

**THE EVALUATION OF A DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM
DIRECTED AT THE TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF
EMPLOYEES OF THE MINISTRY OF JUSTICE IN NORTHERN
NAMIBIA**

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ABSTRACT

The global corporate setting changes swiftly as a result of technological, economic and political developments. Due to these phenomena it has been noted that staff members in general experience a great increase in emotional strain, leaving a need for an effective program focussed on enhancing employees' ability to deal with such stressors via an increase in their trait emotional intelligence. With such an enhancement the employees would experience improved levels of empathy, emotional perception, emotional expression, better personal relationships, superior emotion regulation, less impulsiveness, more effective stress management, increased emotional management, higher levels of assertiveness, more social awareness, would be more optimistic, experience higher levels of happiness, improve their self-esteem, benefit from advanced self-motivation and adaptability.

The study was conducted in order to assess the effectiveness of such an emotional intelligence program that was implemented in the Ministry of Justice of Namibia. The program consisted of four individual counselling sessions focussing on assertiveness (thought control), communication, stress management and procrastination. The program participants were assessed by means of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire – Short Form (TEIQue-SF) and also completed program evaluation questions after completion of the program. The TEIQue-SF was completed by an experimental group and a control group. When considering the TEIQue-SF scores on their own the differences between the groups were not found to be significant. Both groups showed an increase in their trait emotional intelligence of more than 18 points. The program evaluation forms however, showed that the intervention was perceived by the experimental group as having a positive impact on their general happiness and well-being.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my wife Adele and our three children Christof, Tamara and Salome, who assisted in each and every possible way on a daily basis. They went through many hardships and took responsibilities upon themselves while a husband and father spent many hours behind the computer. Your belief in my success pulled me through many seemingly hopeless and impossible situations. I thank you for your love!

DECLARATION

I, Siegfried Bernhard Lange, hereby declare that this study is a true reflection of my own research, and that this work, or part thereof, has not been submitted for a degree in any other institution of higher education.

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Date:.....

(Siegfried Bernhard Lange)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This thesis focuses on the evaluation of a development program directed at the trait emotional intelligence (EI) of employees in a government organisation in Namibia.

Chapter 1 focuses on the orientation of the study, the problem statement, justification for the study, as well as research objectives and methodology.

1.1. BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The global corporate setting changes swiftly as a result of technological, economic and political developments (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007). Due to these phenomena it has been noted that staff members in general experience a great increase in emotional strain. When assisting the employees of these companies to cope with their daily stressors and possible overstrain by increasing their emotional intelligence, the performance of the staff members improved (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Goleman, 1998a).

Goleman (1998a) clarifies general misconceptions about the meaning of emotional intelligence as follows: Firstly, emotional intelligence does not merely mean “being nice,” but rather confronting someone with an uncomfortable but consequential truth he has been avoiding. Secondly, emotional intelligence does not mean giving free reign to feelings. It means managing feelings so that they are expressed appropriately and effectively, enabling people to work together smoothly towards their common goal. Lastly, levels of emotional intelligence are not fixed genetically, nor does emotional intelligence develop only in early childhood.

Unlike IQ, which changes little after the teen years, emotional intelligence seems to be largely learned and continues to develop throughout life via one's experiences.

All emotional intelligence abilities involve specific skills in the affective domain, along with basic cognitive elements. This stands in sharp contrast to the purely cognitive aspects of intelligence, which, to a large degree, computers can be programmed to execute about as well as a person can (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

EI refers to the abilities to be aware of and regulate emotions in ourselves and in others. Cherniss and Goleman (2001) categorize emotional intelligence into four major domains: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. These four domains are shared by all the main variations of emotional intelligence theory, though the terms used to refer to them differ and overlap. The domains of self-awareness and self-management, for example, fall within what Gardner (1983) calls intrapersonal intelligence, whereas social awareness and relationship management fit within his definition of interpersonal intelligence. Bar-On (2000) draws a distinction between emotional intelligence and social intelligence, seeing emotional intelligence as personal self-management capabilities such as impulse control, and social intelligence as relationship skills.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) identified emotional intelligence as the capability to observe one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to differentiate among them, and to use this in turn to direct one's thinking and actions. The concept of emotional intelligence offers a language and framework capable of integrating a wide range of research findings in psychology. Beyond that, emotional intelligence offers a positive model for psychology. Like other positive models, it has implications for the ways one might tackle many of one's daily problems – for prevention

activities in physical and mental health care and for effective interventions in schools and communities, businesses, and organisations (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Two constructs of emotional intelligence should be distinguished based on the measurement method used in the operationalisation process, which are self-report measurement similar to personality questionnaires, and maximum-performance, as in IQ tests (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). *Trait* emotional intelligence (or “trait emotional self-efficacy”) concerns emotion-related dispositions and self-perceptions measured via self-report, whereas *ability* emotional intelligence (or “cognitive-emotional ability”) concerns emotion-related cognitive abilities that ought to be measured via maximum-performance tests. The former is measured through self-report questionnaires, whereas the latter ought to be measured through tests of maximum performance (Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001, 2003). This dissertation focuses on Trait emotional intelligence.

In the Trait Emotional Model used by Petrides and Furnham (2001), happiness is a facet of well-being (Freudenthaler, Neubauer, Gabler, & Scherl, 2008). Seeking higher levels of happiness, also referred to as “subjective well-being”, is an important goal for people in almost every nation (Diener, 2000). It can therefore be concluded that one of the effects of an increase in trait emotional intelligence is related to the feeling of happiness.

Reliable relationships have been established between trait emotional intelligence and criteria such as happiness (Chamorro-Premuzic, Bennett, & Furnham, 2007), goal orientation (Spence, Oades, & Caputi, 2004), effective decision-making (Sevdalis, Petrides, & Harvey, 2007), occupational stress (Mikolajczak, Menil, & Luminet, 2007), social network size (Austin, Saklofske, & Egan, 2005), peer-popularity (Mavroveli, Petrides, Rieffe, & Bakker, 2007)

managerial level (Van der Zee & Wabeke, 2004), and emotion regulation (Mikolajczak, Nelis, Hansenne & Quoidbach, in press). In addition, high trait emotional intelligence scores are positively related to peer-rated sociability in children (Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham, & Frederickson, 2006), fulfilling interpersonal relationships (Schutte et al. 2001), and job satisfaction in employed adults (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). High trait emotional intelligence individuals believe they can regulate their emotions to stave off depressogenic cognitions that may trigger disorders when combined with stressful life events (Clark & Beck, 1999). Trait emotional intelligence was related to the clinical variables (depression and dysfunctional attitudes) as well as to the personality and social variables (self-monitoring and aggression) (Petrides, Pe´rez-Gonza´lez, & Furnham, 2007).

Trait emotional intelligence is also shown to be related to measures of rumination, life satisfaction, depression, dysfunctional attitudes and coping (Petrides et al., 2007; Palmer, Donaldson, & Stough, 2002; Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003) and the fact that trait emotional intelligence has a role to play in personality, clinical, and social psychology, often with effects that are incremental over the basic dimensions of personality and mood (Petrides et al., 2007).

There is convincing evidence that psychological states do influence health in general (Seligman, 1998). Depression, grieving, pessimism all seem to have a negative effect on health in both the short run and long term (Seligman, 1998). An increase in emotional intelligence will thus contribute to minimising hospitalisation and increasing good health (Goleman, 2005). The Namibian market shows an economic growth forecast of about 2.5% dependent on the duration and depth of the slowdown in Europe, the US and China. The forecast was adjusted slightly downward to between 1 and 2% for 2009 when the scale of the economic downturn

became more apparent (Jones et al., 2009). The international market thus had a substantial impact on the local economy, causing companies to have an even greater focus on productivity within the market than had been experienced previously. Since emotional intelligence proved to increase the performance of staff members there should be great benefit in a program that is proven to increase the trait emotional intelligence (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Goleman, 1998a).

Worldwide performance indicators have become a central concern within the public sector during the previous few decades. They cause emotional strain on staff due to renewed management expectations. Traditionally, public sector organisations were regarded as uncreative and stagnant bodies, resulting in staff having to deal with high levels of negativity from the public sector. Managerial innovation and creativity are needed to transform public sectors to perform better and compete successfully with other organisations from the private sector (Eran & Shlomo, 2008). According to Mwenge (2009), Namibia's Public Service institutions fail to perform due to a lack of management of performance. Inge Murengi, former Deputy Director of the Efficiency Charter Unit (the department responsible for the implementation and monitoring of the Public Service Charter in the Office of the Prime Minister) mentioned that the attitude of the public servants is the greatest hindrance to high levels of service rendering. Her suggested solution was that employees should be exposed to training which would make them more responsive to the needs of people (Links, 2004). This would imply emotional intelligence training, since one of the elements of emotional intelligence is identifying and affecting emotions within the other person (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Intelligence quotient (IQ) is generally perceived as a more powerful predictor of an individual's career success than emotional intelligence (Goldman, 2002). In studies of large populations on the career course Goldman (2002) found that IQ sorts people before they embark on a career, determining which fields or professions they can enter. However, when studies look within a job or profession to assess which individuals rise to the top, and to which plateau, or fail, emotional intelligence proves to be a more powerful predictor of success than IQ (Goldman, 2002).

The relative significance of emotional competencies, compared to cognitive abilities, originated from several converging analyses using different data sets. In this regard, a competency study drawing on models from 188 companies revealed that strengths in purely emotional intelligence were virtually 90% more frequent in the stars than in the average performers (Goleman, 1998b).

Boyatzis's (1982) study involving over 2 000 supervisors, middle managers, and executives in 12 organisations confirmed that of the emotional competencies only two of the 16 abilities were setting the star performers apart from the average performers. A job-competency analysis at 286 organisations worldwide by Spencer and Spencer indicated that 18 of the 21 competencies in their generic model for distinguishing superior from average performers were emotional intelligence based (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001)

Employees are expected to take responsibility for their own careers. This often proves to be a great challenge to the person, due to the lack of information provided by their employers. It contributes to employees failing in their aim of crafting their own future and present

effectiveness resulting in frustration, bitterness and diminished loyalty towards the organization (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2007).

When job performance of the employee increases, effective awareness of emotions also increases. This, in combination with emotional intelligence, increases the efficiency of successfully coping with environmental demands and strain. This efficiency again underlies emotional intelligence as a combination of non-cognitive skills, abilities and competencies (Robbins et al., 2003). Emotional intelligence comprises the following dimensions: self-awareness, self-management, self-motivation, empathy and social skills (Robbins et al., 2003). Emotional intelligence is also defined as “the capacity to recognise our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions effectively in others and ourselves” (Goleman, 2005, p. 1).

In order to boost performance in the Namibian Public Service, the aim is to increase the EI of the staff contingent. This will consecutively result in an increase of self-management, which is a cornerstone of bridging the gap between low performance and productive service delivery. Rothmann and Cilliers (2007) indicated that research is needed in ways to increase talents, knowledge and skills that will contribute to an individual’s happiness and also to organisational performance, all of which fall within the spectrum of emotional intelligence. Goleman (1998a) found that top performing sales clerks are 12 times more productive than those at the bottom of the scale and 85% more productive than an average performer. About one-third of this difference is due to technical skills and cognitive ability, while two-thirds are due to emotional competence.

EI can be learned. For businesses of all kinds the fact that emotional competencies can be assessed and improved suggests another area in which performance – and therefore competitiveness – can be upgraded (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Within the larger debate, a key question often posed is ‘can an individual’s emotional intelligence be developed or is it an inherited or enduring trait?’ Within much of the literature relating to emotional intelligence there is a strong consensus that it is a developable trait or competency (Cooper, 1997; Goleman, 1996; Höpfl & Linstead, 1997; Martinez, 1997; Steiner, 1997).

Neuroscientists found that the brain circuitry of emotion exhibits a fair degree of plasticity, even in adulthood (Davidson, Jackson, & Kalin, 2000). These results demonstrated that emotional intelligence has a significantly positive role in many important aspects of human functioning such as sensitivity for others and one’s own emotions, emotional self-concept, coping with stress, maintaining positive mood, and openness (Taksic & Mohoric, 2006).

No formal and experimentally tested programs have been traced prior to this study within the Namibian Public Service. In order to improve service delivery there is a need to develop and implement programs aimed at increasing the trait emotional intelligence, and testing their effectiveness within the Namibian Public Service.

