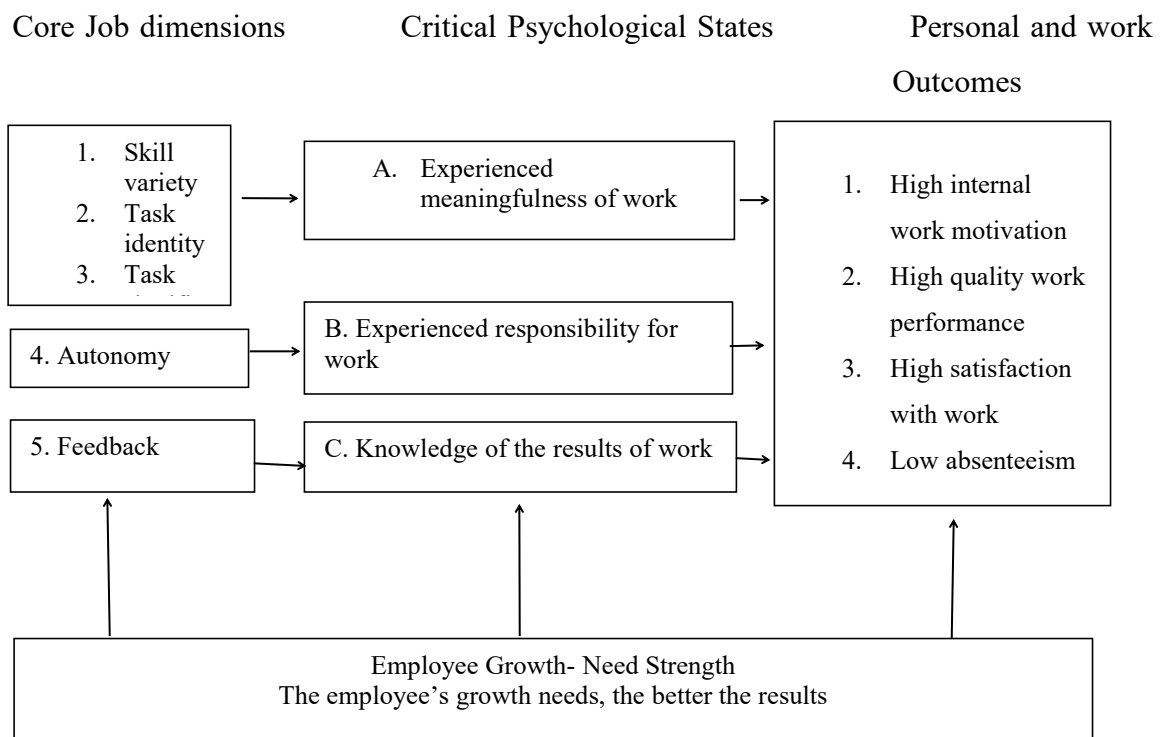
Feedback refers to what extent the employee gets information back about their performance; this way the employee can be able to see the effort of their outcome (Daft & Marcic, 2011). Evaluating the performance of employees can help increase their job effectiveness (Smit, 2007). This refers to how an employee can find out how they have performed their tasks (Luisser, 2009) and in this way, they can make improvements (Johnson & Dowey, 2021).

These core characteristics lead to psychological status, and this status leads to job outcomes that are positive (Scarpello, 2008). As Figure 2 shows, task identity, skill variety and task significance lead to employees experiencing meaning; this shows that the work provides satisfaction and intrinsic rewards. Autonomy impacts employees' responsibilities and experiences, and feedback gives the employee knowledge. All these then lead to work outcomes such as performance, motivation, satisfaction and a decrease in absenteeism and turnover (Daft & Marcic, 2011). Employees who experience

satisfaction regarding the job characteristics on a higher level will experience meaning in their job, take responsibility for the consequences and are aware of their work performance (Miller, 2016). Increasing these core characteristics will make employees more motivated to perform, be satisfied and produce quality work (Daft & Marcic, 2011). This model helps employees enhance their motivation, performance, and job satisfaction and reduce turnover (Lussier, 2009). The effectiveness only works with those who have high strength in growth needs than those with low growth needs (Wall & Parker, 1998). The following is the job characteristics model:

Figure 2.2

Job Characteristic Model



Note. The above job characteristic model figure was adopted from Lussier (2009).

If there is a positive relationship between these job characteristics and the employees' psychological states, it leads to an increase in job satisfaction that leads to performance and motivation (Miller, 2016). Overall, when the workers perform highly on job

satisfaction, it is because of the motivation they received from the high levels of these core characteristics (Smit, 2007). So the different job characteristics are considered to help one increase job satisfaction, which will help impact this study's dependent variables.

2. 4. Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

Most research has focused on how emotional intelligence influences job satisfaction, but limited research on how job satisfaction influences emotional intelligence. Job satisfaction is considered a critical element of an employees' performance (Gopinath & Chitra, 2020). While emotional intelligence plays an important role in the organisation's productivity (Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018). However, Sembiring et al. (2020) reported that emotional intelligence has to directly influence job satisfaction to impact performance. Studies such as Tagoe and Quarshie (2017), and Akomolafe and Olatomide (2013) have found a positive correlation between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. It is stated that if an employee's emotional intelligence is developed it may improve their level of satisfaction which will ultimately lead them to performing effectively (Khan et al., 2016). This is similar to what Gopinath and Chitra (2020) found, as enhancing the level of emotional intelligence can influence one's job satisfaction positively.

Public-sector employees can be emotionally intelligent and satisfied, it will increase their motivation, commitment, and the quality of service they provide (Levitats & Vigoda-Godat, 2017). Therefore, an employee's productivity will always depend on their level of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction (Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018).

2.5. Defining work engagement

Organisations have to recruit the most talented individuals and encourage these individuals to apply their full capabilities at work, compete in the creative industry and perform effectively. When these employees are engaged, they initiate tasks, become proactive, commit to work and perform at their optimal level (Bakker & Leiter, 2020). Earlier, work engagement had been researched as part of health psychology (Chaudhari et al., 2019). However, work engagement in the public sector is seen as a universal

dilemma (Stankeviciute & Savaneviciene, 2021). There are two aspects of work engagement; one aspect looks at work engagement as the opposite of burnout and the other aspect is a state of mind that is fulfilling (Werner, 2016). While, according to Armstrong (2012), there are three facets of engagement; the first one is intellectual engagement which is being able to think hard about the work and how to be able to do it. The other one is called affective engagement where one feels positive when doing their job, and lastly, the social facet where one seizes opportunities to talk about ways to improve work with others.

Work engagement is a mental state in which an individual performing a work task is fully immersed in it, has energy, and they are enthusiastic about it (Bakker, 2017). Another definition states that it is a state of mind that is fulfilling, that is related to work but not directed to a particular work environment, object, event or individual (Chaudhari et al., 2019). While Jose and Mampilly (2012) state that engagement refers to when an individual is focused on their work and willing to behave in a citizenship behaviour to help the organisation succeed.

There are three dimensions of work engagement firstly vigour, which is the physical dimension that is an effective and positive response that an employee gets when they connect with their work environment and elements (Geoffrey & Enkali, 2019). It is concerned with having to apply high personal energy when one has to engage in their work as well as having mental resilience that helps one encounter challenges. It is also concerned with applying high personal energy when engaging in work (Bagraim et al., 2016).

The other dimension is dedication, which is the emotional dimension that shows that employees find meaning in their work which makes them feel inspired to do it, enthusiastic about it, proud to do it and challenged by it (Geoffrey & Enkali, 2019). It is also concerned with when one is willing to put in the persistent effort because it is one's pride and inspiration (Bagraim et al., 2016). With dedication, employees are willing to invest their whole effort in their work, and they are very persistent during difficult times (Werner, 2016).

Last is the absorption dimension, which is when a happy employee feels completely engrossed in their work (Geoffrey & Enkali, 2019). Here, an employee is focused on a work task that they are captivated by until they lose their sense of time; they are not able to switch off, and they also forget their worries (Bagraim et al., 2016). An employee will find happiness in work tasks (Werner, 2016) by being proactive from day-to-day; employees can influence their levels of work engagement (Bakker, 2017). Therefore, work engagement will be defined in this study as a state of mind that allows individuals to be focused, energised and enthusiastic about their work.

2.5.1. Antecedents of work engagement

Joo et al. (2016) found that the personal, job and contextual factors help increase an employees' work engagement. Factors such as job resources (e.g. autonomy) and personal resources (e.g. your self-efficacy beliefs) can positively have an impact on work engagement.

Drivers of work engagement are job challenge, autonomy, variety, feedback, recognition and rewards, job fit and development opportunities and having more scope for employees' voices (Armstrong, 2014). When the job is designed in a way that includes all these job characteristics, it leads to employees feeling engaged (Rothman & Welsh, 2013). Employees are engaged when there are motivational job characteristics that do not lead to the intention to leave the organisation (Wan et al., 2018). Job characteristics are there to motivate or energise employees to engage (Chaudhari et al., 2019).

Supervisor support, supportive leadership, autonomy and accountability can enhance engagement (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). Supervisors/leaders who are clear, appreciative, treat employees as individuals and organise work efficiently, help employees feel like they are valued and supported which allows them to become engaged (Armstrong, 2012). A good work environment has one that has trust with all employees; this makes them be engaged, and leaders create relationships that are trusting which leads employees to positive work outcomes (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). Supportive and no controlling leadership can help lead to work engagement (Joo et al., 2016). A

good work environment, good job design, personal growth opportunities and effective performance management help increase work engagement (Armstrong, 2016). The work environment enhances work engagement by developing a culture that inspires positive attitudes; this then increases excitement and interest in one's work (Armstrong, 2012).

A sense of security and identity can also enhance work engagement (Moshoeu & Geldenhys, 2015). Mashoeu and Geldenhys (2015) stated that employees don't always reduce their commitment when confronted with uncertainty about their job or future at the organisation. Employees that fear losing their jobs increase their chances of staying employed by showing more dedication and engagement. When uncertainty is managed and employees see fairness in the organisation, they stay engaged and become productive in an environment that is uncertain (Wang et al., 2015). Employees' perception of justice and trust is significant in increasing engagement (Agarwal, 2014).

Having policies specifically tailored according to these antecedents can positively influence performance (Armstrong, 2012). Employees that are cognitively, physically or emotionally exhausted will not be engaged because they are not experiencing psychological meaningfulness (Rothman & Welsh, 2013). The levels of work engagement can be influenced by employees' daily proactiveness, clear human resource strategy and resource provision (Bakker, 2017). Joo et al., (2016) found that intrinsic motivation helps one become empowered and engaged. Psychological meaningfulness influences an employee's engagement; thus, emotionally, cognitively and physically tired employees without psychological meaningfulness become less engaged (Rothmann & Welsh, 2013).

Emotional intelligence is also considered an antecedent of work engagement (Sarangi & Vats, 2015). Emotional intelligence increases engagement due to positive emotions (Brunetto et al., 2012). This is because positive emotions motivate an individual to engage (Barreiro & Treglown, 2020). Work engagement is predicted by job satisfaction (Vokic & Hernaus, 2015). When employees feel good about the different aspects of their job, they are likely to engage (Yalabik et al., 2017).

2.5.2. Outcomes of work engagement

Having high work engagement in the organisation leads to positive organisation outcomes (Cesario & Chambel, 2017). Employees that are highly engaged tend to get involved, become committed to their work, and are enthusiastic about their work, and this increases productivity (Werner, 2016; Geoffrey & Enkali, 2019). When an employee is engaged, they become committed to the organisation (Field & Buitendach, 2011).