According to Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) there is evidence supporting the widely held belief that emotional intelligence is capable of being developed. In particular, it is hypothesised that the trait elements of emotional intelligence can be developed after relevant training action was borne out by the improvement of scores observed after training. This finding was also supported by other studies (Cherniss, Boyatzis, & Elias, in press; Reuben, Sapienza, & Zingales, 2009). It has been found that 75% of successful achievements are attributed to

emotional intelligence. Therefore increasing the level of emotional intelligence in employees would result in an increased level of success which, on a larger scale, will enhance the organization's ability to overcome challenges (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Therefore any program that would achieve this would impact the organisation through personal overcoming of challenges via higher trait emotional intelligence.

The Namibian Public Service has been accused of low levels of service rendering (Links, 2004). An increase in emotional intelligence has proved to benefit staff performance and therefore service rendering. A program proven to render this service should be a valuable asset to any organisation worldwide (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Goleman, 1998a).

1.3. RESEARCH QUESTION

Following the above one general research question can be formulated:

Will the emotional intelligence development program be effective in increasing the trait emotional intelligence of Namibian public servants?

1.4. JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

It is important to research the effectiveness of the newly developed Trait EI program developed in support of the public sector staff members for reasons following.

Firstly, it will provide a foundation for future developmental programs that would enable the public sector to become more effective (Links, 2004).

Secondly, researchers have found that globally individual performance is enhanced through such programs (Goleman, 1998b). A study of Namibian public servants would further confirm the reliability of the above statement being cross-cultural. This would justify the development of the individual for enhanced achievement, based on an international theoretical framework (Goldman, 2002). Overemphasised focus on the self is a westernized concept, which is enforced on staff members due to their work culture. African societies generally rely on a communal concept (Ubuntu). A conflict between overemphasised focus on self and community concept causes internal strain. Higher level of emotional intelligence will allow for better ability to deal with the internal conflict (Goleman, 1995).

Thirdly, it has been found internationally that an increase in EI positively correlates to decreased absenteeism (Petrides, Federickson, & Furnham, 2002). This has been found to be a challenge in the public sector, and any positive effect on this would prove beneficial (Links, 2004; Mietzner, 2012).

Fourthly, since an increase in emotional intelligence has been proven to benefit staff performance, positively affecting service rendering, a program proven to render this service would be a valuable asset to any organisation worldwide (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2008; Goleman, 1998a).

1.5. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The specific research objectives are as follows:

- To conceptualise trait emotional intelligence from the literature.
- To develop an emotional intelligence program that will consist of components which will positively affect the factors of the trait emotional intelligence structure.

- To assess the effectiveness of an emotional intelligence development program in the Namibian public service.
- To identify weaknesses within the program that should be addressed in order to make the program more effective.

1.6. METHODOLOGY

1.6.1. Research Design

A two-group design (experimental and control group) with a pre-, post- and post-post-test (see Table 1 below) was used. The experimental group underwent an intervention and was compared with a control group that only completed the intervention after the research was conducted. The post-test was administered directly after the completion of the program, while the post-post-test was administered to the experimental group three months after the completion of the program.

Table 1

The Research Design

Group	Pre-test	Intervention	Post-test
Experimental Group	Y1	Xa	Y2
Control Group	Y1	Xb	Y2

Illustrations:

Xa: Development program

Xb: No development program

1.6.2. Participants

A convenience sample ($n = 40$) was taken from the Ministry of Justice of the Republic of Namibia (consisting of a population of 983 staff members), from whom the researcher had received permission. Although the program was available to the complete staff compliment, the participants were selected from staff that indicated interest in participating in the program in the Northern offices of Eenhana, Ondangwa, Opuwo, Oshakati and Outapi.

1.6.3. Emotional Intelligence Development Program

Please note that within the thesis the terms intervention, wellness intervention, wellness program and development program were used interchangeably and do not refer to separate programs.

The program consisted of 4 interventions which were conducted individually with the identified individuals (experimental group) on the topics emotion control, communication, stress and procrastination. The same intervention was conducted with the control group after the post-test had been completed

1.6.4. Measuring Instrument

The *Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire – Short Form* (TEIQue-SF; Petrides & Furnham, 2006) was used to measure emotional intelligence in this study. The TEIQue-SF is a 30-item questionnaire designed to measure *global* trait emotional intelligence. Furthermore the

program evaluation form was also administered to the experimental group only as part of the post-post test.

1.6.5. Data Analysis

The analysis was carried out with the SPSS 17.0 program (SPSS, 2008). Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the results. A t-test was used to determine the significance of differences between the experimental and control groups. This indicates whether there are meaningful differences for changes in the experimental and control groups. The t-test was used to determine the significance of differences within the experimental and control groups, between the pre-, post-, and post-post-testing. Results were regarded as significant, if the p-values were smaller than 0.05. The p-values obtained (two-sided test) were divided by two to transform them to a one-sided test. This value was then multiplied by three (the Bonferroni correction) because of the use of a post-post-test. If the final p-values are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) the practical significance (d) for the results will be calculated (Cohen, 1988).

1.6.6. Research Ethics

Beneficence and non-maleficence were adhered to by ensuring that the staff members received a detailed explanation of the reason for the research and the benefits they could derive from the program, before any program was administered. There were even 2 participants that opted to withdraw from the program and were then consequently replaced by another willing staff members. To prevent discrimination against staff members in the control group, they were

offered the opportunity to complete the program at a later stage. Informed consent was granted by the Ministry of Justice, and likewise by the participants individually.

1.7 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

Trait Emotional Intelligence as a construct, and the models it derives from, are discussed in Chapter 2. Further explanation has been offered in terms of the components of emotional intelligence and its impact on success in the work domain. Chapter 3 includes the discussion of the research design. The intervention technique is discussed as well as the rationale behind the measuring instrument used, including the procedure of the program. The sample population is described. Chapter 4 focuses on the quantitative results and discussions thereof. Chapter 5 consists of the conclusion, limitations and future recommendations.

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter introduces the background and motivation for the study, statement of the problem, justification for the study and research objectives. The research methodology was introduced, including a discussion on the research design, participants, measuring instruments to be used, the procedure and anticipated data analyses. A brief overview was given of what can be expected in the following chapters.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter describes the models that led to the trait emotional intelligence and its theoretical background, including the elements (factors and facets) of trait emotional intelligence separately. Differences between trait emotional intelligence and ability emotional intelligence are clarified and described. Furthermore, the correlations between trait emotional intelligence and components of the giant three and big five models are portrayed. Finally, trait emotional intelligence proved to have a positive effect on the levels of psychological well-being and peer-rated social competence.

2.1. DEFINITION OF TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Trait emotional intelligence is formally defined as a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of the personality hierarchies (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). Trait emotional intelligence in essence concerns peoples' self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy (Petrides, 2009).

2.2. CLARIFICATION OF TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

2.2.1. Trait Emotional Intelligence Versus Ability Emotional Intelligence

In the rush to create measures of this emerging construct, researchers and theorists overlooked the fundamental difference between typical versus maximal performance (Ackerman &

Heggestad, 1997). Thus, while some researchers developed and used self-report questionnaires, others embarked on the development of maximum-performance tests of emotional intelligence. All, however, assumed they were operationalizing the same construct. Unsurprisingly, this led to conceptual confusion and numerous, seemingly conflicting, findings. In order to address misconceptions that caused the conflicting results and help organize the literature, Petrides and Furnham (2001) proposed a distinction between two emotional intelligence constructs: trait emotional intelligence (or trait emotional self-efficacy) and ability emotional intelligence (or cognitive-emotional ability). This differentiation is based on the type of measurement used in the operationalization process.

Trait emotional intelligence concerns behavioural dispositions and self-perceived abilities and is measured through self-report, whereas ability emotional intelligence concerns actual emotion-related abilities and must be measured through maximal-performance tests. Trait emotional intelligence should be investigated with reference to personality hierarchies, whilst ability emotional intelligence should be investigated with reference to cognitive ability hierarchies. It should be emphasized that trait emotional intelligence and ability emotional intelligence are two different constructs conceptually, methodologically and empirically. Research evidence has consistently supported this distinction by revealing low correlations between the two (O'Connor & Little, 2003; Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004).

Trait emotional intelligence is defined as a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions and dispositions at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). It is important to understand that this construct is not related to intelligence as traditionally defined in cognitive ability. The trait emotional intelligence framework aims to provide comprehensive coverage of personality facets relating to affect. A growing body of evidence supports the predictive validity of trait emotional intelligence in different areas, including

educational (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004), experimental (Austin, 2005) and organizational (Wong & Law, 2002) psychology. The discriminant and incremental validity of the construct has also been demonstrated in many different studies (Mikolajczak, Luminet, & Menil, 2006; Petrides, et al., 2007). Other correlates include goal orientation and reduced depressive symptomatology (Martinez-Pons, 1997), life satisfaction and loneliness (Palmer, et al., 2002), and depression and affect intensity (Dawda & Hart, 2000).

2.2.2. Trait Emotional Intelligence, Giant Three and the Big Five

Considering the five-factor model of personality, trait emotional intelligence measures have generally been found to have large significant correlations with Extraversion (E) and Neuroticism (N) (with positive and negative signs respectively) whilst smaller significant positive correlations with Openness (O), Agreeability (A) and Conscientiousness (C) have also been found (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

The factor location analyses conducted by Petrides, Pita, and Kokkinaki (2007) demonstrated that trait emotional intelligence is distinct because it could be isolated in personality space. It is compounded, because it is partially determined by several personality dimensions. It is a construct that lies at the lower levels of personality hierarchies, since the trait emotional intelligence factor is oblique, rather than orthogonal to the Giant Three and the Big Five. Such conclusion enables researchers to connect trait emotional self-efficacy conceptualization of emotional intelligence to the established differential psychology literature. This is of great significance, since the trait emotional intelligence theory is thereby shown to integrate the constructs with the mainstream models of personality. Moreover, this conceptualization appears to be consistent, not only with hierarchical but also with circumplex models of

personality. Thus De Raad (2005) located trait emotional intelligence within the Abridged Big Five circumplex and found that it comprises scattered aspects of the Big Five domain and correlates with at least four of the five basic traits – conclusions that are fully in line with the trait emotional intelligence theory.

2.2.3. Trait Emotional Intelligence and Psychological Well-being

Psychological well-being describes the state of having a sense of generally being highly satisfied with life, experiencing frequent positive emotions while experiencing only few negative emotions (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999; Goleman, 1998b, Schkade, & Sheldon, 2005).

In their model of happiness, Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) proposed that the individual's happiness set point, which is the genetically determined stable level of happiness, accounts for approximately 50% of the variance in individual differences in well-being. They also argue that happiness may be integral to mental and physical health.

Similarly, Mavroveli, Petrides, Rieffe and Bakker (2007) found that adolescents with high trait emotional intelligence seem to be less vulnerable to psychological disorders than their low trait emotional intelligence peers, who showed a significant finding of 28% that will have suffered an episode of major depressive disorder by the time they reach 19 years (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Martinez-Pons, 1997).

Mavroveli et al. (2007) also found that trait emotional intelligence affects the strategies individuals employ to cope with everyday problems. Their study showed that boys and girls

with high trait emotional intelligence have an advantage in terms of effective coping, which echoes robust findings that have been replicated cross-culturally on adults (Petrides, et al., 2007). The well-being component of trait emotional intelligence may be especially relevant in the adjustment process, since positive emotions are conducive to the development of those physical, intellectual and social resources necessary for successful coping (Frederickson, 1998).

Within the hierarchical structure of trait emotional intelligence, Petrides et al. (2007) placed happiness, self-esteem and optimism as facets of the factor well-being. This would also coincide with the study of Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) in which they postulated a connection to happiness and positive affect with the absence of negative affect.

2.2.4. Trait Emotional Intelligence and Peer-rated Social Competence

Mavroveli et al. (2007) found that trait emotional intelligence was positively associated with peer-rated social competence, particularly pro-social behaviour. This relationship stemmed largely from a positive correlation with nominations for being cooperative, suggesting that adolescents with high trait emotional intelligence possess and exhibit social skills that are readily detected by their peers. Petrides, Sangareau, Furnham, and Frederickson (2006) also found that there was a negative correlation between trait emotional intelligence and peer-rated aggression and peer-rated leadership.

The positive association of trait emotional intelligence with peer-rated social competence has both theoretical and practical implications. First, it seems clear that a person's trait emotional self-efficacy is related to their social skills, as perceived by others who know them. This is

another indication that trait emotional intelligence self-perceptions are, at least partially, accurate (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

Second, individuals with high trait emotional intelligence seem to be more likely to enjoy fulfilling personal relationships during a period when they are crucial to personal development (Pellegrini & Blatchford, 2000). Indeed, social status has consistently emerged as a predictor of internalized disorders (Merrell & Gimpel, 1998), whereas peer rejection, unpopularity and social withdrawal are typical causes of depression and isolated loneliness (Asher & Wheeler, 1985). Peer popularity and larger social networks are part of the mechanisms helping individuals with high trait emotional intelligence in experiencing lower levels of psychopathology, antisocial behaviour and delinquency (Austin, et al., 2005).

Depression co-occurs with persistent pain symptoms and poorer health in teenagers (De Matos, Barrett, Dadds, & Shortt, 2003). Mavroveli et al. (2007) found that trait emotional intelligence could act as a protective factor against psychological disorders, including psychosomatic complaints.

2.3. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODELS

Emotional intelligence can be traced as far back as Thorndike's (1920) social intelligence, and concerns the ability to understand and manage people as well as to act wisely within relationships. Its roots lie in Gardner's (1983) work on multiple intelligence and more specifically, his concepts of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. In the present context, however, the term first appeared in an unpublished dissertation by Payne (1986).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) followed by being the first to propose a systematic theoretical account of the construct. They did this by conceptualizing emotional intelligence in three main branches, namely appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion and utilization of emotion.

Underutilization of emotion consists of four more categories: flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention and motivation. Each of these categories encompasses one way in which emotions can be utilized (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The original model included variables that traditionally belong to areas outside intelligence, such as flexibility and motivation.

The model introduced by Goleman (1995) focuses on emotional intelligence (EI) as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines four main emotional intelligence constructs, namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Goleman, 1995).

Goleman (1995) included a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence that extended over a wider domain and encompassed many personality variables. His proposed emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman (1995) theorised that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) proposed a revised model that redefined emotional intelligence in cognitive-emotional terms; they listed four branches of Emotional Intelligence and offered a

detailed chart reflecting their thoughts. These branches consisted solely of abilities and were perception, appraisal and expression of emotion, emotional facilitation of thinking, understanding and analysing emotions; employing emotional knowledge and reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Bar-On (1997) defined emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Bar-On (1997) also posited that emotional intelligence develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy. Bar-On hypothesized that those individuals with higher than average emotional intelligence are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also noted that a deficiency in emotional intelligence can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Bar-On's (1997) model consisted of interpersonal areas, namely emotional self-awareness, self-regard, assertiveness, independence and self-actualization. The interpersonal area within Bar-On's (1997) emotional intelligence model comprised empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships, while the stress management consisted of stress tolerance and impulse control. Bar-On (1997) allocated reality-testing, flexibility and problem solving to adaptability in change management, while general mood was measured by optimism and happiness.

Goleman (1998b) proposed that the four broad dimensions of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, social-skills) are interdependent and, to some degree, hierarchical. The four dimensions identified were self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills. Nineteen emotional competencies were allocated to the

dimensions with self-awareness consisting of emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence, while self-management was given adaptability, keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check, conscientiousness and reliability, initiative and innovation and achievement drive (Goleman, 1998b). Empathy, service, organizational awareness and developing others were allocated to social awareness, while social skills received an allocation of the emotional competencies of leadership, influence, change catalyst, communication, conflict management, collaboration and building bonds and team capabilities (Goleman, 1998b).

Weisinger's (1998) emotional intelligence model delineated three competencies relating to the intrapersonal dimension and two competencies relating to the interpersonal dimension. Interpersonal dimensions of emotional intelligence included self-awareness, managing emotions and self-motivation, while intrapersonal dimensions of emotional intelligence consisted of effective communication skills and emotional coaching.

Schutte and Malouff (1999) suggested a different approach by offering five broad categories, namely accurately recognising and expressing one's own emotions, regulating one's emotions, using emotions to make good decisions and motivating oneself, understanding others' emotions and being able to influence others' emotions for one's own benefit.

Higgs and Dulewicz (1999) identified seven separate elements that were found to be good predictors of a person's emotional intelligence. The proposed elements were self-awareness, emotional resilience, motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, influence, intuitiveness and conscientiousness.

These are the models that lead up to the conceptualizing of the trait emotional intelligence model that Petrides and Furnham (2001) developed. This model represents the theory used to develop the measuring instrument TEIQue-SF which was used within the present study. The elements or factors and facets that were identified are firstly the factor well-being with its facets self-esteem, happiness and optimism. Secondly, they identified the factor emotionality and its facets emotion perception, emotion expression, relationship skills and empathy. Thirdly, the factor self-control and its facets emotion regulation, stress management, and impulsiveness. Fourthly, they suggested the factor sociability and its facets social competence, emotion management and assertiveness. Lastly, they also identified facets outside of the four factors, namely adaptability and self-motivation.

2.4. THE FACTORS AND FACETS OF TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Trait emotional intelligence consists of the following factors: well-being (self-esteem, happiness and optimism), emotionality (emotion perception, emotion expression, relationship skills and empathy), self-control (emotion regulation, stress management and impulsiveness) and sociability (social competence, emotion management and assertiveness) and also the facets that lie outside of the four factors, namely adaptability and self-motivation (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Trait emotional intelligence is a constellation of emotion-related, self-perceived abilities and dispositions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Individuals with high trait emotional intelligence scores believe that they are “in touch” with their emotions and that they can regulate them in a way that promotes well-being.

2.4.1. Well-being

This section of the chapter will look at the facets of the factor well-being, according to the model of Petrides and Furnham (2001), namely self-esteem, happiness and optimism.

2.4.1.1. Self-esteem

Self-esteem has been defined as a global feeling of self-worth or adequacy as a person, or generalized feelings of self-acceptance, goodness, and self-respect (Crocker & Major, 1989).

This global, personal judgment of worthiness is characterized as the evaluative component of the self (Campbell, 1990), and is separate from collective or racial self-esteem (Crocker & Major, 1989). According to Epstein (1973), people have a basic need for self-esteem and, at least in Western cultures, they use numerous strategies to maintain it (Diener & Diener, 1995). Self-esteem is formed early in the course of development, remains fairly constant over time, and is relatively immune to change (Campbell, 1990).

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs self-esteem is listed in the fourth level of needs called esteem, which humans inevitably move toward once they have gratified their basic needs, if the environmental conditions necessary for them to do so are created (Maslow, 1943). Self-esteem is therefore a higher level of need that is aspired to. Self-esteem has a strong relation to happiness (Diener & Diener, 1995).

Self-esteem is concerned with a person's own perception of his/her achievements, value and self-respect. Individuals with elevated self-esteem are confident, view themselves and their achievements positively, and are satisfied with most domains in their life. According to the

trait emotional intelligence model, low self-esteem is due to a challenge in one or more of the essential life areas as noted within the model (Petrides, 2009).

2.4.1.2. Happiness

Within the trait emotional intelligence model happiness is seen as an element of well-being (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Although happiness may have different meanings for different people, most agree that it is a word that refers to a pervasive and lasting sense that life is fulfilling, meaningful, and pleasant. To study this sometimes elusive construct, researchers have achieved a modest degree of agreement on how it should be measured and defined. One widely accepted definition for happiness is subjective well-being (Diener, Sandvik, & Pavot, 1991). Subjective well-being is a combination of an overall self-perceived satisfaction with the own life on the cognitive level, and the degree of positive or negative affect on the emotional level.

Seligman (2002), the advocate of positive psychology, theorised that happiness has three components, namely pleasure, meaning and engagement. He also uses the terms happiness and subjective and psychological well-being interchangeably. Seligman (2003) proposes happiness to refer to subjective judgments of how life is perceived by the individual. This is based on three domains: cognitive, positive, and negative affective experiences, in addition to the degree of satisfaction (Diener, Kesebir, & Lucas, 2008). According to Ryff and Singer (1998) happiness, or alternately psychological well-being, is a multi-dimensional process that involves intellectual, social, emotional, and physical health. The dimensions of above include having purpose in life, worthwhile connections with others, self-regard, and mastery. Seligman (2008) suggests that happiness results in various positive outcomes, including superior attention,

longevity, recovery from illnesses, and protecting people against the onset of diseases. In addition, happy people are more productive, have higher self-esteem, and are generally more satisfied with life (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998).

Researchers, including Lyubomirsky, Tkach and DiMatteo (2006) and Myers (2000), have attempted to answer the question about achievement of happiness. A great variety of theories have been proposed, in popular literature, to achieve happiness. Ryan and Deci (2001) suggested two avenues to genuine happiness, the first being the hedonic path. This path is characterised by the principle of pleasure opposed to pain or pleasure against displeasure (Ryan & Deci, 2001). A second path to genuine happiness is the eudaimonic path, which reverts to Aristotle's idea of an alternative to the crudeness of human beings merely chasing pleasure or desires, postulating that real happiness can only be found in "doing what is worth doing" or by conveying virtue (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

Peterson, Nansook and Seligman (2005) suggest three routes to happiness, namely pleasure, meaning and engagement. The pursuit of pleasure is often seen as the first route to happiness and is also called the hedonic path, similarly to Ryan and Deci (2001). According to Seligman, Parks and Steen (2004), increasing the pleasure will not increase happiness indefinitely. This is because people have a genetically determined set-point for pleasure which means that they will quickly adapt to pleasure and the utility of increased pleasure will decrease. The second route to happiness is by finding meaning in what you are doing. This was also suggested by Ryan and Deci (2001). The third route to happiness is engaging in a task, hobby or relationship (Seligman, 2003).

A person is engaged when he/she feels fully involved and enthusiastic about the action he/she performs (Macey & Schneider, 2008). Engaging in the present leads to gratification, rather than short-term pleasure. Engagement consists of three dimensions, namely a physical (vigour), emotional (dedication), and cognitive dimension (absorption) (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Happiness, optimism and self-esteem appear to be inextricably linked. In their daily experiences happy individuals tend to feel good about themselves, therefore see the positive possibilities; people who lack self-worth and self-respect are generally unhappy (Lyubomirsky, Schkade, & Sheldon, 2005; Lyubomirsky, Tkach, & DiMatteo, 2006). Empirical evidence supports this observation, revealing moderate to high correlations between measures of happiness, optimism and self-esteem (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Diener & Diener, 1995). Petrides (2009) combined happiness with self-esteem and optimism as the facets of the factor well-being.

Petrides (2009) describes the facet happiness as a state naturally reasserting itself. It is reflected in a continuum between content or cheerfulness and feeling blue and being overly negative about things. This facet concerns pleasant emotional states, primarily directed towards the present rather than the past (life satisfaction) or the future (optimism) (Petrides, 2009).

2.4.1.3. Optimism

Evidence suggests that optimism is beneficial for physical and psychological well-being. This is due to more favourable adjusting of attitude to life challenges, which results in swifter recovery, physically and mentally (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Scheier & Carver, 1992).

Optimists expect good outcomes; therefore they are likely to experience a more positive mix of feelings. Since pessimists expect bad outcomes, they should experience more negative feelings – anxiety, sadness, and despair. A good deal of research has found evidence of such emotional differences (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 2001).

Individual differences in optimism play an important role in the adjustment to stressful life events (Brissette, Scheier, & Carver, 2002). Greater optimism has been found to be associated with less mood disturbance in response to a variety of stressors, including adjustment to law school (Seegerstrom, Taylor, Kemeny, & Fahey, 1998), breast cancer and coronary bypass surgery (Carver et al., 1993) and exposure to SCUD missile attacks (Zeidner & Hammer, 1992).

When compared with pessimists, optimists are liked more (Carver, Kus, & Scheier, 1994), report longer friendships (Geers, Reilly, & Dember, 1998), have fewer negative social interactions (Lepore & Ituarte, 1999), possess greater levels of social support (Park & Folkman, 1997), and report greater increases in social support during stress (Dougall, Hyman, Hayward, Mc-Feeley, & Baum, 2001).

Whereas happiness looks at pleasant emotional states in the present, optimism measures the extent to which we view the future positively (Petrides, 2009). High scorers look on the bright side and expect positive things to happen in their lives. Low scorers are pessimistic and view things from a negative perspective. They are less likely to be able to identify and pursue new opportunities and tend to be risk-averse (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

2.4.2. Emotionality

This section of the chapter will look at the facets of the factor emotionality according to the model of Petrides and Furnham (2001), namely emotion perception, emotion expression, relationship skills and empathy.