Work engagement can lead to an increase in employee retention, employee effort, productivity, sales, quality of work and loyalty as well as a decrease in error rates and absenteeism (Armstrong, 2014). Further, work engagement can lead to lower employee turnover, better attendance and a high-performance rate (Armstrong, 2016). Work engagement leads to creativity, innovation and successful financial results, and when an employee is engaged, their resources (like self-esteem, optimism etc.) help them focus on their work even better (Bakker, 2017). Employees that are engaged tend to exert creative solutions and initiatives to problems (Timms et al., 2012).

When the work engagement level is low, it affects an employee's well-being and performance negatively (Knight et al., 2017) as it is considered to have a positive influence on performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Yin, 2018). However, work engagement predicts public employee performance (Borst et al., 2020). Engaging in behaviour, like being kind, will enhance happiness, and people will respond to feedback that is positive as it is stimulating. If responses are impolite, employees reciprocate negatively. Poor treatment decreases engagement and focuses which decreases counter-productive behaviours such as OCB (Sulea et al., 2012). An employee that is engaged become adaptive and resilient when they face demands (Kaltainen, 2018).

When an individual is interested and excited about their work, this will reduce stress related to their work (Armstrong, 2012). Hence, there is a negative relationship between work engagement and burnout (Yin, 2018). These kinds of outcomes are important as they contribute to the success of an organisation and give it a competitive advantage (Jose & Mampilly, 2012). When employees are not engaged when they look at the

impact of changes, their cognition becomes narrowed (Kaltainen, 2018).

Quality relationships that offer support and loyalty enhance an employee's well-being (Sulea et al., 2012). Besides well-being, work engagement has an impact on positive outcomes (Field & Buitendach, 2011). Work engagement leads to organisational outcomes such as customer satisfaction, a decrease in absenteeism, good financial outcomes (Bakker, 2017) and business success (Jose & Mampilly, 2012). Employees become engaged which leads to improved service delivery (Wushe & Shenje, 2019).

2.5.3. Theoretical approaches to work engagement

2.5.3.1. The broaden and build theory

This theory focuses on positive emotions and how they affect an individual's behaviour (Fitzpatrick & McMarthy, 2014). It assumes that positive emotions enhance an individual's optimal functioning. Positive emotions, such as gratitude, can help organisations and individuals transform, and usually when someone feels grateful, their thinking broadens, when employees broaden up, they become flexible, creative, have better social connections and engage (Emmons & McCullough, 2004). According to Bakker and Leiter (2010), work engagement is seen as a positive effective-motivational state making it an outcome of positive emotions, and findings have shown that there is a positive relationship between positive emotions and work engagement (Fitzpatrick & McMarthy, 2014). There are variations of positive emotions like joy, pride, contentment or gratitude which help both employees and organisations thrive and develop. These kinds of emotions broaden people's way of thinking, and this makes them behave in a certain way and endure social and personal resources (Emmons & McCullough, 2004).

According to Bakker and Leiter (2010), an engaged employee's coping, action repertoires and level of behaviours that make one go an extra mile are broadened. Work engagement initiates positive emotions which stimulate self-enhancement making individuals be able to achieve their goals (broaden) and job resources such as autonomy, professional development opportunities as well as personal resources such as self-efficacy, optimism, and self-esteem are then built. Work engagement broadens one's

cognitive functions and helps build an individual's resources, which means when an employee is engaged, their capacity to become energetic, enthusiastic and the ability to apply and reserve energy increases (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). In a nutshell, positive emotions broaden an employees' cognitive functions which allows them to build personal and job resources; this then leads to an employee becoming engaged.

2.5.3.2. Social exchange theory

The ideology of this theory has to do with the rule of reciprocity (Chaudhari et al., 2019). Workplace behaviours are used as an exchange for a reward or any compensation- meaning social behaviours are seen as a kind of exchange (Xie & Huang, 2012). The focus is on the relationship that is between the organisation and the employee. The employee feels the need to give back to the organisation when employees feel they were compensated or taken care of (Chaudhari et al., 2019). Employees become engaged to repay for what the organisation gives them (Oades et al., 2020). When an employee is dedicated to the organisation, it is because, in return, they receive economic, social and emotional resources from the organisation (Chaudhari et al., 2019). This leads to different outcomes such as performance and organisation citizenship behaviour (Yin, 2018).

When an employee contributes to the organisation, it is an exchange for the organisation's support, so the relationship that the organisation offers an employee should be equal to the employee's contribution (Xie & Huang, 2012). When an employee experiences good organisational support and relationships, they enhance their commitment, discretionary efforts and engagement (Oades et al., 2020). When the organisation does not fulfil their obligation, the employee alters their behaviour by decreasing their contribution, efforts, commitment and performance. In the long run, the relationship established this way will enable trust, loyalty and commitment but only if the rules of reciprocity are strengthened by both parties (Armstrong, 2012). Overall, when an employee has trust in the organisation, they become psychologically safe and will willingly invest effort and energy in their work (Agarwal, 2014).

2.5.3.3. Job Demand-Resources Model (JD-R)

This model looks at two factors- job demands and job resources (Fernet et al., 2013). Job demands are physical, social, organisational and psychological aspects of a job that require effort and skills that can deplete energy (Van Den Broeck, 2017). This includes different kinds of demands on personnel (e.g. long term illness) and job-related demands (authoritarian management) (Salmela-Aro & Upadyadya, 2018). Job resources are psychological, physical, social and organisational aspects of the organisation that help employees achieve goals, decrease job demands and provoke learning, development and personal growth (Van den Broeck, 2017). Resources include personnel resources (resilience) and job-related resources (workability, role in organisation and team climate) (Salmela-Aro & Upadyadya, 2018). Job demands are role ambiguity, workplace violence and job resources are meaningful work, opportunities, autonomy, and career advancement (Patience et al., 2020). The demands are related to burnout, while the resources are related to work engagement (Salmela-Aro & Upadyadya, 2018).

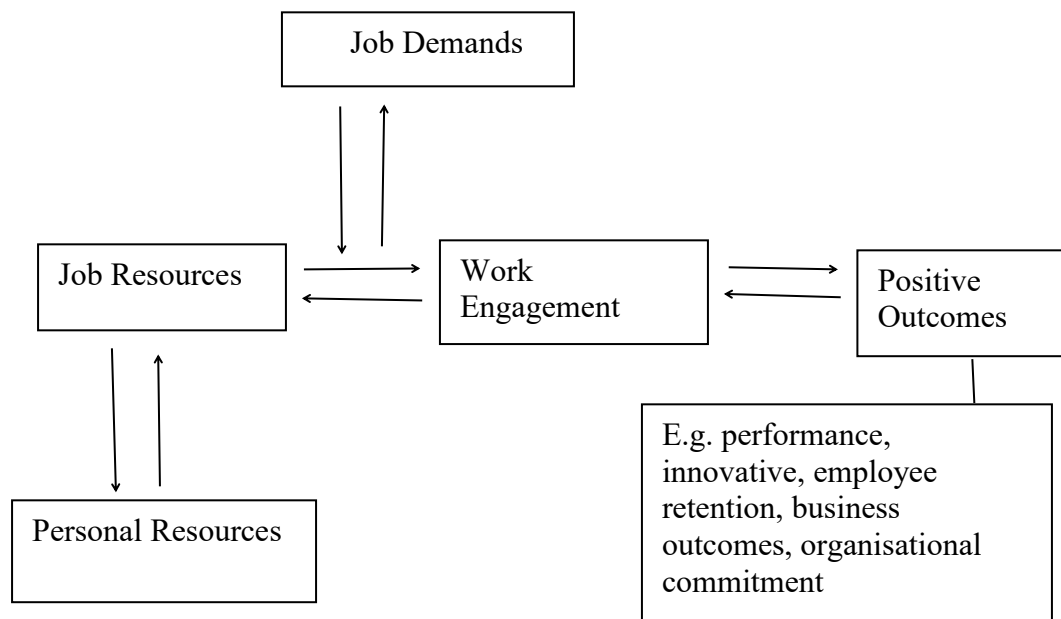
The JD-R explains that job demands and resources can be explained in any occupation, and it helps in explaining engagement (Moura et al., 2014). Job demands have to have a surplus job resources for there to be no engagement, disengagement when an employee's energy leads to exhaustion which can lead to burnout (Byrne, 2015). When employees are experiencing high demands, they will not be able to cope because their resources are drained which leads to disengagement (Truss et al., 2014). Job resources positively influence work engagement (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Work engagement plays a role in the relationship between job resources and outcomes that are positive (Wan et al., 2018). Personal and job resources are correlated to work engagement (Sulea et al., 2012). Job resources enhance work engagement which leads to commitment. on the other hand, job demands increase burnout which can lead to depression. Being able to increase job resources increases commitment and engagement; this then helps one decrease job demands to avoid bad health and burnout (Hakanen et al., 2008).

Figure 2.3 below describes that job resources help employees become engaged with their work, and this leads to positive outcomes (Cooper & Leiter, 2017). Resources

facilitate a rewarding experience for employees in enhancing engagement; their engagement is maintained with the help of job and personal resources (Bakker & Leiter, 2010).

Figure 2.3

Job Demands Resource Model



Note. The above figure was adopted from Bakker and Leiter (2010).

So public institutions can enhance work engagement by increasing work-related resources (Borst et al., 2019). As well as personal resources (Constantini et al., 2017). The purpose of this theory and model is to understand how work engagement can be viewed in the study. Hence, this study looks into work engagement through the broaden and build theory.

2.6. Defining burnout

Burnout is a constant slow process that develops over a long period (Procter & Procter, 2013), and the term *burnout* was coined by Herbert Freudenberger (Cam & Ogulmus, 2019). When someone is experiencing stress, the body reacts by producing hormones to respond, but they are made according to specific stressful events. After stressful events, the level of hormones dies in the bloodstream. This response is conditioned to be short-term; the problem comes in when one experiences prolonged pressure thereby making these hormone levels high for longer periods. These hormones do not rest, but they are pumped around in the bloodstream, and if this becomes a permanent feature, an employee will experience burnout (Procter & Procter, 2013). Burnout is defined as a psychological syndrome with a lengthened response to chronicle interpersonal stressors on the job (Maslach & Leiter, 2016). It can also be defined as a condition acquired by employees when their coping resources have been exhausted by work and life demands until they are exhausted and perform poorly (Bagraim et al., 2016). Another definition of burnout is the decrease of physical and emotional energy as well as a decrease in feelings of achievement and personal achievement (Cam & Ogulumus, 2019). Overall, it is the final point of burning down (Procter & Procter, 2013).

There are three key dimensions of burnout which consist of exhaustion, professional inefficacy and cynicism (Toppinen-Tanner, 2011). Exhaustion is the feeling of over-extended and emotional depletion of physical resources. Cynicism is an excessive negative detached response to a different aspect of a job, and professional inefficacy is feeling incomplete- feeling a lack of achievement and a lack of productiveness in your work (Cole et al., 2012; Cooper & Cartwright, 2009;). It is shown that cynicism is found to be positively related to exhaustion while negatively related to professional inefficacy (Leiter et al., 2011). This study defines burnout, according to Cam and Ogulumus' (2019) definition, as the depletion of energy, personal achievements and dedication.

2.6.1. Antecedents of burnout

Burnout usually occurs when individuals consistently experience demands over a long period and when one's energy is used up more than it is restored (Procter & Procter, 2013). Stress is the biggest factor as it usually comes from an individual's inadequate ability to deal with demands in the environment, and when it becomes continuous, it will lead to burnout (Leiter et al., 2011). This means the consequence of stress is burnout (Werner, 2016). Toppinen-Tanner (2011) found that burnout was significantly correlated to work stressors. The current COVID-19 pandemic has caused a lot of stress because of the lifestyle changes (Saadat et al., 2020). Another aspect that enhances employees' levels of stress is when an employee is continuously exposed to poor working conditions (Werner, 2016).

One of the major antecedents of burnout is job demands as these are social, physical and organisational aspects of work that need an individual's effort which has psychological costs such as work overload (it correlates to work that is routine, heavy or has time urgency) (Cole et al., 2012). Most public sector employees tend to stay with the institution because it is difficult to find another one even when experiencing a high level of burnout (Dwinijanti et al., 2020). Other antecedents of burnout include having expectations, not being recognised or rewarded for excellent work, having a lot of different expectations from their work, family and community and having a lot of responsibilities without any assistance from others. Burnout can also be caused by an imbalance of working a lot and not having time to relax or to do things that one loves or socialising (Warnich et al., 2015).

One is at a greater risk of burnout when experiencing role ambiguity, schedule pressure, irregular shifts, role conflict, group non-cooperation, work-family conflict and psychological contract violation, but work-family and psychological contract violation are the most significant antecedents of burnout (Leiter et al., 2011). Role ambiguity is when there is confusion about the task expectations, the work factors and any social expectations (Werner, 2016). When there is pressure, it can lead to absenteeism because of sickness (Kottwitz & Elfering, 2018). High-pressure work includes environments like working with difficult customers, supervisors and colleagues (Werner, 2016). When

employees are in an environment that constantly pressures them to perform or they don't have control within their environment, they are likely to experience burnout, while workaholics have a higher chance of suffering from burnout (Armstrong, 2014).

Burnout develops as an outcome of overwork when employees try to constantly achieve goals in an environment with persistently high levels of pressure (Bagrami et al., 2016). Burnout does not affect easy-going individuals, but it's mostly common in employees who have high expectations which exceed their capabilities to reach them. Economical issues bring pressure to public institutions and can encourage burnout (Salmela-Ara & Upadaya, 2018). The public sector is prone to a lack of training, a lack of management motivation, poor communication, and limited budget allocations, particularly when it comes to salaries (Ndeipanda, 2018). All of these factors can contribute to burnout in public institutions.

When employees feel there is an imbalance between their contributions and their expectations, cynicism will happen. Cynicism then leads to employees feeling inadequate, and there will be a decrease in self-efficacy (Leiter et al., 2011). Warnich et al., (2015) explain three forms of burnout; frenetic is when individuals overload themselves because they are extremely hard-working to the point of being workaholics, but will become exhausted. Under-challenged burnout refers to when employees are not engaged with their work, and this leads to boredom, no or little room for personal growth and a lack of stimulation. Lastly, worn-out burnout looks at employees who have been in the same position for a very long time, don't have control over their work, and their work is not even well-acknowledged (Warnich et al., 2015).

According to Byne et al. (2013), employees who experience low/average burnout (specifically these dimensions of burnout; emotional exhaustion and cynicism) will experience a high degree of burnout when it comes to personal accomplishments. An employee that overworks themselves just to reach goals in a pressured environment can develop burnout (Werner, 2016). When an employee feels their work isn't good enough, has a negative perspective of the world, is a control freak, has little or no control of their work and personality such as Type A personality as they are high achievers, all these can lead to burnout (Warnich et al., 2015).

To prevent burnout, organisations should use applications of interpersonal (including access to social support, system and human resource management for the employees) and intra-personal strategies (including training employees to be mindful and aware of their physical and psychological state) (Ismail et al., 2013). In addition, keeping possible stressors under control and encouraging support is another way of reducing burnout (Chen & Chen, 2018). Supervisor support also helps employees to be more confident in their ability to reach their work objectives; together with co-worker support, this can cause an employee to feel motivated about their work and experience lower levels of burnout (Charoensukmongkol et al., 2016). A dissatisfied employee can easily experience burnout (Yurtsever & Vilmaz, 2019). An individual who isn't able to control their emotions and understand others will have difficulties dealing with a demanding environment (Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018).

2.6.2. Outcomes of burnout

Burnout can negatively influence employee performance, commitment and interpersonal relationships, while exhaustion leads to cynicism and reduced personal accomplishment. Burnout also enhances the withdrawal of employees from contracts which leads to a decrease in organisation commitment (Leiter et al., 2011). Burnout leads to job dissatisfaction which leads to turnover intentions (Mullen et al., 2018). When an employee leaves, they lose financial benefits and social contacts. When an organisation loses an employee, there is a loss of expertise; they have to hire and train new personnel, and services can be interrupted (Lambert & Barton-Bellessa, 2015). Burnout can affect one's mental and physical problems which can make employees want to withdraw from the work (Hogan & Barton-Bellessa, 2015). Public sectors employees have been shown to experience high levels of burnout (Dhusia et al., 2019).

Burnout leads to physical consequences like a lot of complaints of headaches, backaches, and gastrointestinal problems (Warnich et al., 2015). Employees can complain about dizziness, anxiety, tension and sleeplessness (Cole et al., 2012). Burnout can also manifest physically in the form of symptoms such as backaches, nausea, weight problems, sleepiness, colds and flu (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2014). The outcomes of

burnout are a disturbance of sleep, muscle aches and pain, being unable to relax, irritability, not being able to recover after resting or relaxing, mental and physical exhaustion, fatigue after putting in a small effort and tension headaches (Procter & Procter, 2013).

Emotional consequences of burnout include appearing bored, talking about boredom, feeling frustrated and helpless etc. (Warnich et al., 2015). Psychological feelings such as boredom, anger, depression, guilt, anxiety, frustration, moodiness, hopelessness, and discouragement are an outcome of burnout (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2014). Behavioural burnout consequences are being unable to concentrate on a specific task and completing a task with decreased productivity (Warnich et al., 2015). Behavioural burnout consequences are such as feeling tired which makes employees make a lot of mistakes, or experiencing physical symptoms that lead to withdrawal and absenteeism (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2014). Burnout can also lead to substance abuse such as drugs, smoking or alcohol and exercising excessively to the point of injury (Warnich et al., 2015).

De Beer et al. (2013) found that burnout declines an employee's relationships with others. Although burnout can spill over to other parts of one's life, it can take the enjoyment out of an individual's everyday life (Todaro-Franceschi, 2013). Changes in the organisation like mergers cause a lot of adjustments, and this can lead to physiological illnesses, anxiety and fears (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2014).

When an employee is emotionally exhausted, it results in them having a lot of sick leaves (Lambert & Barton-Bellessa, 2015). Burnout also leads to absenteeism, and when employees become absent, we have indirect costs such as loss of productivity, over-staffing, while indirect costs such as getting a person to fill in for an employee that is absent (and they need to be trained) are also incurred (Lambert & Barton-Bellessa, 2015). Another outcome is turnover; burnout can lead to physical or mental problems that increase the desire for employees to leave the organisation (Lambert & Barton-Bellessa, 2015). Burnout can have serious outcomes on an employees' health and their ability to do their work (Toppinen-Tanner, 2011).

2.6.3. Theoretical approaches to burnout

2.6.3.1. Job Characteristics Model

This theory shows that when job characteristics are positive, this can lead to employees having feelings and experiences that are positive which will lead to positive work outcomes such as job satisfaction, intrinsic motivation and involvement. When the job characteristics are experienced negatively, it will lead to negative outcomes like an increase in absenteeism and turnover as well as a decrease in performance and eventually, burnout. The antecedents of burnout come from job characteristics (Leiter et al., 2011). Focusing on job variety, work can become repetitive making it dull, and this can psychologically deplete a person over a long period, and this leads to frustration (Lambert et al., 2012). When an employee has autonomy over their job, they feel they control their environment, and this will increase their sense of pride. Variety causes an individual to be able to be creative, and learn new things, and this will lead to a positive psychological state which decreases the likelihood of burnout (Griffin et al., 2012). Work should be mentally challenging, or it will cause frustration, and boredom and increase the feeling of failure (Bergh & Geldenhuys, 2014) which could lead to burnout.

The other job characteristic is feedback; not being given feedback can lead to the work being difficult which leads to frustration because feedback helps employees know that they are doing correct work, and when feedback is not given overtime, it leads to exhaustion (Lambert et al., 2012). When employees don't have control over their work, it will make them feel like they're not valued at work which will lead to resentment (increases the likelihood of burnout). It was found that autonomy has a negative relationship with burnout (Lambert et al., 2012). Griffin et al. (2012) found that job autonomy and variety have a negative influence on cynicism, while autonomy and variety have a negative influence on perceived ineffectiveness. Lastly, autonomy is when employees have control over their work (Lambert et al., 2012). We have other job characteristics such as role conflict, role ambiguity, schedule pressure, irregular shifts, psychological contract violation, customer interaction pressure and group non-cooperation (Leiter et al., 2011). When work is mentally challenging, when it is extremely challenging, it leads to frustration, boredom or feelings of failure (Bergh &

Geldenhuis, 2014). This theory states that if an individual's job characteristics are not being met, there is a high chance that burnout will develop.

2.6.3.2. Conservative of Resource Theory (COR)

This theory helps to understand stress in the workplace by understanding that an individual protects, acquires and stocks resources to be able to avoid depletion and avoid the lack of capability to cope with job demands (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Resources are things that people strive to achieve or maintain (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993) and values such as objects (e.g. house), conditions (e.g. social support), personal characteristics (like self-esteem), energies (like money) (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998), work characteristics (autonomy); they all help employees have the capacity to cope with job demands (stress, daily hassles) (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). When these resources are challenged (role ambiguity), lost (unemployment, divorce) and when something they were invested in becomes a loss, (putting in a lot of work in a promotion you didn't get) psychological stress can occur (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). When situations at work challenge individuals from striving for these resources, stress evolves. Psychological stress usually occurs when resources are threatened, are lost and when one invests in their resources and don't get anything in return (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). Besides, an individual has a need to protect, retain and obtain motivation according to what they value (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

This theory comes in when one experiences psychological or physical overload because when a lot is demanded from an employee, psychological over-arousal would happen and mounting doubts because their overload decreases the time that is available to be able to look at different options (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). When the complexity of problems may be higher than an individual's intellectual and organisational resources loss occurs (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993). A loss of these resources causes one to feel stress (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). In addition, a lot of valuable personal resources cannot be replenished because the body can't be compensated even when expanding to other resources. An employee will experience vigour, cognitive agility and emotional robustness, so when one experiences a loss of resources this would show as symptoms of

burnout (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). This theory stresses that social support helps an individual deal with stress and burnout specifically when the demands are a lot (Cam & Ogulmus, 2019). COR tries to teach us that the differences in individuals are seen as resources although some individuals who are more capable of dealing with or minimising the loss of resources (Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). Consequently, burnout can arise in the public sector if the employee resources are depleted and can't be compensated due to a constantly demanding environment.