2.4.2.1. Emotion Perception

Perceiving emotions includes skills related to identifying and differentiating emotions in oneself and others. The most basic aspects of this ability are identifying and differentiating emotions in one's own physical states, feelings and thoughts. At a more advanced level, this ability enables one to identify emotions in other people, designs or objects using cues such as sound, appearance, language and behaviour. The ability to discriminate between honest and false emotional expressions in others is considered an especially sophisticated perceiving ability (Rivers, Brackett, & Salovey, 2008).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) stated that emotional intelligence involves the capacity to carry out reasoning with regard to emotions, and the capacity of emotions to enhance reasoning. More specifically, emotional intelligence is said to involve the ability to perceive and accurately express emotion, to use emotion to facilitate thought, to understand emotions and to manage emotions for emotional growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

The emotional ability to perceive, use, understand and manage emotion, contributes to optimal social functioning (Savage, 2002). For example, accurately perceiving a person's emotions (type and intensity) facilitates the prediction and understanding of that person's subsequent

actions (Elfenbein, Marsh, & Ambady, 2002). Understanding the significance of emotional states regarding the persons in one's environment guides attention, decision making and behavioural responses (Damasio, 1994). All of the above start with the perception of the emotion within the other person.

Petrides (2009) defines emotion perception as a person's emotional literacy, i.e. how good one is at understanding one's own and other people's emotional feelings. Empathy is defined by how easy a person finds it to put him/herself into that person's situation. Emotion expression is a person's ability to make his or her emotions clearly understood. In contrast, emotion perception looks at how well one can read emotions in any situation. Research shows that the inability to recognise emotions coupled with a lack of sensitivity to social situations (which is measured in social awareness) can cause anti-social behaviour and avoidable disagreements (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). These can hinder organisational effectiveness and happiness in relationships, among other things. Emotion perception contributes to the smooth running of any group of people (Furnham, Petrides, Jackson, & Cotter, 2002).

This scale measures emotion perception in one's own self as well as in others. High scorers on this scale are clear about what they feel and able to decode other people's emotional expressions (Petrides, 2009).

2.4.2.2. Emotion Expression

Mayer and Salovey (1997) perceive emotion expression as one of the important components of emotional intelligence and therefore also emotional stability. Expressed emotions have important social functions and consequences (Keltner & Haidt, 2003), by which they may

influence not only the behaviour of those experiencing the emotion, but also the behaviour of others (Levenson, 1994). At the interpersonal level emotions convey information to others about an individual's feelings (Ekman, 1993), social intentions (Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2004), and orientation toward the relationship (Knutson, 1996). Further, emotional expressions may evoke reciprocal or complementary emotions in others that may in turn help individuals in responding adaptively to social events (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Finally, emotions can serve as positive or negative re-enforcers of other individuals' behaviour (Klinnert, Campos, Sorce, Emde, & Svejda, 1983). More specifically, positive emotions may encourage others to continue their course of action, whereas negative emotions may serve as a call for behavioural adjustment (Cacioppo & Gardner, 1999).

Petrides (2009) postulated that emotion expression measures how fluent a person is at communicating personal emotions to others. People express their emotions in many different ways: through facial expressions; through their posture and bodily actions; through written and spoken words. People can express their emotions deliberately to create a desired effect, or naturally without any pre-thought (Petrides, 2009).

Emotion is not a soft side-issue at work or outside it. It contributes to work culture, problem solving, motivation, trust and building effective teams. Being able to express how one feels can prevent misunderstandings in relationships (Furnham et al., 2002).

2.4.2.3. Relationship Skills

Bar-On (2000) distinguishes between emotional intelligence and social intelligence, seeing emotional intelligence as personal self-management capabilities such as impulse control and

social intelligence as relationship skills. This interpersonal sub-factor is defined by Bar-On (2000) as the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships and to relate well with others. Mutual satisfaction describes meaningful social interactions that are potentially rewarding and enjoyable for those involved. Being adept in interpersonal relationship skills is characterized by giving and receiving warmth and affection and conveying intimacy. This component of emotional-social intelligence is not only associated with the desirability of cultivating friendly relations with others, but with the ability to feel at ease and comfortable in such relationships and to possess positive expectations concerning social interaction. This social skill is based on sensitivity towards others, a desire to establish relations as well as to feel satisfied with relationships (Bar-On, 2000).

The ability to develop close and personal relationships makes up part of the five steps identified by Boyatzis and McKee (2005) as an integral part of a successful leader. Relationship skills are therefore part of our social satisfaction and success.

Petrides (2009) postulated that the relationship scale mainly concerns one's personal relationships, including close friends, partners and family. It is about starting and maintaining emotional bonds with others. Petrides (2009) sees people with a high relationship trait as usually having fulfilling personal relationships that positively affect their productivity and emotional well-being. They know how to listen and be responsive to the people close to them.

2.4.2.4. Empathy

Bar-On (2000) defines empathy as having the ability to understand other people. It is the ability to accurately hear and understand the unspoken or partly expressed thoughts, feelings and

concerns of others. It implies taking an active interest in other people's concerns. It may include cross-cultural sensitivity.

Petrides (2009) postulates that one exhibits empathy when one understands other people's viewpoints and their reasons for feeling and acting the way they do. High empathy would result in one taking the other person's motives and feelings into account when considering how to respond to them (Petrides, 2009).

2.4.3. Self-control

This section of the chapter will look at the facets of the factor self-control according to the model of Petrides and Furnham (2001), namely emotion regulation, stress management and impulsiveness.

2.4.3.1. Emotion Regulation

Mayer and Salovey (1990) found that a person is able to monitor, evaluate and regulate emotions. They postulated that some emotional reactions were automatic, while others presented an opportunity for manipulation. Choosing personal and contextual environments which individuals relate to has a regulating effect on emotions. Lastly, they also stated that the realization of control would negate the power that an emotion would have on the person. This ability therefore gives a person more control and effectively lessens the effect of the emotion.

Taking it even further, Mayer and Salovey (1995) proposed an emotion regulatory model that stated that persons should optimize their pleasures by forgoing short-term pleasures for long-

term ones, strive towards emotions that are both pro-individual and pro-social and be sensitive to the context. The combination of the above was believed to give a more holistic control of the emotions and would constitute a higher emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1995).

Petrides (2009) refers to emotion regulation as describing how a person controls his/her own feelings and internal states in the short, medium and long term. Emotion expression is another facet in this factor, which measures how one communicates one's feelings and emotions to other people. Petrides (2009) stated that the two areas will affect each other, since what a person feels and thinks may affect how he/she acts. Nevertheless, emotional regulation concentrates on internal states rather than their outward expression. Emotion regulation concentrates on such issues as one's ability to stay calm and focused even in upsetting situations. Negative thoughts and disruptive emotions get in the way of our concentration and affect our performance. However, perceived positive emotions can potentially be as disruptive as negative ones. For example, one may get too happy or excited to think straight: these feelings may cause one to jump to conclusions rather than take into account all the factors of a problem. Dwelling on the way emotions have affected us for too long may serve to make a problem worse rather than better (Petrides, 2009).

Persons with a high emotion regulation trait would be more able to recover after setbacks; they would be able to prolong pleasant moods through personal insight and effort. These individuals would also be more able to control anxiety and depression that are situation induced (Petrides, 2009).

2.4.3.2. Stress Management

Bar-On (1997) identified stress management as a meta-factor with the sub factors stress tolerance and impulse control. Stress tolerance is the ability to withstand and deal with difficult events and stressful situations without getting overwhelmed; this is achieved by actively and positively coping with stress. Impulse control is the ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive the temptation to act. It entails a capacity for accepting our aggressive impulses, being composed and controlling aggression, hostility and irresponsible behaviour (Bar-On, 1997).

Although stress has received a lot of attention, the stress management theme was not addressed in other well-known theories as part of emotional intelligence models until Petrides (2009) added it as a facet of the factor self-control. He postulated that a person with a high stress management trait would be able to handle pressure calmly and effectively since the person would have developed successful coping mechanisms. More often than not, they are good at regulating their emotions, which helps them tackle stress. These individuals confront situations that are potentially hectic, and deal with the associated tension. Stress management is therefore connected to the ability of handling pressure and stress (Petrides, 2009).

2.4.3.3. Impulsiveness

Bar-On (1997) theorised impulsiveness or impulse control to be part of the meta-factor stress management and defined it as the ability to resist or delay an impulse or drive that tempts one to act. It entails a capacity for accepting aggressive impulses, being composed in controlling aggression, hostility and irresponsible behaviour. Bar-On (1997) postulates that problems with

impulse control are manifested by low frustration tolerance, impulsiveness, anger control problems, abusiveness, loss of self-control and explosive and unpredictable behaviour.

In the same way, Petrides (2009) focussed more on measuring mainly dysfunctional ('unhealthy') rather than functional ('healthy') impulsivity. He postulated that low impulsivity involves thinking before acting and reflecting carefully before making decisions. High scorers on this scale weigh all the information before they make up their mind, without, however, being overly cautious. They would define someone with a low score as someone that would tend to be impetuous and to give in to their urges. Much like children, they would want immediate gratification and have low self-control. They often speak without having thought things through and they change their mind frequently (Petrides, 2009).

2.4.4. Sociability

This section of the chapter will look at the facets of the factor sociability according to the model of Petrides and Furnham (2001), namely social comprehension, emotion management and assertiveness.

2.4.4.1. Social Comprehension (Social Awareness)

Mayer and Salovey (1997) postulated that managing emotions would flow into social management and vice versa and therefore these would feed into social comprehension.

Cherniss and Goleman (2006) became more specific and stated that social comprehension, referred to by them as social awareness, is a competency that can be developed and which is

crucial for personal effectiveness. They linked excellence in customer service or conflict management to a high level of social awareness and relationship management. Cherniss and Goleman (2006) conceptualised that empathy makes up an integral part of social comprehension. Further, Cherniss and Goleman (2006) stated that persons cannot demonstrate the competencies of influence, communication, conflict management, and so forth, without a handle on social comprehension.

Petrides (2009) stated that persons with high levels of the social comprehension facet have excellent social skills and are socially sensitive, adaptable, and perceptive. These people are good at negotiating, brokering deals and influencing others. In addition, they tend to have control of their emotions and the manner in which they express them, which enables them to function confidently in diverse social contexts, such as parties or networking events. They would be able to craft comfort in unfamiliar settings, because they are sure about how to behave. They find it easy to express themselves clearly and have a large circle of acquaintances. They are known for their well-developed interpersonal skills (Petrides, 2009).

2.4.4.2. Emotion Management

Other than the generally accepted understanding of emotion management referring to own emotions, Petrides (2009), within this facet, referred to one's perceived ability to manage other people's emotional states. A person with a high trait score on the emotion management scale would be able to influence other people's feelings by calming them down, consoling them, motivating them etc. They would know how to make others feel better, when they need it. Low scorers can neither influence nor manage others' feelings. People's emotional outbursts would

not overwhelm a person with a high score in emotion management and they are more likely to enjoy socializing and networking (Petrides, 2009).

Bowlby (1982) made a classic observation of how 10-month-old infants appraise the affective expressions of others and modify their own actions on the basis of that appreciation. Hereby they showed that one can definitely have an effect on the emotions of others, even at a very young age.

Mackay, Soothill and Melia (1998) also found that stewardesses were able to have a definite effect on the emotions of the passengers in a plane through their behaviour, which is being controlled by the stewardess' thought processes and subsequent emotions. This would mirror the trait of being able to influence other people's feelings.

Lively (2000) introduced the concept of reciprocal emotion management and the role it plays in the reproduction of status inequality in the workplace. Ironically, he found that the pursuit of acceptance by marginalised staff by behaving in a perceived required way, which does not come naturally, tends to perpetuate their marginal or inferior status (Lively, 2000).

2.4.4.3. Assertiveness

Bar-On (1997) defines assertiveness as the ability to constructively express one's feelings and oneself in general. This is the ability to express feelings, beliefs and thoughts and to defend one's rights in a non-destructive manner. Within his model, assertive people are not overly controlled or shy, and they are able to outwardly express their feelings (often directly) without being aggressive or abusive (Bar-On, 1997).

Petrides (2009) refers to assertive persons as being forthright and frank. He states that they know how to ask for things, give and receive compliments, and confront others when necessary. They have leadership qualities and can stand up for their rights and beliefs. They don't tend to back down if they know they are right and have no difficulty saying 'no', when they feel they should. As a result they enjoy doing the things they do (Petrides, 2009).