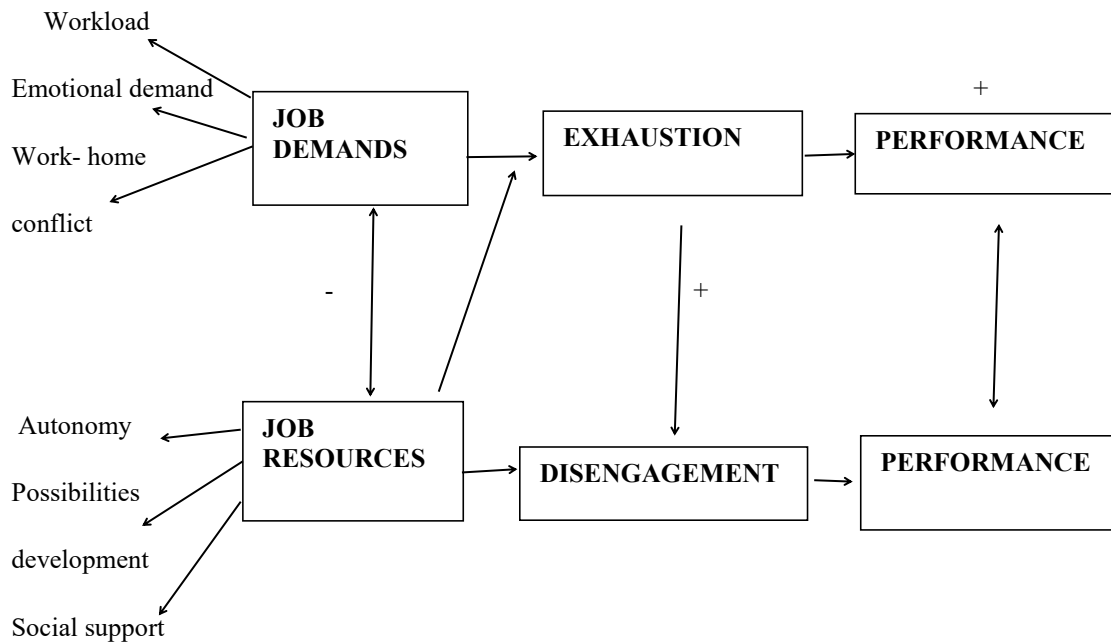
2.6.3.3. Job Demand-Resources Model

This model looks at factors that are linked to burnout, and these factors are classified into two categories, namely job demands and job resources (Bakker, Demerouti & Verbeke, 2004). This model looks at two processes such as job demands and resources. Job demands are those parts of work that makes an employee put in the effort, while job resources are those parts of work that help an individual function to be able to achieve their goals (Bakker & Leiter, 2010). Resources are hurdles of job demands (Leiter et al., 2011). Job demands such as work pressure have been shown to cause exhaustion which leads to disengagement, while resources such as autonomy and social support lead to engagement (Bakker & Leiter, 2010).

Demands are aspects such as workload, hassles, interpersonal conflict, lack of opportunities, lack of social support, lack of autonomy and an inability to participate in decision-making (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Demands and resources play different roles according to specific attributes of the job (Leiter et al., 2011). Demands are related to exhaustion because exhaustion is caused by how an individual reacts to job demands, while resources are related to a lack of professional inefficacy and cynicism. Although interpersonal demands lead to cynicism, resources influence professional inefficacy positively (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998).

Figure 2.4

The Job Demand Resources Model



Note. The above Job Demand Resources Model was adopted Bakker et al. (2004).

According to *Figure 2.4*, there are two processes; the first one is job demands (such as workload, conflict), and it leads to exhaustion which can affect the performance negatively. When many resources are available it leads to feelings of dedication, and when there is a lack of these resources, it can lead to disengagement (Bakker et al., 2004). Unfavourable job demands are positively related to exhaustion, while job resources are positively related to engagement in work. To avoid burnout, certain job demands need to be redesigned or decreased (Demerouti et al., 2001). Individuals become exhausted because of the influences of environmental demands, and when their capability to perform becomes diminished. When the demands are high, the employee has difficulty in allocating their attention and energy effectively because they are required to put in greater effort, and this affects their performance greatly (Bakker et al., 2004). In the end, burnout will develop in any type of occupation as long as certain job

demands levels are high with certain limited job resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to Bakker (2015) when job demands are usually high then public sector employees are low in motivation. This model can help explain how employees in the public sector deal with their daily job resources and demands.

2.7. Relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and burnout

Lee and Chelladurai (2017) supported the notion that both acting and genuine expressions (aspects of emotional intelligence) would reduce burnout, and when an employee can manage their emotions, it can significantly predict satisfaction (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2011). Employees who experience high levels of emotional intelligence are capable of controlling their emotions even though employees can develop burnout if it becomes an emotional burden (Chen & Chen, 2018). D'Amico et al. (2020) revealed that emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, both have a negative relationship with burnout. This is similar to what Przybylska (2016) found. It is shown that emotional intelligence and job satisfaction aid in avoiding burnout (Soto-Rubio et al., 2020).

When it comes to stress-related situations, an employee with high emotional intelligence can deal with it and experience lower levels of burnout (Kim & Qu, 2019). When the levels of emotional intelligence are high, an employee can control their emotions in a way that would be better to manage or avoid stressors as this contributes to burnout (Srivastava et al., 2019). When the job involves emotionally intense work, employees need to have a higher level of emotional intelligence because this may mean they are dissatisfied and it leads to burnout (Lee, 2017). Employees' level of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, helps them become optimistic which will help them deal with a stressful demanding environment (Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018). More research into the relation of these constructs in the public sector is required to provide better clarity. As a result, one of the objectives of this study is to determine whether emotional intelligence and job satisfaction have an impact on burnout.

2.8 Relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and work engagement

Having a high level of emotional intelligence enables one to invest more time and effort in the obligations or duties at work (Cohen & Abedallah, 2013). Work engagement and emotional intelligence are positively associated (Extremera et al., 2018). Emotional intelligence is also a key factor in helping employees identify situations they can engage in (Cohen & Abedallah, 2013). Employees with high levels of emotional intelligence show more energy, high enthusiasm, inspiration and concentrate more during a work activity (Extremera et al., 2018).

Emotional intelligence is related to overall job satisfaction (Extremera et al., 2018). The higher the emotional intelligence level, the higher the job satisfaction level (Khan et al., 2016). Employee satisfaction is the key to the fit between the employees' internal values, their emotional intelligence and the environment they work in (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2011). A developing country's employment market is quite competitive; most individuals can't afford to leave their jobs. Employees that are not engaged need to become engaged especially when feeling uncertain or when their job is threatened (Moshoeu & Geldenhys, 2015). There are limited studies published that can explain these constructs, especially in the public sector, hence why this study's objective is to investigate whether emotional intelligence and job satisfaction impact work engagement.

2.9 Work Engagement and demographic variables

Research has found that work engagement is not experienced with age (D'Amico et al., 2020). While Sartono and Ardhani (2015) and Masvaure and Maharaj (2014) found that age can have an impact on work engagement. In terms of gender, D'Amico et al. (2020) found that females become more engaged than males. Marital status has an impact on work engagement (Masvaure & Maharaj, 2014; Sartono & Ardhani, 2015). While the higher an employees' position the more the work engagement (Kose, 2016). However, there is limited research done regarding how work engagement is impacted by demographic variables, specifically in the public context. Hence why this study will investigate whether work engagement is experienced differently according to sex, age,

tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status.

2.10 Burnout and Demographic variables

Past research has focused on burnout and its effect on the demographic variables, in different contexts specifically in the teaching industry. This study looked at the following demographic characteristics; sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status. Matin et al. (2012) have found that demographic characteristics such as gender, age, educational qualification and marital status can be moderators of the relationship between burnout and its outcomes. Although we have to keep in mind that extraneous variables can have an effect the impact of demographical variables on burnout (Mousavy & Nimehchisalem, 2014). Louw et al. (2011) found that rank, age, gender, marital status and qualifications are not significantly correlated to burnout except for experience.

Raidzuan et al. (2020) reported that age had a significant effect on burnout. This is similar to what Green et al. (2015) reported. Employees that are younger experience burnout more than the older employees (Serin & Balkan, 2014). Males tend to experience burnout more than females (Wulolign et al., 2020). Pu et al. (2017) found that women experienced more emotional exhaustion than men. This is because that women typically have a greater workload than men (Anitei et al., 2015). Married employees have reported experiencing a higher level of burnout than those that are not married (Mousavy & Nimehchisalem, 2014). While Khan et al. (2015) showed that burnout is not experienced differently regarding marital status.

The number of children can predict at least one of burnout's dimensions (Canadas - De la Fuente et al., 2015). As burnout affects mothers more than fathers when it comes to parenting (Roskam & Mikolajozak, 2020). The level of education has a significant relationship with burnout (Sadeghi & Khezrlou, 2014). Depersonalization was higher among employees who are in senior positions (Pustulk et al., 2014). The more important an employee's title becomes as they advance up the ladder, they are likely to experience depersonalization (Serin & Balkan, 2014). Most of these studies cannot explain in a Namibian context. Hence why this study's burnout is experienced differently according

to sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependents, educational qualification and marital status.

2.11. Conclusion

This chapter gave a better understanding of the following concepts: intelligence, job satisfaction, work engagement and burnout. The chapter defined these terms according to what the study is investigating. Multiple theories that were discussed to help understand the different variables although the focus should be more on the combined emotional intelligence theory. Evidence has shown the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and burnout, as well as the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and work engagement. In the end, the productivity of the employees has been shown to be the main goal of all four variables.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the research process involved in collecting the data and the different steps that were taken. The chapter began by explaining the research design, the population and the sampling technique. A description of the data collection methods, which took on a quantitative approach is also provided. Finally, a discussion of the instruments used and their reliability as well, as the procedures and analysis used is provided.

3.2. Research design

This study employed a non-experimental research design, more specifically a descriptive study, which describes the characteristics, outcomes, and behaviours of a study (Beins & McCarthy, 2012). The study took on a quantitative approach that uses numerical data from a selected sample of a population and generalises the findings. This approach is usually easy to collect data and analyse the findings (Connaway & Radford, 2021). A questionnaire was used to assess and explore the impacts of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction on work engagement and burnout. Questionnaires were used because they show anonymity which can help increase the chances of getting accurate information (Kumar, 2011). It is also easy, convenient, cost-effective and gathers a lot of information to use (Bessen-Cassino & Cassino, 2018).

3.3. Population

The study looked at the employees of the Ministry of Labour, Industrial Relations and Employment Creation (n =353), Ministry of Industrialisation and Trade (n= 189) and the Ministry of Finance (n= 1564; there is an ongoing movement of employees working in Windhoek from the Ministry of Finance to NAMRA). The total population is N = 2106.

3.4. Sample

The convenience sampling technique was used in this study. This technique is classified as a non-probability sampling technique (Haslam & McGarty, 2019). The convenience sample technique employs participants who can be studied in a convenient manner (Beins & McCarthy, 2012). So anyone ready and accessible can participate (Howitt & Cramer, 2017). It tends to test a large number of people while avoiding conscious bias because the researcher has no control over who participates (Coolican, 2014). For that reason, anyone that was willing participated in this study. A sample of n=325 employees from the three ministries was targeted to respond to the questionnaire. The sample was identified through web-based sample size calculator (formula includes confidence level, population size, margin of error). The sample consisted of staff members in non-managerial, mid-level management and senior management positions. In total, 130 out of 325 responded causing the response rate to be at 40%.

3.5. Research instrument

The instrument consisted of online and printed self-administered questionnaires composed of five sections. The first sections contained respondents' demographic characteristics such as sex, age, the total number of years in the profession, marital status, number of dependants, highest qualification and their management level. To help evaluate the third and fourth objectives.

The second section contains the *Leadership Toolkit Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire* (EQQ) by the national health services (Nagaraj & Ramesh, 2020). Which was used to measure emotional intelligence based on Daniel Goleman research (Sulianti et al., 2018). It is a self-assessment instrument that assesses emotional competence and positive social behaviours (Conte, 2005). It is based on the clusters of emotional intelligence which: are self-awareness, self-regulation/management, social skills, motivation and empathy (Boyatzis et al., 1999). This study will focus on self-awareness and social skills. This questionnaire has 20 items with a response format from 1 (does not apply) to 5 (always applies). For example, items include 'I am an excellent listener' for social skills or 'I know what makes me happy' for social awareness. Each subscale is

totalled and divided by the number of items for the total scores and scored according to strengths, development, and attention needs (Nagaraj & Ramesh, 2020). All the statements were tested to be valid (Nugraha et al., 2019). Mehta and Singh (2013) found internal consistency for social awareness $\alpha = 0.78$ and social skills $\alpha = 0.78$.

The third section is the *Job Satisfaction Survey* (JSS) which was developed by Spector (1994) and originally contained 36 items. The response format of the scale ranges from 1 (disagree very much) to 6 (agree very much). Sample items include 'I like the people I work with' (co-workers); 'I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do' (pay); 'there is really too little chance for promotion on my job' (promotion); 'my supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job' (supervision) and 'I sometimes feel my job is meaningless' (Nature of work). This study made use of the 20-item version that focused on variables such as pay, promotion, co-worker and supervision and the nature of work. These are negative or positive statements that describe the participants satisfaction in different areas of their jobs (Mesarosova, 2016). When scoring negative statements, items should be numbered from 6 to 1 instead of 1 to 6 because negative statements indicate dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997). Discriminate, convergent and construct validity were demonstrated (Spector, 1997). Internal consistency was reported of 0.78 (pay); 0.78 (promotion); 0.89 (supervision); 0.58 (co-worker) and 0.70 (nature of work) (Lumely et al., 2011). Ngidi and Ngidi (2017) reported reliability for pay $\alpha = 0.81$; promotion $\alpha = 0.73$; supervision $\alpha = 0.65$; co-workers $\alpha = 0.58$; nature of work $\alpha = 0.76$ and a total $\alpha = 0.90$. Anari (2012) demonstrated an overall $\alpha = 0.75$ reliability.

The fourth section of the question paper looks at the *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale* (UWES-9) which will measure work engagement and was developed by Schaufeli et al. (2006). The original scale consisted of 17 items, and results showed it can be shortened to 9 items (Schaufeli et al., 2006). It consists of three components, namely vigour, dedication and absorption (Mostert et al., 2007) which this study has focused on. It consists of vigour (3 items), dedication (3 items) and absorption (3 items) (Goliath-Yarde et al., 2011). The responses range from 0 (never) to 6 (Everyday). Sample items include: 'At my work, I feel bursting with energy' (vigour), 'I get carried away when I

am working' (absorption) and 'when I get up in the morning I feel like going to work' (dedication). The total score is calculated by each of the scores being added together and divided by the number of total items (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Schaufeli et al. (2006) has shown that all three sub-scales are correlated with each other showing good validity. Travaglianti et al. (2016) found reliability for vigour $\alpha = 0.77$, dedication $\alpha = 0.85$ and absorption $\alpha = 0.78$, while Pieters et al. (2019) reported vigour $\alpha = 0.81$, dedication $\alpha = 0.81$ and absorption $\alpha = 0.82$.

The fifth section looks at the *Maslach Burnout Inventory* (MBI) scale which consists of 22 items that focus on the three dimensions of burnout which are emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment and depersonalisation (Srivastava et al., 2019). This study will be looking at the 16 items developed by Maslach et al. (1996). It consists of a seven-point Likert scale from 0 (never) to 6 (every day). It measures exhaustion with five items, namely (*I feel used up at the end of the workday*); cynicism with four items (*I have become less enthusiastic about my work*) and professional efficacy with seven items (*In my opinion, I am good at my job*) (Marias et al., 2009). The self-rating questionnaire assesses the constant and the severity of the burnout perceived by individuals (Lwanicki & Schwab, 1981). Lwanicki and Schwab (1981) showed that the measure has good validity as constructs are similar to past literature. While Chalofsky et al. (2014) noted that convergent validity has shown moderate levels. Wambui (2020) found emotional exhaustion $\alpha = 0.87$, professional efficacy $\alpha = 0.92$ and cynicism $\alpha = 0.76$, while Fong and Ng (2012) found 0.86 for exhaustion, 0.81 for cynicism and 0.77 for professional efficacy. In terms of scoring, burnout is shown when cynicism and exhaustion are high and professional efficacy is low. When cynicism and exhaustion are low and professional efficacy is high, it shows engagement (Chalofsky et al., 2014). Professional efficacy scores have to be reversed to determine burnout (Schaufeli et al., 2006).

Due to their reliability and validity in previous studies in the Namibian context, the JSS, UWES-9, and MBI were used in this study. As the tool is new, the leadership toolkit emotional intelligence questionnaire was used to test its reliability in the Namibian

context.

3.6. Procedure

Participants consented to participate, and according to preference, online questionnaires or printed questionnaires were distributed to them based on the above-discussed criteria. Employees were expected to complete the questionnaires after working hours with some employees targeted towards the end of workshops. The responses were entered into SPSS for analysis; the results were then reported and the data stored on Google Drive. The printed questionnaires are stored in a secure cabinet for five years.

3.7. Data analysis

SPSS was used to analyse data; the Cronbach alpha used to measure the reliability of the instruments was used to measure these variables (Kumar, 2011). The Pearson Correlation is a good technique that examined the relationship and strength between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, work engagement and burnout. The dimensions of job satisfaction; pay, promotion, co-workers, nature of work, and supervision demonstrated very low reliability, thus the regression analysis was not conducted. To compare three or more independent variables on one numeric score, the Kruskal-Wallis test was utilized and the Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare differences (sex demographic variable).

3.8. Research ethics

Ethical clearance (FHSS/610/2021) was obtained from the University of Namibia, and permission from the three ministries was granted. The employees were informed of the study and given the chance to consent to participate in the study. There was a confidentiality clause on the questionnaire to assure participants that the information obtained will not be shared with any other person not involved in the research. The researcher informed the respondents that participation is voluntary and they can withdraw at any time without discrimination. The participant was assured of anonymity, and no names were used instead numbers were assigned after the data collection (Beins & McCarthy, 2012).

3.9. Conclusion

This chapter identified that the study took on a quantitative approach by using numerical data. The Leadership Toolkit Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EQQ) was used to measure emotional intelligence; the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) measured job satisfaction; the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9) measured work engagement, and the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was used to measure burnout. SPSS was the main analysis tool for the data collected. Anonymity, confidentiality and voluntary participation were the main ethics evaluated.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focused on detailing the results of this study. It reported on results obtained from the questionnaire and presented the crucial findings. The results start with the statistical results of demographical variables (sex, age, tenure, dependants, highest qualification, marital status and management level) and the results of a Pearson rank order correlation. Lastly, the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test were then provided.

4.2 Demographical variables results

The demographical results are depicted in the Tables below. The discussion of these results follows after each table.

Table 4.1

Sex of Sample

Category	Item:	Frequency:	Percentage:
SEX	Male	50	38.5
	Female	79	60.8
	Missing Values	1	0.8
TOTAL		130	100.0

The results showed that n=130 (52%) employees participated in the study of which n=50 (38.5%) were male and n=79 (60.8%) were females.

Table 4.2*Age of Sample*

Category	Item:	Frequency:	Percentage:
AGE	Below 24	1	0.8
	24-28	5	3.8
	29-31	22	16.9
	32-35	30	23.1
	36-40	28	21.5
	41-45	19	14.6
	46-50	10	7.7
	51 or older	15	11.5
TOTAL		130	100.0

Only n=1 (0.8%) of the employees was below 24 years; n=5 (3.8%) employees were between the ages of 24 to n=28; 22 (16.9%) employees were between 29 to 31 years old; n=30 (23.1%) employees were between 32 and 35 years old; n=28 (21.5%) employees were between 36 and 40 years old; n=19 (14.6%) employees were between 41 and 45 years old; n=10 (7.7%) employees were between 46 and 50 years old, and n=15 (11.5%) employees were 51 years old or older.

Table 4.3*Years in Profession of Sample*

Category	Item:	Frequency:	Percentage:
YEARS PROFESSION	IN Less than 1 year	12	9.2
	1-2	9	6.9
	3-4	6	4.6
	5-6	27	20.8
	7-8	15	11.5
	9-11	17	13.1
	12-15	17	13.1
	16 or more	27	20.8
TOTAL		130	100.0

The number of years in the industry is as follows: n=12 (9.2%) employees had worked for less than a year; n=9 (6.9%) employees had worked for 1 or 2 years; n=6 (4.6%) employees had worked for 3 or 4 years; n=27 (20.8%) employees had worked for 5 or 6 years; 15 (11.5%) employees had worked for 7 or 8 years; n=17 (13.1%) employees had worked between 9 to 11 years; n=17 (13.1%) employees had worked between 12 to 15 years, and n=27 (20.8%) employees had worked for 16 years or more.

Table 4.4*Highest Qualification of Sample*

Category	Item:	Frequency:	Percentage:
HIGHEST QUALIFICATION	Grade 12	10	7.7
	Certificate	8	6.2
	Diploma	10	7.7
	Degree	33	25.4
	Honours Degree	39	30
	Master's Degree	26	20
	PhD Degree	1	0.8
	Missing Values	3	2.3
TOTAL		130	100.0

In regards to the qualifications, n=10 (7.7%) employees have grade 12; n=8 (6.2%) employees have certificate; n=10 (7.7%) employees have diplomas; n=33 (25.4%) employees have degrees; n=39 (30%) employees have honours degrees; n=26 (20%) employees have master's degrees; n=1 (0.8%) employee has a PhD degree, and n=3 (2.3%) are missing value.

Table 4.5*Number of Dependents of Sample*

Category	Item:	Frequency:	Percentage:
NUMBER DEPENDENTS (CHILDREN)	None	27	20.8
	1-2	54	41.5
	3-4	37	28.5
	5-6	9	6.9
	7-9	1	0.8
	10 or more	1	0.8
	Missing Values	1	0.8
TOTAL		130	100.0

Regarding the number of dependants (children), n=27 (20.8%) employees have no dependants; n=54 (41.5%) employees have 1 or 2 dependants; n=37 (28.5%) employees have 3 or 4 dependants; n=9 (6.9%) employees have between 5 or 6 dependants; n=1 (0.8%) employee has between 7 and 9 dependants, n=1 (0.8%) employee has 10 or more, and n=1 (0.8%) is a missing value.

Table 4.6*Marital Status of Sample*

Category	Item:	Frequency:	Percentage:
MARITAL STATUS	Single	79	60.8
	Married	45	34.6
	Divorced	4	3.1
	Widowed	2	1.5
TOTAL		130	100.0

Regarding marital status, n=79 (60.8%) employees are single; n=45 (34.6%) employees are married, n=4 (3.1%) employees are divorced, and n=2 (1.5%) employees are widowed.

Table 4.7*Management level of sample*

Category	Item:	Frequency:	Percentage:
MANAGEMENT LEVEL	Non - managerial staff	95	73.1
	Mid-level management	29	22.3
	Senior management	4	3.1
	Missing Values	2	1.5
TOTAL		130	100.0

In relation to management level, n=95 (73.1%) of employees were in non-managerial positions; n=29 (22.3%) employees were in mid-level management position; n=4 (3.1) employees were in senior management position respondent, and n=2 (1.5%) are missing values.