2.4.5. Facets Outside the Four Factors

2.4.5.1. Adaptability

Bar-On (1997) relates adaptability primarily to change management, which is how persons cope with and adapt to personal and interpersonal change and to change in their immediate environment. It determines how successfully they are able to cope with daily demands by effectively dealing with and realizing problematic situations. People who have a high capacity for adaptability are typically flexible, realistic and effective in understanding problematic situations and competent at arriving at adequate solutions. These people can generally find positive ways of dealing with everyday difficulties. Success in this area means that a person can grasp problems and devise effective solutions, deal with and resolve various issues as they arise at home, with friends and in the workplace (Bar-On, 1997).

Petrides (2009) postulates that adaptable people are flexible in their approach to work and life. They are willing and able to adapt to new environments and conditions. In fact, they may even enjoy novelty and regular change.

2.4.5.2. Self-motivation

In the past there was more of a focus on the effect of reward and feedback on motivation. However, it has been found that these effects are mediated by psychological processes such as goals and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986; Locke & Latham, 2002). Locke and Latham's (2002) goal-setting theory and control theory focuses on the effects of conscious goals as motivators of task performance. Bandura (1997), on the other hand, highlighted the core concept of self-efficacy as being found to have powerful motivational effects on task performance.

Cherniss and Goleman (2006) postulate that the motivational aspect of self-regulation is the driving force moving us towards our goals. Goleman (1998b) stated that motivation would consist of an achievement drive which would be results and objectives-oriented standards. He also linked commitment to self-motivation elements. To these he added initiative and optimism as components that made up part of the self-motivation (Goleman, 1998b).

Petrides (2009) stated that people with high self-motivation are driven by a need to produce high-quality work. They tend to be determined and persevering. They do not need to be externally rewarded for their efforts because they have a strong sense of achievement and are motivated from within. They do not have to have incentives and encouragement in order to get things done. There is no need to be constantly rewarded in order to keep going and they are not likely to give up in the face of adversity. They also tend to have high levels of drive and persistence (Petrides, 2009).

2.5. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter is based on the literature review, and primarily introduces and interprets the theoretical background of trait emotional intelligence factors and facets. Furthermore, it clarifies the difference between trait emotional intelligence and ability emotional intelligence, and highlights the correlations between trait emotional intelligence and components of the giant three and big five models. Finally, trait emotional intelligence is shown to have a positive effect on the levels of psychological well-being and peer rated social competence.

CHAPTER 3

EMPIRICAL STUDY

The empirical study is discussed in this chapter. Firstly, the focus is on the general research approach and the procedures followed. Secondly, the intervention offered is discussed, highlighting its focus on the specific factors and facets of trait emotional intelligence. Thirdly, the characteristics of the participants are described. Fourthly, an explanation is given of the measuring instrument used in this study. Fifthly, the data analysis procedure is discussed.

3.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study utilised a true experimental design to gather data regarding the emotional intelligence of the sample group within the Ministry of Justice in Namibia and the experimental group completed a report that served as an evaluation of the training program.

As mentioned above, the participants in both the experimental and control group reported a score for the baseline trait emotional intelligence via completing the TEIQue-SF. After the completion of the training by the experimental group, the same questionnaire was filled in again to test for a hypothesised higher trait emotional intelligence within the experimental group.

The quantitative approach was used based on the premise to objectively first establish a statistical data-base of trait emotional intelligence of the sample group within the Ministry of Justice in Namibia and secondly to statistically assess the different levels of trait emotional intelligence within the sample group. Quantitative measures allowed for the collecting of large

amounts of data in a relatively short period of time, which can easily be analysed and computed for purposes of describing and assessing the current status, investigating relationships between variables as well as variables serving as causal and mediating factors. Quantitative measures provide the opportunity to convert raw data into numerical values, which are computed into sophisticated statistical analysis. This allows generalisation, protects against selective bias and the subjective interpretation of the researcher. A general disadvantage of the quantitative approach is that it does not allow for detailed descriptions or identifying influential variables as an exception to the rule, and it is not fit to study rare and unusual events (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007).

3.2. TRAIT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

The designed intervention consists of the following four, one-hour, one-on-one sessions:

3.2.1. Session 1: Thought & Emotion Control

During the first session the candidates were moved towards realizing that if one is experiencing unwanted feelings and behaviours, it is important to identify the thinking that is causing the feelings and behaviours and learn how to replace this thinking with thoughts that lead to more desirable reactions (Grandin & Barron, 2005).

In line with cognitive-behavioural therapy it was explained to the participants that it is one's thinking (beliefs and self-concepts) that causes one to feel and act the way one does (Ellis, 2003). There was also a strong emphasis on the self-fulfilling prophecy that Jussim and Harber (2005) mentioned it referred to the principle that any hypothesis one has created as an

expectation in one's mind decisively influenced one's future. To assist the participants in internalizing this statement a double story was used about a tourist to Namibia who had a negative concept of Namibians in the one story and a positive concept in the other. In the story, the tourist's thoughts were mentioned and the participants were asked for feelings. This was done within the story as well as at the end to illustrate the connection between feelings and thoughts and the resulting reality caused by it (McCracken & Turk, 2002). Story-telling has been proven to be more effective in transferring new and complex information (Rubin, 1995). The design of the story was structured in such a way that transfer from the story to the participant's reality was possible, much in the same way as Karl Duncker's "radiation problem" (Sternberg, 2006). In terms of creating awareness a practical story-telling lesson was prepared including particular questions for purposes of exploring the awareness levels of the participants. Participants were given an opportunity to note their awareness in the process.

In this way the participants were guided and given a structure to realize and then confront faulty thoughts and replace those (Grandin & Barron, 2005).

3.2.2. Session 2: Communication

Through teaching the participants a practical model and applying it in day to day situations the researcher trusted that the communication session would enable the participant to be more confident in dealing with conflict as soon as it appeared (Collins, 2007).

Bar-on (1989) identified one social factor that caused conflict as errors concerning the causes behind others' behaviour. The communication session started out by giving the participant a

tool to be able to identify, enquire about and acknowledge the cause of the behaviour which would satisfy the egocentric needs of the other person to have his/her situation recognized.

David Rock (2007) stated that by having a clear vision of and focussing on the facts of the behaviour or situation, the person that is being communicated to is freed up to have a more balanced picture of his behaviour and its cause. There will be a positive willingness on the part of the addressed person to change. Within the session practical teaching on communicating behaviour is given to the participants.

Because of a western world-view persons tend to be very ego-centric with an extreme focus on themselves (Jordan & Jordan, 1998). Bearing this in mind the participants were made aware that in their surroundings people might be unaware of the effect that their actions had on the people in their environment. When the participant grasped, via a practical example, an insight arised that caused a change in the person's thought pattern towards this, and therefore a change within the person (Divinyi, 1995).

The next step in the session was to highlight the importance of talking about feelings, combined with an in-depth discussion on the effect that un-forgiveness might have on this. The story in this regard used sexuality within the marriage and feelings that cannot be communicated due to un-forgiveness (Collins, 2007).

The session also created a focus on the benefits of communicating the outcome and in some cases possible effects that could result from non-compliance with the outcome requested. The researcher trusted that the communication session will enable the participant to be more confident in dealing with conflict as soon as it appears (Collins, 2007).

3.2.3. Session 3: Stress

Stress has also been defined by many researchers as a negatively perceived quality which, as a result of inadequate coping with sources of stress, has negative mental and physical health-related consequences (Cox, 1978; Cummings & Cooper, 1979). Bandura (1997) claimed that beliefs about control are key components of self-knowledge, which predicted positive outcomes regardless of the enactment of those beliefs through specific behaviours.

The stress session used storytelling to create inferences that could cause new insights resulting in the participants taking basic steps towards getting more focused on the root cause of the stress (Cox, 1978; Cummings & Cooper, 1979). By having a greater focus on the problem at hand, people were more able to solve the challenges they were facing (Harway, 2005).

3.2.4. Session 4: Procrastination and Increased Effectiveness in Life

Brian Tracy (2004) states that successful people continually put pressure on themselves to perform at high levels, while unsuccessful people have to be instructed and supervised and pressured by others.

In this session, the participants were given a model from Brian Tracy's book "Eat that Frog" and motivated to implement this practically in their lives. They were given a simile of three identical persons planning in three different ways which would either decrease or increase the amount of procrastination within that person's life (Tracy, 2004).

3.2.5. The Individual Impact of the Sessions as per Trait Emotional Intelligence Model

The intervention is theorised to have an impact on the trait emotional intelligence in the following way:

3.2.5.1. Wellbeing

Within wellbeing the factors self-esteem, happiness and optimism are all impacted in every session. Especially the first session impacted self-esteem and optimism, since it alerted the participants to natural thought patterns that would impact these areas negatively. Being more equipped in communicating, stress management and achieving personal goals quicker and more effectively through less procrastination empowered the participants' in general. This empowerment would therefore also impact the participants' whole spectrum of wellbeing.

3.2.5.2. Emotionality

Emotionality is mainly addressed within the communication session, which focusses greatly on the communication skills. With these skills in tact participants are more able to perceive emotions within others and react more appropriately. The increased effectiveness in perceiving emotions and communicating one's own emotions is bound to result in more empathy and thus increased relationship skills. Session 3 would impact emotion perception especially since the origin of one's own stress and the power of habits within this process were investigated. This personal insight would automatically result in greater insight into others.

3.2.5.3. Self-control

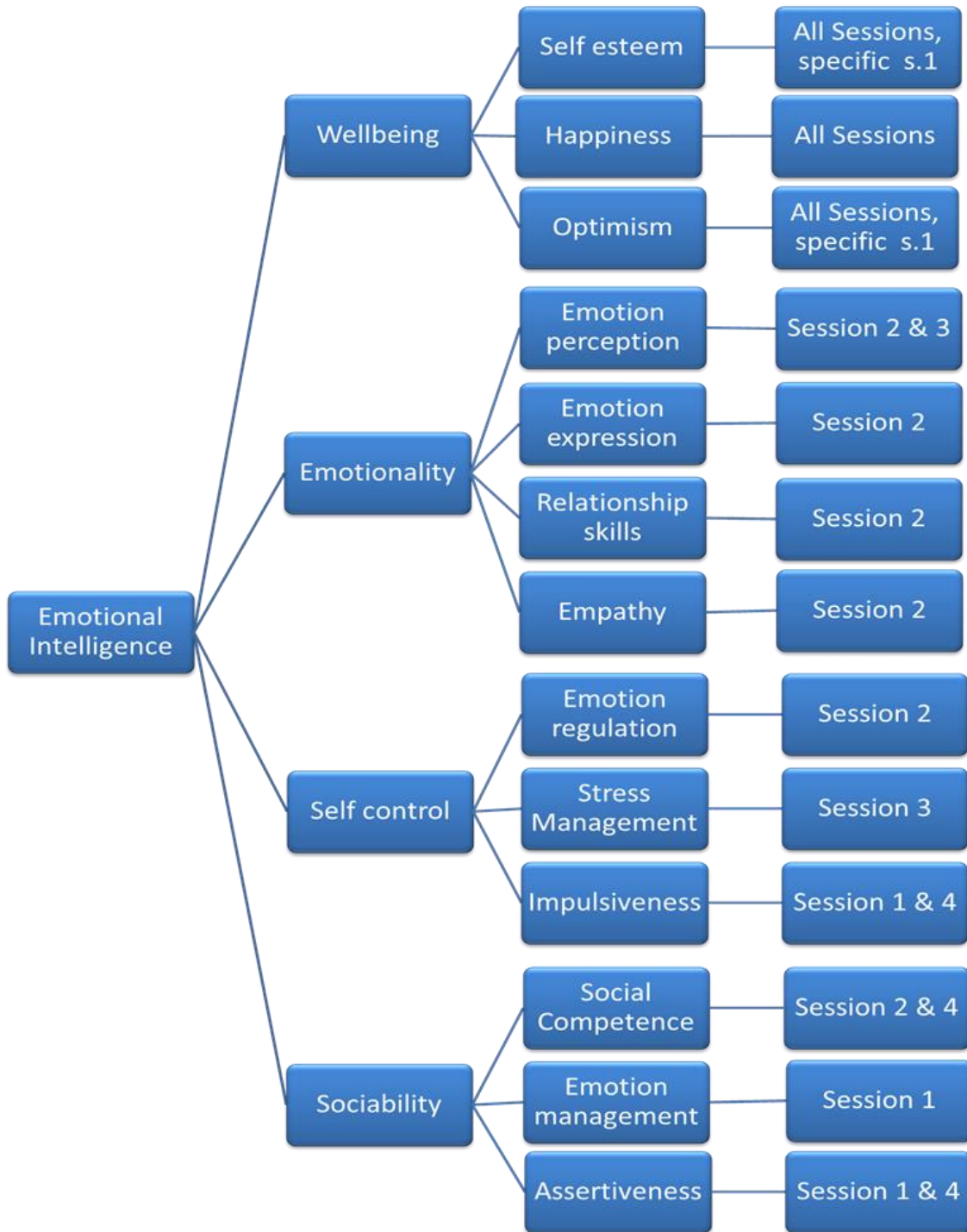
With a greater ability to understand and communicate one's emotions the emotions themselves are regulated more effectively. Session 3 had a main focus on stress management and therefore would impact that area as indicated. Interestingly impulsiveness is impacted by a clearer understanding of where emotions come from, which is gained from session 1 and planning more effectively towards their control, which was dealt with in session 4.