4.3. Emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and burnout analysis results

Table 4.8

Descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation on EQ, job satisfaction and burnout

Variable	Mean:	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.EQ_SA	54.95	86.45	.92	-						
2. EQ_SS	50.64	86.44	.95	.94++	-					
3. EQ_COM	105.59	170.04	.96	.98++	.98++	-				
4. JS_COM	57.88	51.69	.70	.18*	.18*	.18*	-			
5. BO_EXH	38.53	91.09	.93	-.05*	-0.04*	-.04*	.03	-		
6. BO_EFF	65.31	102.53	.91	.14*	.14*	.14*	.09*	.87++	-	
7. BO_CYN	29.75	69.76	.92	.20*	.23*	.22*	.08*	.84++	.92++	-
8. BO_COM	133.58	252.65	.97	.09*	.11*	.10*	.07*	.95++	.97++	.95++

* Statistically significant: $p \leq 0,05$

+ Practically significant correlation (medium effect): $0,30 \leq r \leq 0,49$

++ Practically significant correlation (large effect): $r \geq 0,50$

1. EQ_SA = Emotional Intelligence (Social Awareness)

2. EQ_SS = Emotional Intelligence (Social Skills)

3. EQ_COM = Emotional Intelligence Combined

4. JS_COM = Job Satisfaction Combined

5. BO_EXH = Burnout (Exhaustion)

6. BO_CYN = Burnout (Cynicism)

7. BO_EFF = Burnout (Professional Inefficacy)

8. BO_COM = Burnout combine

4.3.1. Descriptive statistics analysis results

Emotional intelligence scale showed a high reliability of $\alpha=0.92$ (with self-awareness $\alpha=0.92$, and social skills $\alpha=0.95$). Job satisfaction scale showed a reliability of $\alpha=0.70$. Burnout scale showed a high reliability of $\alpha=0.97$ (professional inefficacy $\alpha=0.91$, cynicism $\alpha=0.92$, exhaustion $\alpha=0.93$).

4.3.2 Inferential statistics analysis results

This study reports that self-awareness has a significant positive relationship with social skills ($r = .94, p < 0.05$; large effect) and with emotional intelligence combined ($r = .98, p < 0.05$; large effect). Self-awareness also reported a positive relationship with combined job satisfaction ($r = .18, p < 0.05$; small effect). Then, a positive relationship was reported between self-awareness and a negative relationship with exhaustion ($r = -.05, p < 0.05$; small effect). Self-awareness has a positive relationship with professional inefficacy ($r = .14, p < 0.05$; small effect), with cynicism ($r = .20, p < 0.05$; small effect) and with burnout combined ($r = .09, p < 0.05$; small effect).

Social skills has a positive relationship with combined emotional intelligence ($r = -.98, p < 0.05$; small effect); with job satisfaction combined ($r = .18, p < 0.05$; small effect). Social skills then reported a negative relationship with exhaustion ($r = -.04, p < 0.05$; almost no effect), a positive relationship with professional inefficacy ($r = .14, p < 0.05$; small effect), with cynicism ($r = .23, p < 0.05$; small effect) and with burnout combined ($r = .11, p < 0.05$; small effect).

Findings show that combined emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with job satisfaction combined ($r = .18, p < 0.05$; small effect). Emotional intelligence combined has a negative relationship with exhaustion ($r = -.04, p < 0.05$; almost no effect) and a positive relationship with professional inefficacy ($r = .14, p > 0.05$; small effect), with cynicism ($r = .22, p < 0.05$; small effect) and with combined burnout ($r = .10, p < 0.05$; small effect).

Job satisfaction combined has a positive relationship with combined burnout ($r = .25, p < 0.05$; small effect). In addition, combined job satisfaction has a positive relationship with exhaustion ($r = .03, p < 0.05$; almost no effect), with professional inefficacy ($r = .09, p < 0.05$; small effect) and with cynicism ($r = .08, p < 0.05$; small effects). Furthermore, combined job satisfaction has a positive relationship with combined burnout ($r = .07, p < 0.05$; small effect).

In addition, professional inefficacy has a positive relationship with cynicism ($r = .92, p < 0.05$; large effect) and with combined burnout ($r = .97, p < 0.05$; large effect).

Cynicism has shown to have a positive relationship with combined burnout ($r = .95, p < 0.05$; large effect).

4.4. Emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and work engagement analysis results

Table 4.9

Descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation on EQ, job satisfaction and work engagement

Variable	Mean:	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.EQ_SA	54.95	86.45	.92	-						
2. EQ_SS	50.64	86.44	.95	.94++	-					
3. EQ_COM	105.59	170.04	.96	.98++	.98++	-				
4. JS_COM	57.88	51.69	.70	.18*	.18*	.18*	-			
5. WE_VIG	21.54	36.81	.90	.23*	.23*	.24*	.03	-		
6. WE_DED	26.15	44.36	.90	.17*	.17*	.17*	.47*+	.78++	-	
7. WE_ABS	24.60	39.72	.75	.18*	.18*	.18*	.18*	.87++	.81++	-
8. WE_COM	72.209	113.33	.94	.21*	.21*	.21*	.25*	.93++	.93++	.95++

*Statistically significant: $p \leq 0,05$

+Practically significant correlation (medium effect): $0,30 \leq r \leq 0,49$

++ Practically significant correlation (large effect): $r \geq 0,50$

1. *EQ_SA = Emotional Intelligence (Social Awareness)*

2. *EQ_SS = Emotional Intelligence (Social Skills)*

3. *EQ_COM = Emotional Intelligence Combined*

4. *JS_COM = Job Satisfaction Combined*

5. *WE_VIG = Work Engagement (Vigour)*

6. *WE_DED = Work Engagement (Dedication)*

7. *WE_ABS = Work Engagement (Absorption)*

8. *WE_COM = Work Engagement Combined*

4.4.1 Descriptive statistics analysis results

Work engagement showed a high reliability of $\alpha=0.94$ (vigour $\alpha=0.90$, dedication $\alpha=0.90$, absorption $\alpha=0.75$). This study reports that vigour showed a mean= 21.54, and SD= 36.81; dedication showed a mean= 26.15, and SD= 36.81. Absorption showed a mean= 24.60, and SD= 39.72, while combined work engagement showed a mean= 72.29, and SD= 113.33.

4.4.2 Inferential statistics analysis results

This study reports that self-awareness has a significant positive relationship with social skills ($r = .94, p > 0.05$; large effect) and with emotional intelligence combined ($r = .98, p > 0.05$; large effect). Self-awareness also reported a positive relationship with combined job satisfaction ($r = .18, p > 0.05$; small effect), with vigour ($r = .23, p > 0.05$; small effect), dedication ($r = .17, p > 0.05$; small effect) and with absorption ($r = .18, p >$

0.05; small effect). Then, a positive relationship was reported between self-awareness and work engagement combined ($r = .21, p > 0.05$; small effect). Social skills has a positive relationship with combined emotional intelligence ($r = -.98, p > 0.05$; small effect); with job satisfaction combined ($r = .18, p > 0.05$; small effect); with vigour ($r = .23, p > 0.05$; small effect); with dedication ($r = .17, p > 0.05$; small effect); with absorption ($r = .18, p > 0.05$; small effect) and with combined work engagement ($r = .21, p > 0.05$; small effect).

Findings show that combined emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with job satisfaction combined ($r = .18, p > 0.05$; small effect), with vigour ($r = .24, p > 0.05$; small effect), with dedication ($r = .17, p > 0.05$; small effect), with absorption ($r = .18, p > 0.05$; small effect) and with work engagement combined ($r = .21, p > 0.05$; small effect). Job satisfaction combined has a positive relationship with vigour ($r = .03, p < 0.05$; almost no effect), with dedication ($r = .47, p > 0.05$; medium effect), with absorption ($r = .18, p > 0.05$; small effect) and with combined burnout ($r = .25, p > 0.05$; small effect).

This study reports that vigour has a positive relationship with dedication ($r = .78, p > 0.05$, large effect), with absorption ($r = .87, p > 0.05$; large effect) and with combined work engagement ($r = .93, p > 0.05$; large effect). Reports have shown that dedication has a positive relationship with absorption ($r = .81, p > 0.05$; large effect) and with combined work engagement ($r = .93, p > 0.05$; large effect). Findings show that absorption has a positive relationship with combined work engagement ($r = .95, p > 0.05$; large effect).

4.5 Burnout, work engagement and demographic analysis results

The Kruskal-Wallis test was computed, and the results are shown in the following tables. The results reveal that the null hypothesis can be rejected above 0.05 level of significance.

4.5.1 Burnout and work engagement is experienced differently based on sex.

Table 4.10

Sex Independent-Samples Mann Whitney U Test

	N:	Mean	H	Degree of freedom (df)	Asymptotic Sig.
Sex (BO)	130	2.36	8.874	2	.012
Sex (WE)	130	2.36	0.053	2	.974

Table 4.10 above shows that sex was evaluated by the independent-sample Mann Whitney U test which showed that the variance in burnout is experienced differently based on sex (Chi-square = 8.874; df = 2; p =.012). However, the variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on sex (Chi-square = .974; df= 2; Asym. Sig= .974).

H_{3a}: *The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on sex; Rejected.*

H_{4a}: *The variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on sex; Accepted.*

4.5.2 Burnout and work engagement is experienced differently based on age.

Table 4.11

Age Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test

Burnout	N:	Mean Rank	Work engagement	N:	Mean Rank
Sig. 0.320			Sig. 0.322		
Below 24 years	1	20.50		1	81.00
24-28	5	37.20		5	82.10
29-31	22	68.32		22	59.52
32-35	30	71.58		30	67.07
36-40	28	60.89		28	73.84
41-45	19	75.58		19	72.74
46-50	10	52.45		10	47.00
51 or older	15	66.17		15	52.17

The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on age (Chi-square = 8.143; df = 7; p = .320); similarly, the variance of work engagement is not experienced differently based on age (Chi-square = 8.119; df = 7; p = .322).

H_{3b}: The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on age; Accepted.

H_{4b}: The variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on age; Accepted.

4.5.3 Burnout and work engagement is experienced differently based on years in profession.

Table 4.12

Years in Profession Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test

Burnout	N:	Mean Rank	Work Engagement	N:	Mean Rank
Sig. 0.140			Sig. 0.763		
Less than 1	12	48.46		12	66.92
1-2	9	47.72		9	53.44
3-4	6	100.75		6	83.33
5-6	27	64.54		27	64.63
7-8	15	75.23		15	62.33
9-10	17	66.91		17	70.18
11-15	17	62.44		17	73.62
16 or more	27	67.76		27	59.50

The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on years in industry (Chi-square = 10.973; df = 7; p = .140), while the variance in work engagement is experienced differently based on years in industry (Chi-square = 4.145; df = 7; p = .763).

H_{3c}: The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on years in industry; Accepted.

H_{4c}: The variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on years in industry; Accepted.

4.5.4 Burnout and work engagement is experienced differently based on marital status.

Table 4.13

Marital Status Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test

Burnout	N:	Mean Rank	Work Engagement	N:	Mean Rank
Sig. 0.140			Sig. 0.428		
Single	79	61.08		79	68.53
Married	45	74.96		45	63.12
Divorced	4	43.13		4	45.50
Widowed	2	72.25		2	39.50

The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on marital status (Chi-square = 5.403; df = 3; p = .145), likewise, the variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on marital status (Chi-square = 2.772; df = 3; p = .428),

H_{3d}: The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on marital status; Accepted.

H_{4d}: The variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on marital status; Accepted.

4.5.5 Burnout and work engagement is experienced differently based on number of dependants (children).

Table 4.14

Number of Dependants Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test

Burnout	N:	Mean Rank	Work Engagement	N:	Mean Rank
Sig. 0.057			Sig. 0.672		
None	27	63.30		27	74.04
1-2	54	58.67		54	59.54
3-4	37	65.74		37	67.38
5-6	9	93.56		9	62.67
7-9	1	114.50		1	46.00
10 or more	1	119.00		1	68.00

The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on number of dependants (Chi-square = 10.719; df = 5; p =.057); equally, the variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based number of dependants (Chi-square = 3.184; df = 5; p =.672),

H_{3c}: The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on number of dependants; Accepted.

H_{4c}: The variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on number of dependants; Accepted.