3.2.5.4. Sociability

Being socially competent would involve well-developed communication skills combined with personal effectiveness which was addressed in sessions 2 & 4. In session 1 the participants were shown the origin of their emotions. Due to this insight they were enabled to manage their emotions and deal with specific situations more assertively. Procrastination often is the foundation for ineffective preparation which has a direct impact on an individual's ability to be assertive in any given situation. Therefore session 1 & 4 impacted the participant's ability to function assertively.

Figure 1

Emotional Intelligence Hierarchical Structure



Hierarchical structure of trait EI as explained by the TEIQue combined with indication of which session would focus on a specific element

3.3. THE PARTICIPANTS

The population from which both groups were drawn was the staff of the Ministry of Justice of the Republic of Namibia. The population consisted of a total of 983 staff members. Although the program was available to the complete staff compliment, the participants were selected from staff that indicated interest in participating in the program in the Northern offices of Eenhana, Ondangwa, Opuwo, Oshakati and Outapi.

The experimental group of 20 participants was drawn on a voluntary basis from the staff members who requested to be part of the development program of the Ministry of Justice. The control group (also 20 participants) was drawn from staff members who also had requested to participate. The control group, however, only participated in the development program after the post-test had been completed by both groups. The control group was selected in such a manner that they would represent the same level of positions as represented by the experimental group. The groups both consisted of 1 senior manager, 3 middle management and 16 clerical positions.

In order to find a pre-intervention, post-intervention and a post-post-intervention result the questionnaires were administered before, after and 2 to 3 months after the interventions. The month needed to administer the post-post intervention questionnaire was due to logistical constraints pertaining to participant's availability.

3.4. MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

3.4.1. TEIQue-SF

The construct of trait emotional intelligence refers to a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). The conceptualization of emotional intelligence as a personality trait is in accordance with the subjective nature of emotional experience (Watson, 2000) and leads to a construct that lies wholly outside the categorization of human cognitive ability (Carroll, 1993). The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) is a self-report questionnaire that has been developed to cover the trait emotional intelligence sampling domain comprehensively (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Many questionnaires measuring emotional intelligence have been designed over the past few years, and it is important to mention three advantages of the TEIQue over those other questionnaires in order to justify why this questionnaire was decided on. Firstly, the TEIQue is based on a psychological theory that integrates the construct into mainstream models of differential psychology (Petrides, Perez-Gonzalez, & Furnham, 2007). In contrast, other measures are based on the misconception that intelligence or competencies can be measured through self-report items such as “I’m good at understanding the way other people feel.” Secondly, the TEIQue provides comprehensive coverage of the 15 facets of the trait emotional intelligence sampling domain. In contrast, other measures typically overlook a large part of this domain and often include irrelevant facets (Cooper & Petrides, 2010). Several independent studies have demonstrated the ability of the TEIQue to predict criteria (outcomes) significantly better than other questionnaires (Freudenthaler, Neubauer, Gabler, Scherl, & Rindermann, 2008; Gardner & Qualter, 2010). Thirdly, the full TEIQue has excellent psychometric properties. In contrast, most other self-report measures tend to have problems affecting their reliability, their factor structure, or both. A scientifically less relevant, but

practically important, advantage of all TEIQue forms and versions is that they are available to researchers free of charge (Petrides, 2009).

It is also worth mentioning that the TEIQue has been used in numerous studies in which the assessment of affective aspects of personality was required. These include research in the areas of neuroscience (Mikolajczak, Bodarwe, Laloyaux, Hansenne, & Nelis, 2010), relationship satisfaction (Smith, Heaven & Ciarrochi, 2008), psychopathology (Ali, Amorim & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009), addictions (Uva et al., 2010), reaction time (Austin, 2009), general health (Johnson, Batey, & Holdsworth, 2009), and behavioural genetics (Vernon, Villani, Schermer, & Petrides, 2008).

3.4.1.1. Background to the TEIQue-SF

The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire – Short Form (TEIQue-SF) was used to measure emotional intelligence in this study. The TEIQue-SF is a 30-item questionnaire which was designed to measure trait emotional intelligence. The TEIQue-SF is based on the longer form called the TEIQue (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Two items were selected from each of the 15 TEIQue subscales (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). The selection of the items was done based on the items correlations with the equivalent total subscale scores (Cooper et al., 2010). The above procedure was followed to ensure satisfactory internal consistencies and wide coverage of the sampling domain of the construct. A 7-point Likert scale was used to allow participants to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement (Cooper et al., 2010). The TEIQue's designed aim is to provide a comprehensive coverage of the trait emotional intelligence domain (Petrides & Furnham, 2006).

3.4.1.2. Cross-cultural Data

The TEIQue is developed as part of an international research program involving many academic collaborators across the world. An important singular arm of the research attempts to establish the cross cultural stability of the various findings was originally obtained in Britain. In a further attempt to prove its validity across cultures, data have been collected from 15 countries. Peer-reviewed publications that replicate the four-factor structure of the TEIQue have been published on the Greek (Petrides et.al. 2007), Belgian/French (Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy & Roy 2007), Croatian (Vernon, et.al. 2008) and German (Freudenhaler, Neubauer, Gabler, Scherl, & Rindermann, 2008) adaptations of the inventory. Other analyses have been carried out, but not yet formally reported, with Chinese, Spanish, Norwegian, Italian, Portuguese, Dutch, Turkish and Australian data. Although there may be cultural differences between these countries with respect to the way in which a trait is expressed, such cultural differences do not seem to affect the structure of traits in the individual (Mikolajczak et al., 2007).

Unfortunately there had not been any previous studies done in a SADC or African context to show the effectiveness of the TEIQue-SF in these cultures. As will be mentioned in chapter 5 the language used within the questionnaire proved difficult to understand for some participants.

3.4.1.3. Validity

Mikolajczak et al. (2007) found in a French-speaking population that there was evidence of convergent/discriminant validity with TEIQue scores being independent of nonverbal reasoning, but positively related to some personality dimensions (optimism, agreeableness,

openness, conscientiousness) as well as inversely related to others (alexithymia, neuroticism). Evidence was also found in their study on criterion validity with TEIQue scores predicting depression, anxiety and social support as well as future state affectivity and emotional reactivity in neutral and stressful situations. It was found that TEIQue scores were susceptible to socially desirable responding. However, TEIQue scores had incremental validity to predict emotional reactivity over and above social desirability, alexithymia, and the Five-factor model of personality. These results represent encouraging preliminary findings in favour of the use of the TEIQue.

3.4.1.4. Internal Consistency

Petrides and Furnham (2006) found that the TEIQue-SF's global trait emotional intelligence consisting of 15 sub-scales (Self-Esteem, Emotion Expression, Self-Motivation, Emotion Regulation, Happiness, Empathy, Social Competence, Impulsivity, Emotion Perception, Stress Management, Emotion Management, Optimism, Relationship Skills, Adaptability, Assertiveness) had an internal consistency of $\alpha = 0.90$ ($n = 1119$). The highest consistency was emotion expression (10 items) with $\alpha = 0.88$, and the lowest consistencies were found in empathy (9 items) and self-motivation (10 items) with $\alpha = 0.70$. This would indicate the instrument shows good psychometric properties at the item and global levels.

Petrides and Furnham (2006) also found that the TEIQue-SF showed corresponding internal consistencies for males and females at $\alpha = 0.89$ ($n = 455$) and $\alpha = 0.88$ ($n = 653$) respectively.

Following the above study, Cooper and Petrides (2010) conducted two separate studies that examined the psychometric properties of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire–Short

Form (TEIQue-SF) using item response theory (IRT). Within Study 1 ($n = 1\,119\,455$ men) they found that most items had good discrimination and also threshold parameters and high item information values. At the global level the TEIQue-SF showed very good precision across most of the latent trait range. Study 2 ($n = 866\,432$ men) used similar IRT techniques in a new sample based on the latest version of the TEIQue-SF (version 1.50). Results replicated Study 1, with the instrument showing good psychometric properties at the item and global level. Overall the 2 studies suggested that the TEIQue-SF can be recommended.

3.4.1.5. Interpreting the TEIQue-SF Scales

The scoring of the TEIQue-SF ranges from a maximum score of 210 points and a lowest possible score of 30. The average score is reported to be between 120 and 160 points (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

The TEIQue-SF is a broadly defined comprehensive measure that covers all facets of trait emotional intelligence as postulated by Petrides and Furnham's (2001) framework. The TEIQue-SF includes four compounded scales that encompass 15 subscales: (a) well-being: happiness, optimism and self-esteem; (b) self-control: emotion regulation, stress management and impulsiveness (low); (c) emotionality: emotion expression, empathy, emotion perception (self and others) and relationship skills; and (d) sociability: social competence, assertiveness and emotion management (others). Self-motivation and adaptability do not belong to any of the four factors. Below follows a detailed discussion of the factors and facets:

3.4.1.5.1. Well-being

High scores on this factor reflect a generalized sense of well-being, extending from past achievements to future expectations. Overall, individuals with high scores feel positive, happy and fulfilled. In contrast, individuals with low scores tend to have low self-regard and to be disappointed with their life as it is at present. Well-being consists of the elements self-esteem, happiness and optimism (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

3.4.1.5.1.1. Self-esteem

The self-esteem scale measures one's overall evaluation of oneself. High scorers have a positive view of themselves and their achievements. They are confident, positive and satisfied with most aspects of their life. Low scorers tend to lack self-respect and do not value themselves very highly. Low self-esteem scores are often the result of challenges in one or more of the other areas that the TEIQue assesses (Petrides, 2009; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

3.4.1.5.1.2. Happiness

This scale concerns pleasant emotional states, primarily directed towards the present rather than the past (life satisfaction) or the future (optimism). High scorers are cheerful and feel good about themselves. Low scorers often feel blue and can be overly negative about things. More generally, people with low scores on this scale tend to be disappointed with their life as it is at present. Along with *self-esteem* and *optimism* this scale reflects one's general psychological state at present (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

3.4.1.5.1.3. Optimism

Like *happiness* this scale is linked to well-being, albeit in a forward-looking way. High scorers look on the bright side and expect positive things to happen in their lives. Low scorers are pessimistic and view things from a negative perspective. They are less likely to be able to identify and pursue new opportunities and tend to be risk-averse. Along with *happiness* and *self-esteem* this scale reflects one's general psychological state at this point in time (Petrides, 2009).

3.4.1.5.2. Emotionality

Individuals with high scores for this factor believe they have a wide range of emotion-related skills. They can perceive and express emotions and use these abilities to develop and sustain close relationships with important others. Individuals with low scores for this factor find it difficult to recognize their internal emotional states and to express their feelings to others, which often leads to less rewarding personal relationships. Emotionality consists of the elements emotion perception, emotion expression, relationship skills and empathy (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

3.4.1.5.2.1. Emotion Perception

This scale measures emotion perception in one's own self as well as in others. High scorers on this scale are clear about what they feel and able to decode other people's emotional expressions. In contrast, people with low scores for the emotion perception scale are often

confused about how they feel and do not pay much attention to the emotional signals others send out (Petrides, 2009).