4.5.6 Burnout and work engagement is experienced differently based on highest qualifications obtained.

Table 4.15

Highest Qualification Obtained Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test

Burnout	N:	Mean Rank	Work Engagement	N:	Mean Rank
Sig. 0.174			Sig. 0.556		
Grade 12	10	72.80		10	60.95
Certificate	8	87.63		8	59.19
Diploma	10	50.60		10	71.40
Degree	33	59.35		33	63.70
Honours Degree	39	60.03		39	68.01
Master's Degree	26	68.13		26	55.90
PhD Degree	1	122.00		1	123.00

The variance in burnout is also not experienced differently based on highest qualification (Chi-square = 8.993; df = 6; p = .174), and the variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on highest qualification obtained (Chi-square = 4.909; df = 6; p = .556).

H_{3f}: The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on highest qualification obtained; Accepted.

H_{4f}: The variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on highest qualification obtained; Accepted.

4.5.7 Burnout and work engagement is experienced differently based on level of management.

Table 4.16

Management Levels Independent-Samples Kruskal-Wallis Test

Burnout	N:	Mean Rank	Work Engagement	N:	Mean Rank
Sig. 0.712			Sig. 0.837		
Non - managerial	10	72.80		10	60.95
Mid- level management	8	87.63		8	59.19
Senior Management	10	50.60		10	71.40

The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on management level (Chi-square = .678; df = 2; p =.712); similarly, the variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on level of management (Chi-square = .355; df = 2; p =.837).

H_{3g}: The variance in burnout is not experienced differently based on level of management; Accepted.

H_{4g}: The variance in work engagement is not experienced differently based on level of management; Accepted.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter focused on presenting the results as calculated with SPSS analysis. The demographic information results are presented in frequencies and percentages in Table 4.1. The Pearson correlation results are presented to assess the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction on work engagement and burnout of the employees in the Namibian public sector. The Kruskal-Wallis test results respond to H₃: the variance in burnout and work engagement is not experienced differently based on sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter will present a detailed discussion of the results of the SPSS analysis. The findings are confirmed by past literature findings. Recommendations are provided and explained alongside the conclusion and an overall summary of the study.

5.2 Discussion

5.2.1 Demographical Data

The randomly collected data has shown that more females than males responded to the questionnaire. This supports the numbers from the Namibian Statistic Agency (2019) which show that more females are employed than males in the government which incorporates local authorities. The majority of participants have been working at the different ministries for between 5 and 6 years (20.8%), and 20.8% have been working for 16 or more years. A large number of participants have honours degrees, and most have either 1 or 2 dependants (41.5%).

5.2.2 Empirical Data

This study assessed two emotional intelligence dimensions which are self-awareness and social skills. Job satisfaction focused on pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision, and the nature of work. Findings show that there is a positive relationship between combined emotional intelligence and job satisfaction combined. This is similar to what Ealias and George (2012) and Akomolafe and Olatomide (2013) found. Emotional intelligence helps encourage positive emotions which enhances employees' satisfied feelings (Abiodullah et al., 2020). Increasing the levels of emotional intelligence will influence job satisfaction positively (Gopinath & Chitra, 2020).

5.2.2.1 Objective 1: To investigate if emotional intelligence and job satisfaction impact burnout of employees.

The findings show that combined emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with combined burnout. This indicates that emotionally intelligent employees can experience higher levels of burnout and vice versa. This is in contrast to past research findings like Sanchez-Gomez and Bresó (2020) and Gorgens-Ekermans and Brand (2012). Going further with the dimensions of emotional intelligence and burnout used in this study, self-awareness and social skills reported a negative relationship with exhaustion. This shows that when an individual is self-aware with good social skills, this will decrease the likelihood of them experiencing overwhelming exhaustion. When employees are can manage and perceive their own and others' emotions, they are likely to decrease their exhaustion levels (Lee, 2017). On the other hand, self-awareness and social skills reported a positive relationship with professional inefficacy and cynicism.

The positive association between combined emotional intelligence and combined burnout may be explained as the COVID-19 epidemic is most likely to be acting as a mediator in this relationship. The pandemic restrictions have resulted in limited interactions with people all around the world (Ward, 2020). As a result, social connections decreased and loneliness worsened (Singh & Singh, 2020). The lack of engagement and persistent worry can have a negative impact on the development of one's emotional intelligence. A constantly demanding work environment can influence an employee with a high level of emotional intelligence to get discouraged, thus increasing burnout (Vaezi & Fallah, 2011). However, according to Sanches-Gomez and Bresó (2020), highly emotionally intelligent employees can have low levels of burnout and still perform because burnout has been demonstrated to be a moderator between emotional intelligence and performance.

This study discovered that combined job satisfaction has a positive relationship with combined burnout although previous studies found an inverse association between job satisfaction and burnout (Ismail et al., 2013; Payne et al., 2020). In greater detail, combined job satisfaction was found to have a positive relationship with exhaustion, professional inefficacy and cynicism; this is even though Bruce and Sangweni (2020)

discovered that job satisfaction has a negative relationship with exhaustion and cynicism and a positive relationship with professional efficacy. Experiencing a high level of job satisfaction and a high level of burnout or vice versa can show that work circumstances might not be the cause of the burnout. Payne et al. (2020) have explained that this can be possible if the burnout is influenced by factors that are personal like personal health or family demands. Having an employee experiencing low levels of job satisfaction and low levels of burnout can indicate that work is viewed as a tool for obtaining money to fulfilling their basic needs (Wiltshire, 2016). Even if they are not experiencing burnout, employees may be dissatisfied with their jobs but believe they have no choice but to continue working to earn a living. Other external factors can also come into play.

According to research, emotionally intelligent public service employees who are satisfied with their job, with reduced burnout can increase their commitment to perform (Lee, 2017). Burnout is thought to play a role in the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction by acting as a moderator (Lee & Ok, 2012). However, according to this study, it is possible for an emotionally intelligent employee who is satisfied with their job to experience burnout. According to the COR theory, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction conserve an individual's resources so that they can deal with their daily demands. As a result, they maintain a balance and/or protect an individual's resources while they are suffering from burnout.

5.2.2.2 Objective 2: To investigate if emotional intelligence and job satisfaction impacts work engagement of the employees.

Findings from this study show that combined emotional intelligence has a positive relationship with combined work engagement. An emotionally intelligent person is likely to become engaged. Studies have shown that there is a remarkable positive relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement (Alotaibi et al., 2020; Chauvet, 2016). Further reports have shown that self-awareness has a positive relationship with vigour, dedication and absorption. Emotionally self-aware individuals are capable of sustaining positive emotions, and this can affect their engagement

(Ravichandran et al., 2011). In this study, social skills was found to have a positive relationship with vigour, dedication and absorption. Extremera et al. (2018) found that emotional intelligence was positively related to vigour, absorption and dedication. Employees that can manage and perceive their emotions and others' emotions are likely to exhibit high energy levels, get entangled with their tasks, and can put in extra effort (Bartlett, 2015).

In this study, combined job satisfaction reported a positive relationship with combined work engagement (vigour, dedication, and absorption). Sehunce et al. (2015) also found a positive relationship between vigour, absorption and dedication, whereas Kazimbu and Pieters (2020) found job satisfaction (particularly intrinsic satisfaction) to predict work engagement. A high level of job satisfaction leads to increased work engagement. Satisfied employees have a better chance of engaging, and this impacts overall performance (Ngwenya & Pelsler, 2020). Having a high level of work engagement in the organisation leads to increased performance (Aboramadan et al., 2021).

This study has shown that combined emotional intelligence and combined job satisfaction can impact combined work engagement. In other words, an emotionally intelligent employee, who is satisfied with their job, is likely to become engaged. Yan et al. (2018) also found that high levels of emotional intelligence was related to job satisfaction and both impact work engagement positively. It was noted that job satisfaction impacts work engagement more than emotional intelligence does (Sudibjo & Sutarji, 2020). According to the JDR model, the emotional intelligence and job satisfaction level of public servant employees can be viewed as resources that motivate these employees to become engaged.

5.2.2.3 Objective 3: To investigate whether burnout is experienced differently according to sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status

This study looked at demographic variables of sex, age, highest qualification obtained, years in industry, marital status, level of management, and the number of dependants. The variance in combined burnout is experienced differently based on sex, yet combined burnout is not experienced differently based on age, number of years in the industry, marital status, the number of dependants, highest qualification and management level. These findings are consistent with those of Bezuidenhout and Cilliers (2011) who stated that older females are more prone to experience burnout compared to those that are younger. However, Louw et al. (2011) found that burnout is experienced differently with the number of years in the industry, while age, gender, position, marital status and highest qualifications did not.

5.2.2.4 Objective 4: To investigate whether work engagement is experienced differently according to sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status

Findings revealed that the variance of combined work engagement is not experienced differently based on sex, age, number of years in the industry, marital status, number of dependants, highest qualification and level of management. Mvana and Louw (2020) and Bartlett (2015) found similar results with the exception that age and number of years in the industry have differing effects on one's work engagement. Shukla et al. (2015) found that females are more engaged than males, while employees that are married compared to the other marital status are more engaged. In addition, employees that are in top positions were also found to be more engaged than those in lower positions. Kose (2016) outlined that gender, age, marital status and education level were not statistically explained by work engagement.

5.3 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to assess whether emotional intelligence and job satisfaction have an impact on work engagement and burnout. The findings show that all four variables are related to each other positively to different degrees. An emotionally intelligent and satisfied employee can become more engaged and can experience burnout. However, an employee that is not emotionally intelligent and not satisfied with their job may not experience burnout. This is different from research studies like D'Amico et al. (2012) who found that emotionally competent employees can increase their work engagement and decrease burnout.

The study discovered that variance in combined burnout is experienced differently based on sex, yet combined burnout and combined work engagement are not experienced differently based on age, number of years in the industry, marital status, number of dependants, highest qualification and management level.

5.3.1 Limitations and implications

When interpreting the findings of this study, the following should be considered. Despite the effort put into the data collection, the study has a response rate of only 52% (130/250). The questionnaires were completed by the majority of employees during the peak of COVID-19 infections and death tolls as well as during the aftermath of such a stressful/ traumatising period. Some employees pointed out that the UWES-9 and MBI instruments' response ratings were confusing. It was also noted that the inclusion of Grade 10 (standard) as the highest qualification obtained could have influenced the findings of the study. The job satisfaction dimensions scored low on reliability, the regression analysis was not used to analyse further.

5.4 Recommendations

The study recommends that public human resource managers improve emotional intelligence and job satisfaction to influence employee engagement and burnout. This is through the provision of training on emotional intelligence. This can also be done through mindfulness activities (such as mindfulness training) which have been shown to improve both physical and mental outcomes (Creswell & Lindsay, 2014). The focal point is on individual awareness and attention (Meiklejohn et al., 2012). Training on how emotional regulation and management can give employees the ability to reach their objectives (Pio et al., 2021). Having employees evaluated with a standardised emotional intelligence aptitude test can help determine which employees may need to develop their emotional intelligence and which ones can be retained as well as receive training. This can also aid in ensuring their effectiveness and commitment to their work (Akintayo & Babalola, 2012).

A clear performance management system can assist in making the processes of identifying and increasing job satisfaction. A good performance management system is a very important tool when it comes to productivity and identifying training needs, and it is a feedback system (Fatile, 2014). Feedback helps one understand where there is a need for improvement. A feedback culture is needed so that employees know they will be heard and to enhance accountability (Maylett & Wride, 2017). A reward system can be incorporated into the performance management system. Pay and other types of rewards (like a promotion) will help influence an employee's behaviour through motivation (Macky & Wilson, 2013). Other cost-effective ways of rewarding performing employees can be: praising, complimenting, offering time off, featuring employees on the organisation's webpage/magazine/newspaper, an employee of the month picture or floating trophy amongst others.

Suggestion boxes and stay interviews should also allow employees an opportunity to discuss with employers their dislikes and likes concerning their current position and what would keep them with the organisation (Nelson, 2015). This would help employees feel heard, and according to Reeves et al. (2012) having employees heard can help

management obtain in-depth insight into how to help employees perform even better. Employees that are part of the decision-making processes can impact their performance (Sukimo & Seingthai, 2014). All these are aspects that can enhance job satisfaction.

To maintain work engagement, it is suggested to provide regular practical day-to-day engagement activities and team building activities. Team building activities help improve teams and engagement (Pollack & Matous, 2019). Activities like motivation from supervisors/management or fun games could be considered. Another way is journey mapping where an employee jots down their experience with the organisation. This provides information about any challenges that were faced, and it helps increase engagement and employee satisfaction (Shivakuma, 2020).

Introduce effective wellness programs and interventions. They help employees be able to deal with all different stressors (Lange, 2014) to prevent burnout. One important factor is that an organisation cannot become productive and successful if their employees are always feeling unwell and not engaged (Richardson & Burke, 2014). These programs help with employee sustainability which is their energy, vitality; joy, enthusiasm; engagement and having them feel alive. They also promote the improvement of employees' physiological, social and mental well-being (Richardson & Burke, 2014). Employees should be encouraged to seek counselling to help them cope better (Akomolafe & Olatomide, 2013).

Overall, this study suggests that organisations should make use of assessments and surveys to evaluate the level of work engagement, burnout and job satisfaction. Constant evaluation and research of job attitudes can help organisations be able to develop excellent strategies (Louw et al., 2011). In the end, what could work for one organisation might not necessarily work for others.

Further research is needed in identifying whether COVID-19 is a mediating factor in the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction on burnout. Additional research is also needed to explore whether work engagement and burnout are

experienced differently according to sex, age, tenure, rank, number of dependants, educational qualification and marital status. As well as, re-evaluate JSS or make use of another job satisfaction instruments.

A qualitative approach may be included and an examination of other government organisations should be undertaken as well. Researchers should consider examining the limitations and implications of this study to help get additional results for future studies and the adaptation of the different instruments for better reliability. The results of this study have contributed to an understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, work engagement and burnout in the Namibian context and can be used by human resource managers as a tool for improving these variables which can lead to productivity.

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APPENDIX A: Ethical Clearance



ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Ethical Clearance Reference Number: FHSS/ 610/ 2021 **Date:** 15 April , 2021

This Ethical Clearance Certificate is issued by the University of Namibia Research Ethics Committee (UREC) in accordance with the University of Namibia's Research Ethics Policy and Guidelines. Ethical approval is given in respect of undertakings contained in the Research Project outlined below. This Certificate is issued on the recommendations of the ethical evaluation done by the Faculty/Centre/Campus Research & Publications Committee sitting with the Postgraduate Studies Committee.

Title of Project: Investigating The Impact Of Emotional Intelligence And Job Satisfaction On Work Engagement And Burnout Of Employees In The Public Sector, Windhoek

Student: SELMA N. K. INGO

Student Number: 201604702)


Supervisor: *Dr. W. Pieters*

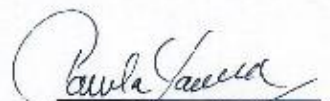
Campus: Main Campus Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences

Take note of the following:

- (a) Any significant changes in the conditions or undertakings outlined in the approved Proposal must be communicated to the HREC-H. An application to make amendments may be necessary.
- (b) Any breaches of ethical undertakings or practices that have an impact on ethical conduct of the research must be reported to the HREC-H.
- (c) The Principal Researcher must report issues of ethical compliance to the UREC (through the Chairperson of the Faculty/Centre/Campus Research & Publications Committee) at the end of the Project or as may be requested by HREC-H
- (d) The HREC-H retains the right to:
 - (i) Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance if any unethical practices (as outlined in the Research Ethics Policy) have been detected or suspected,
 - (ii) Request for an ethical compliance report at any point during the course of the research.

HREC-H wishes you the best in your research.


Prof. C. Wilders (Chairperson)


Ms. P. Claassen (Secretary)

APPENDIX B: Permission Letter Ministry of Labour, Industrial Relations and Employment Creation



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF LABOUR, INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND EMPLOYMENT CREATION

OFFICE OF THE EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR

Tel: (061) 206 6321/05

Fax: (061) 210 047

Enquiries: *B.M. Shinguadja*

Our Ref:

E-mail: bco.matthew.shinguadja@mol.gov.na

Your Ref:

Private Bag 19005

32 Mercedes Street

Khomasdal

WINDHOEK

20 May 2021

Ms Selma INGO
E-mail: ingoselma80@gmail.com

Dear Ms Ingo

**RE: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE EMPLOYEES OF THE
MINISTRY OF LABOUR, INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND EMPLOYMENT
CREATION**

1. This is to inform you that your request to conduct research on the employees of this Ministry is hereby approved.
2. It is very much important that you carry this letter along whenever you want to approach any staff of this Ministry for your research purposes.

Yours sincerely

**B.M. SHINGUADJA
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR**

All official correspondence must be addressed to the Executive Director

APPENDIX C: Permission Letter Ministry of Industrialisation and Trade



Republic of Namibia

MINISTRY OF INDUSTRIALISATION AND TRADE

Tel: (+264 61) 283-7334
Fax: (+264 61) 220 227

Enquiries: Mrs. N. M Nghede

Our Ref.: Your Ref.:

Office of the Executive Director
C/O Dr Kenneth Kaunda & Goethe Street
Private Bag 13340
Windhoek, NAMIBIA

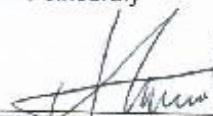
Date: 3 June 2021

Mrs. Selma N. Ingo
P.O. Box 20868
Windhoek
Namibia

SUBJECT: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

1. The above subject matter refers.
2. In response to your letter, you are hereby informed that your request to conduct research study in the Ministry of Industrialisation and Trade is approved.
3. Kindly liaise with the Chief Learning and Development Officer, Mrs. Nalitye Nghede at Nalitye.Nghede@mit.gov.na or contact her at 061-283 7400 to ensure that your research study is conducted successfully.

Yours sincerely


MR. SIKONGO HAIHAMBO
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR



"Growth at home"

APPENDIX D: Permission Letter Ministry of Finance



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF FINANCE

Tel.: (00 264 61) 209 2068
Fax: (00 264 61) 236 454

Enquiries: **Veronika M. Shirunga**
Our Ref.: **External Correspondence**

Head Office,
Moltke Street,
Private Bag 13295,
Windhoek,
NAMIBIA
09 June 2021

Ms. Selma Ingo
Student Number: 201604702
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
University of Namibia
WINDHOEK

Dear Ms. Ingo

RE: AUTHORISATION TO CONDUCT ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE

1. Kindly be informed that approval is granted by the Executive Director for you to conduct research within the Ministry of Finance.
2. However, the findings of the research project can only be used by you (the researcher) for submitting to the University of Namibia and can as well only be shared within the Ministry of Finance by submitting of the final document to the office of the Executive Director and that the information to be obtained must be kept confidential.
3. May I take this opportunity to wish you the best of luck during study. For any further enquiries please contact the head of the Division of Human Resource, Training and Development at Tel. 061-209 2036.

Your sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Ericah B. Shafudai', written over a circular official stamp.

ERICAH B. SHAFUDAI
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR: FINANCE

All official correspondence must be addressed to the Executive Director.

APPENDIX E: Questionnaire

Dear Participant,

We are currently conducting research on employees regarding **“the impact of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction on work engagement and burnout of employees in the public sector, Windhoek”**.

It would really be appreciated if you could participate in this study; no names will be used, all information shared in this study will only be used for academic purposes. You will in no way be prejudiced or negatively affected if you decide not to participate or withdraw from this study. This will be an opportunity for you to help the organization spot any potential issues that are affecting your well-being at work, in terms of emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, burnout and your work engagement. Your responds will help the organization find ways to manage the well-being of the employees effectively and to increase your personal and the organizations development and productivity.

Please sign below as an indication that you are willingly participating and were in no way coerced into participation. Please assist in submitting a truthful reflection of your thoughts, experiences and feelings.

If you have any further questions or queries feel free to contact Selma N.K. Ingo (Researcher) at ingoselma80@gmail.com (0817395001) or Dr W. Pieters (Researcher supervisor) at wpieters@unam.na (061 206 3056).

.....
Participant signature:

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

(Please tick the most appropriate response)

1. Sex:

Male Female

2. Age (years):

1. Below 24 years	
2. 24-28	
3. 29-31	
4. 32-35	
5. 36-40	
6. 41-45	
7. 46-50	
8. 51 and older	

3. Total number of years in the profession:

1. Less than 1	
2. 1-2	
3. 3-4	
4. 5-6	
5. 7-8	
6. 9-10	
7. 11-15	
8. 16 and more	

4. Marital status:

1. Single	
2. Married	
3. Divorced	
4. Widowed	

5. Number of dependents (children):

1. None	
2. 1-2	
3. 3-4	
4. 5-6	
5. 7-9	
6. 10 and more	

6. Highest qualification obtained:

1. Grade 12	
2. Certificate	
3. Diploma	
4. Degree	
5. Honors Degree	
6. Master's Degree	
7. PhD degree	

7. Management level:

1. Non-managerial staff	
2. Mid-level management	
3. Senior management	

SECTION B: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

This self-assessment questionnaire is designed to get you thinking about the various competences of emotional intelligence as they apply to you.

	1 = Does not apply 3 = Applies half the time 5 = Always applies				
1. I realise immediately when I lose my temper	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am an excellent listener	1	2	3	4	5
3. I know when I am happy	1	2	3	4	5
4. I never interrupt other people's conversations	1	2	3	4	5
5. I usually recognise when I am stressed	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am good at adapting and mixing with a variety of people	1	2	3	4	5
7. When I am being 'emotional' I am aware of this	1	2	3	4	5
8. People are the most interesting thing in life for me	1	2	3	4	5
9. When I feel anxious I usually can account for the reason(s)	1	2	3	4	5
10. I love to meet new people and get to know what makes them 'tick'	1	2	3	4	5
11. I always know when I'm being unreasonable	1	2	3	4	5
12. I need a variety of work colleagues to make my job interesting	1	2	3	4	5
13. Awareness of my own emotions is very important to me at all times	1	2	3	4	5
14. I like to ask questions to find out what is important to people	1	2	3	4	5
15. I can tell if someone has upset or annoyed me	1	2	3	4	5
16. I see working with difficult people as simply a challenge to win them over	1	2	3	4	5
17. I can let anger 'go' quickly so that it no longer affects me	1	2	3	4	5
18. I am good at reconciling differences with other people	1	2	3	4	5
19. I know what makes me happy	1	2	3	4	5
20. I generally build solid relationships with those I work with	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C: JOB SATISFACTION SCALE

PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.							
		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION D: WORK ENGAGEMENT

The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the “0” (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you felt it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I am proud of the work that I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I am immersed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I get carried away when I am working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION E: MBI

INSTRUCTIONS

The purpose of this survey is to assess how you view your job and what your reactions are to your work. The following are statements of job-related feelings. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you never had this feeling, circle a "0" (zero) next to the statement. If you had this feeling, indicate how often you feel it by circling the number (from 1-6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Everyday
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Working all day is really a strain for me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I can effectively solve the problems that arise in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I feel burned out from my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I feel I am making an effective contribution to what this organisation does.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I have become less interested in my work since I started this job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. In my opinion, I am good at my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I feel exhilarated when I accomplish something at work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I just want to do my work and not be bothered.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I doubt the significance of my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. At my work, I feel confident that I am effective at getting things done.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you for participating!