3.4.1.5.2.2. Emotion Expression

High scores on this scale mean people are fluent in communicating their emotions to others. They know what the best words are for expressing their feelings accurately and unambiguously. Low scores on this scale indicate a difficulty in communicating emotion-related thoughts, even in situations when this is necessary. People with low scores find it difficult to let others know how they feel. Inability to express emotion may be indicative of a more generalized problem of lack of self-confidence and social assertiveness (Petrides, 2009; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

3.4.1.5.2.3. Relationship Skills

This scale mainly concerns one's personal relationships, including close friends, partners and family. It is about starting and maintaining emotional bonds with others. High scorers usually have fulfilling personal relationships that positively affect their productivity and emotional well-being. They know how to listen and be responsive to the people close to them. Low scorers find it difficult to bond well with others and tend to undervalue their personal relationships. They often behave in ways that hurt those close to them (Smith, Heaven, & Ciarrochi, 2008).

3.4.1.5.2.4. Empathy

This scale measures the 'perspective-taking' aspect of empathy: seeing the world from someone else's point of view. In other words, it has to do with whether one can understand

other people's needs and desires. People with high scores on this scale tend to be skilful in conversations and negotiations, because they take into account the viewpoints of those they are dealing with. They can put themselves "in somebody else's shoes" and appreciate how things seem to them. Low scorers have difficulty adopting other people's perspectives. They tend to be opinionated and argumentative and may often seem self-centred (Petrides, 2009).

3.4.1.5.3. Self-control

High scorers have a healthy degree of control over their urges and desires. In addition to fending off impulses they are good at regulating external pressures and stress. They are neither repressed nor overly expressive. In contrast, low scorers are prone to impulsive behaviour and seem to be incapable of managing stress. Low self-control is associated with inflexibility. Self-control consists of the elements emotion regulation, stress management and impulsiveness (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

3.4.1.5.3.1. Emotion Regulation

This scale measures short-, medium- and long-term control of one's own feelings and emotional states. High scorers have control over their emotions and can change unpleasant moods or prolong pleasant moods through personal insight and effort. They are psychologically stable and they know how to pick themselves up after emotional setbacks. Low scorers are subject to emotional seizures and periods of prolonged anxiety or even depression. They find it difficult to deal with their feelings and are often moody and irritable (Mikolajczak, Petrides, & Hurry, 2009).

3.4.1.5.3.2. Stress Management

High scorers on this scale can handle pressure calmly and effectively, because they have developed successful coping mechanisms. More often than not they are good at regulating their emotions, which helps them tackle stress. Low scorers are less likely to have developed stress-coping strategies. They may prefer to altogether avoid situations that are potentially hectic, rather than deal with the associated tension. Their vulnerability to stress is problematic, as it leads them to reject important, but time-demanding projects (Petrides, 2009).

3.4.1.5.3.3. Impulsiveness

This scale measures mainly dysfunctional ('unhealthy'), rather than functional ('healthy') impulsivity. Low impulsivity involves thinking before acting and reflecting carefully before making decisions. High scorers on this scale weigh all the information before they make up their minds, without, however, being overly cautious. Low scorers tend to be impetuous and to give in to their urges. Much like children they want immediate gratification and have low self-control. They often speak without having thought things through and they change their minds frequently (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

3.4.1.5.4. Sociability

The sociability factor differs from the emotionality factor previously discussed in that it emphasises social relationships and social influence. The focus is on the individual as an agent in different social contexts rather than on personal relationships with family and close friends. Individuals with high scores on the sociability factor are better at social interaction. They

believe they have good listening skills and can communicate clearly and confidently with people from very diverse backgrounds. Those with low scores believe they are unable to affect others' emotions and are less likely to be good negotiators or networkers. They are unsure about what to do or say in social situations and, as a result, they often appear shy and reserved. Sociability consists of the elements social comprehension, emotion management and assertiveness (Mavroveli et al., 2007).

3.4.1.5.4.1. Social Comprehension

High scorers believe they have excellent social skills and are socially sensitive, adaptable and perceptive. They are good at negotiating, brokering deals, and influencing others. In addition they tend to have control over their emotions and the manner in which they express them, which enables them to function confidently in diverse social contexts, such as parties or networking events. Low scorers believe they have limited social skills and often feel anxious in unfamiliar settings because they are unsure about how to behave. They find it difficult to express themselves clearly and have a small circle of acquaintances. They are known for their limited interpersonal skills (Mavroveli et al., 2007; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

3.4.1.5.4.2. Emotion Management

This scale concerns one's perceived ability to manage other people's emotional states. High scorers on the emotion management scale can influence other people's feelings (e.g. calm them down, console them, motivate them). They know how to make others feel better when they need it. Low scorers can neither influence nor manage others' feelings. They become

overwhelmed when they have to deal with other people's emotional outbursts and are less likely to enjoy socializing and networking (Petrides, 2009).

3.4.1.5.4.3. Assertiveness

Individuals with high scores on this scale are forthright and frank. They know how to ask for things, give and receive compliments, and confront others when necessary. They have leadership qualities and can stand up for their rights and beliefs. Low scorers tend to back down even if they know they are right and have difficulty saying 'no' even when they feel they must. As a result, they often end up doing things they do not want to do. In most cases they prefer to be part of a team rather than to lead it (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

3.4.1.5.5. Facets Outside of the Four Factors

3.4.1.5.5.1. Adaptability

High scorers are flexible in their approach to work and life. They are willing and able to adapt to new environments and conditions – in fact they may even enjoy novelty and regular change. Low scorers are change-resistant and find it difficult to modify their work- and life-style. They are generally inflexible and have fixed ideas and views (Mavroveli et al., 2007).

3.4.1.5.5.2. Self-motivation

People with high scores on this scale are driven by a need to produce high-quality work. They tend to be determined and persevering. They do not need to be externally rewarded for their

efforts, because they have a strong sense of achievement and are motivated from within. Low scorers tend to need a lot of incentives and encouragement in order to get things done. They need constant reward to keep going, and they are more likely to give up in the face of adversity. They also tend to have reduced levels of drive and persistence (Petrides, 2009; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

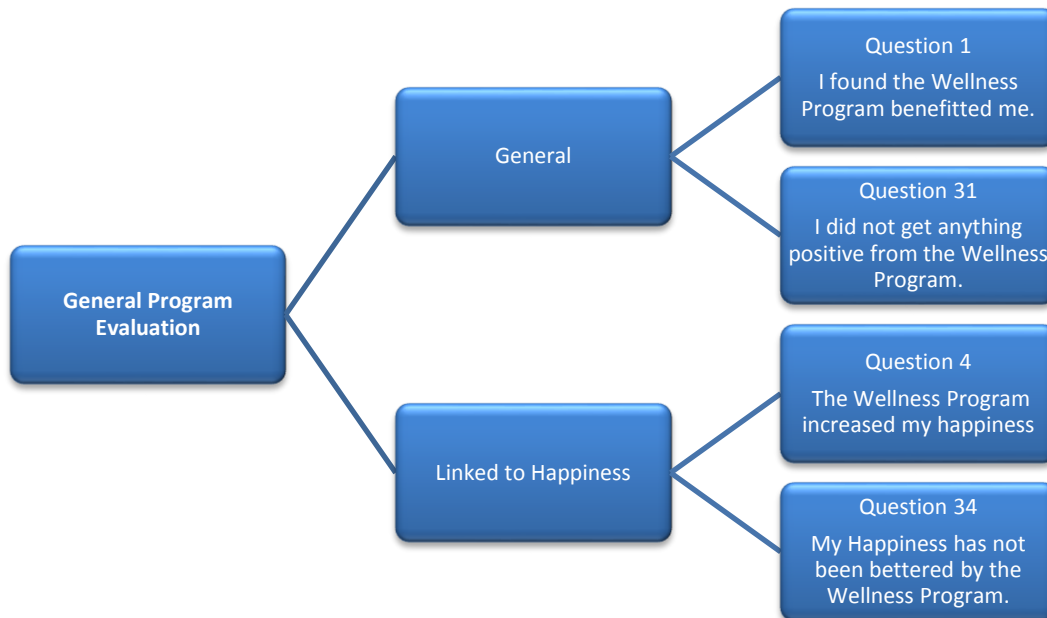
3.4.2. Program Evaluation Form

The *program evaluation form* was also administered to the experimental group only. The form consisted of the TEIQue-SF and additional program evaluation questions, aimed at gathering information on the participants' perceptions of the program's effectiveness. A sample of such a form can be found in Appendix C. The aim of the additional questions within the questionnaire will be discussed below in more detail.

As can be seen below in Figure 2, there are 4 questions that work back into the general evaluation of the program as experienced by the experimental group. These questions can be subdivided into 2 focus areas linking the program to personal perceived happiness and direct evaluation of the program.

Figure 2.

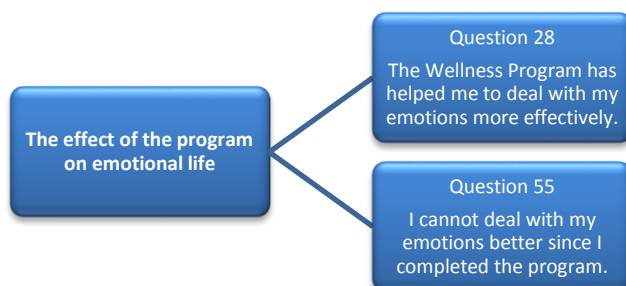
General Program Evaluation Questions



Secondly, it can be seen in Figure 3 that there are two questions that give an indication of the emotional control that participants perceived to have gained since the program.

Figure 3.

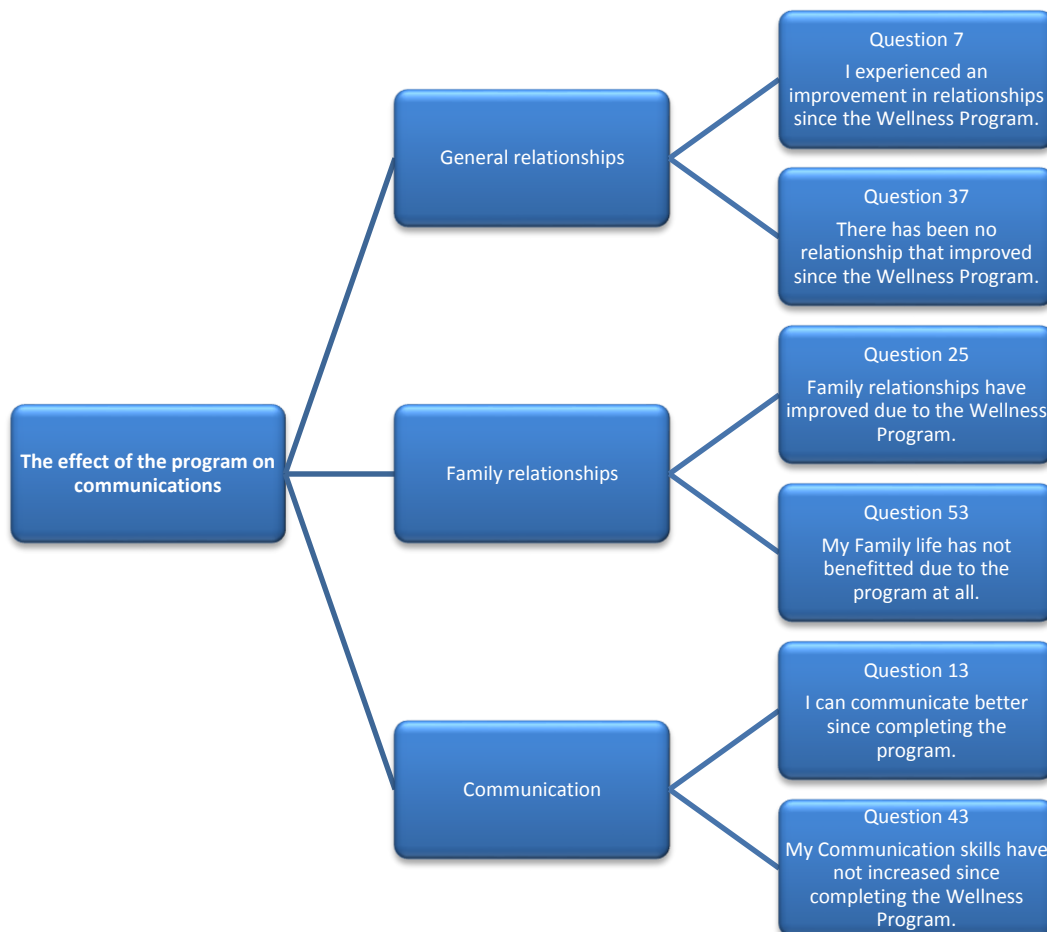
The Effect of the Emotional Intelligence Program on Emotional Control



Thirdly, as seen in Figure 4 below, there are 6 questions that work back into the evaluation of the program's perceived effectiveness in increasing the communication skills of participants. These questions can be subdivided into 2 groups which would be direct perceived communication skill increase and the perceived benefit in relationships. Increased communication skills have been shown to positively affect relationships (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). The relationship questions can again be divided into the perceived effect on general relationships and on family relationships.

Figure 4.

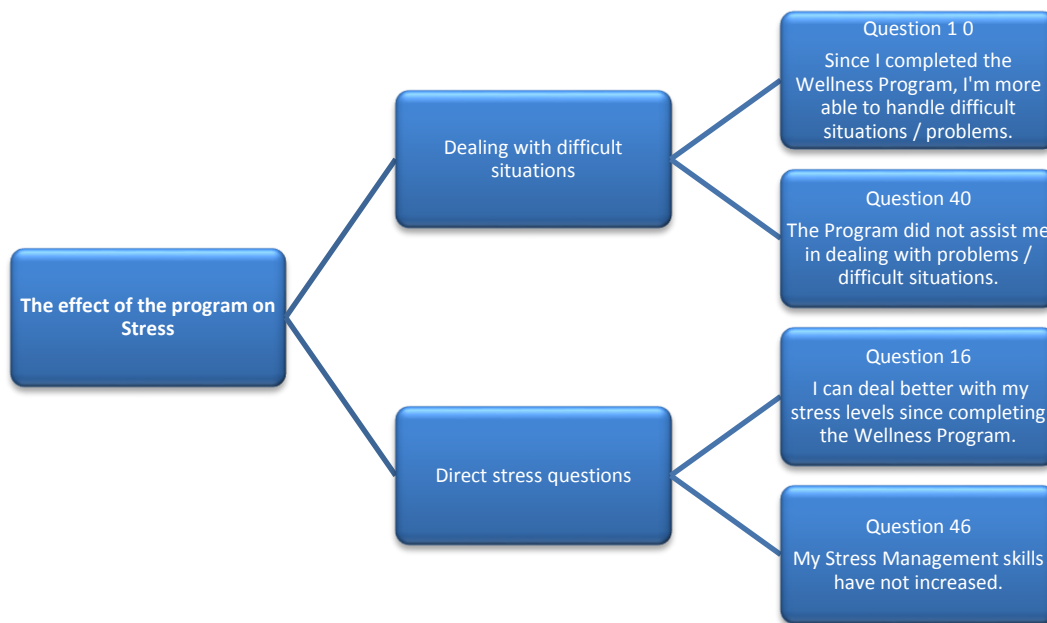
The Effect of the Emotional Intelligence Program on Communication



Fourthly, as can be seen in Figure 5 below, there are 4 questions that work back into the perceived effectiveness of the program in dealing with stress. These questions can be subdivided into 2 focus areas linking stress to the program's effect on personal perceived ability to deal with difficult situations, and direct evaluation of the program assisting the candidate in dealing with stress.

Figure 5.

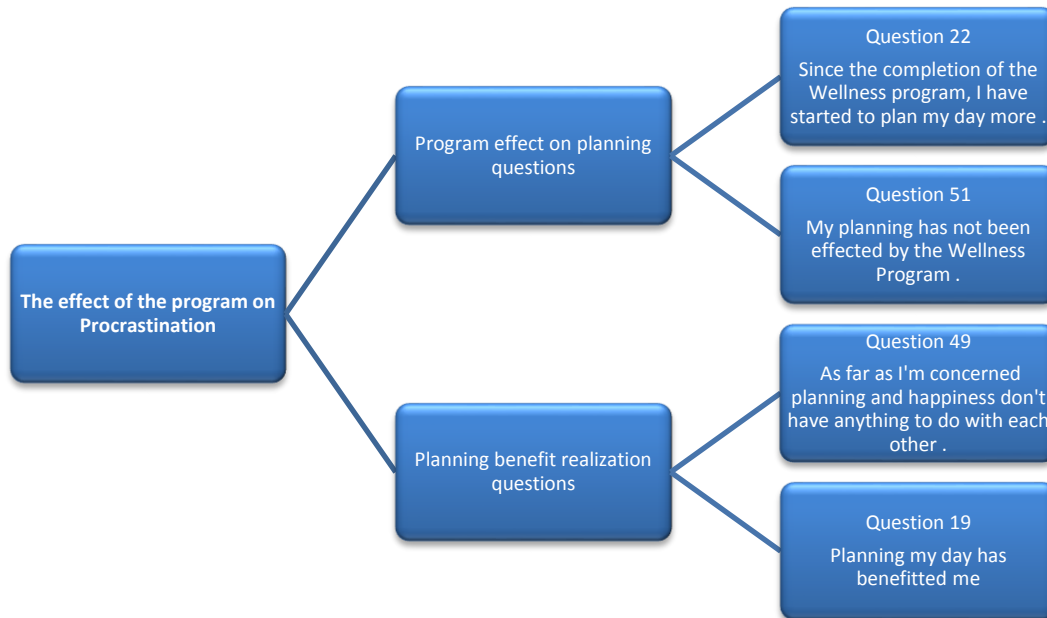
The Effect of the Emotional Intelligence Program on Stress Management



The final focus of the structured questions is the evaluation of the program's perceived effectiveness in dealing with procrastination. As can be seen in Figure 6 below, the questions can be divided into 2 focus areas, namely the evaluation of the perceived effect of the program on planning and the participants' realization of the benefits of planning.

Figure 6

The Effect of the Emotional Intelligence Program on Procrastination



3.5. RESEARCH PROCEDURE

The research program was initiated by receiving written consent from the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Justice (Appendix A) to use the testing in this thesis with the request that the Ministry would also be handed a copy of the completed thesis. This was followed by clarification if the participants (both experimental and group) would be prepared to be part of the group of staff that give feedback to evaluate the development program's effectiveness in increasing the trait emotional intelligence.

When the staff members of both groups agreed to join the group they were given the TEIQue-SF to complete as per sample in Appendix B. Upon completion, the first session of the development program was offered to the experimental group participants. The 3 other sessions

were then also worked through with the experimental group participants within a week of the first session. The control group at this point had not received any sessions.

Within a week from completion of the development program the experimental group members were requested to complete a TEIQue-SF that had been combined with a feedback questionnaire on the program used by the Ministry to get feedback on the program by the participants. The TEIQue-SF questions were disguised within the feedback questions to prevent duplication / memory of answers. The questionnaire as used can be seen in Appendix C. The control group completed the TEIQue-SF in the same format as the first questionnaire to gather information for a comparative report.

The staff members that were part of the experimental group were given the TEIQue-SF to complete. This data collection process was initiated after 2 months and was officially completed 3 months after the completion of the program (due to logistical reasons). The control group did not complete the third questionnaire since some of them had already started with the program sessions at that time. The decision to start the program with the control group before the 2 months was influenced by ethical considerations and requests from the ministry to continue with the roll out of the program.

3.6. DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis was carried out with the SPSS 17.0 program (SPSS, 2008). Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the results. The t-test was used to determine the significance of differences between the experimental and control groups. This indicates whether there are meaningful differences for changes in the experimental and control groups. The t-test was used to determine the significance of differences within the experimental and control groups, between the pre-, post-, and post-post-testing. Results were regarded as significant if the p-values were smaller than 0.05. The p-values obtained (two-sided test) were divided by two, to transform them to a one-sided test. This value was then multiplied by three (the Bonferroni correction) because of the use of a post-post-test. If the final p-values were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) the practical significance (d) for the results was calculated (Cohen, 1988).

3.7. HYPOTHESES

The research hypotheses guided this research by investigating the levels of trait emotional intelligence and predicting possible correlation, causal and mediating relationship between its level changes and the intervention received by the employees of the Ministry of Justice in Namibia. The literature study served as a basis to formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Due to the intervention training program received, the experimental group will have a greater increase in trait emotional intelligence than the control group over the same time span.

Hypothesis 2: The training program will result in a perceived increase of happiness.

Hypothesis 3: The training program will cause a higher level of perceived control over personal emotions.

Hypothesis 4: The training program will result in perceived improvement in general relationships.

Hypothesis 5: The training program will have a perceived improvement in family relationships.

Hypothesis 6: The training program will result in participants perceiving a higher ability in communication.

Hypothesis 7: The training program will result in greater perceived control of stressful situations and internally perceived stress.

Hypothesis 8: The training program will cause a perceived decrease in personal procrastination.

3.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the empirical study was discussed focusing on the research approach, procedure of data collection and characteristics of the participants. The measuring instrument, namely TEIQue-SF, has been described, the rationale of the development of the instrument has been mentioned and the procedure of administering, scoring and interpreting, reliability and validity

of the scale was provided. The data analysis procedures were given which will be used in this study, and finally, hypotheses have been formulated.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results found via the TEIQue-SF and the program evaluation feedback of the participants is discussed in this chapter. Thereafter the results are presented and discussed.

4.1 TEIQue-SF RESULTS

Next the quantitative results from the TEIQue-SF are reported. This is done for both the experimental and control group and also within the experimental group.

4.1.1. Comparison of the Experimental and Control Group before Intervention

In Table 2 the experimental group and the control group of 20 candidates are compared using *t*-tests for independent samples.

Table 2

Group Statistics

	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Trait Emotional Intelligence	EG	20	133.10	16.32
	CG	20	128.45	26.34

EG = experimental group CG = control group

In the comparison it was found that the means of the two groups were not statistically significant (see Table 2). The difference between the means was found to be only 4.65. This indicates that the groups started out fairly similar.

Next, the similarity was tested by a *t*-test for Equality of Means as indicated in Table 3.

Table 3

T-test for Equality of Means during the Pre-test

	<i>p</i>	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Trait Emotional Intelligence	0.51	4.65	6.93

In the *t*-test for Equality of Means the *p*-value reported is greater than 0.05 and would therefore show no significant difference between the groups used.

4.1.2. Comparison of the Experimental and Control Group after Intervention

In order to determine the effectiveness of the program in increasing the trait emotional intelligence within the experimental group the change within each group needs to be assessed and compared.

Table 4 shows the differences between the pre- and post-test for trait emotional intelligence for the experimental and control groups.

Table 4

Comparison of Change within Groups from Pre- to Post-test

	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean Difference	<i>SD</i>
Trait Emotional intelligence	EG	20	13.9500	22.07040
	CG	20	18.9500	23.65425

From the above statistics it can be seen that the change from pre- to post-test in the experimental group was significantly small at only 13.95 compared to that of the control group of 18.95, which is significantly higher than had been anticipated.

The reasoning offered for this phenomenon is that the experimental group had been given information and had been challenged on their concept of their personal effectiveness, i.e. trait emotional intelligence. The control group only received general information that would not challenge their self- concept. Therefore the control group candidates would find that in their own perception they would increase in the estimation of their own effectiveness. These findings would correspond with those of Bond and Manser (2009), which was that, after the intervention, students who had received an emotional intelligence intervention tended to score lower than the control group. Through interviews that were conducted the researchers found that the students who recieved the training gained more self-awareness. They learned so much about themselves during the course that it felt to them as if they had answered questions much more honestly and with more scrutiny on the post-test than they had done in the pre-test (Bond & Manser, 2009). Due to this phenomenon the control group would score higher than the

experimental group with a self-assessment questionnaire such as the TEIQue-SF, which was used in the assessment process.

Due to transference that would occur through the new way of communication which the experimental group would use the control group colleagues would feel more appreciated due to the openness that would be shown. This would leave them with a feeling of acknowledgement at the hand of the experimental group colleagues. Due to the positive focus on the self that this would cause, the control group would automatically regard their abilities higher.

For the control group there would also be the knowledge that they had not done the program and therefore some anxiety would probably exist within them, which could cause them to elevate their own personal abilities in order to deal with their social desirability deficit they would experience by increasing their own estimation. Ganster, Hennessey and Luthans (1983) identified three effects that social desirability could have on the outcome. One of these is that it acts as a moderator variable that conditions the relationship between two other variables which would also reflect in the increase between the pre- and post-test results with the control group.

It is therefore a basic human tendency to present oneself in the best possible light. Subconsciously the candidates in the control group would show themselves in a more desirable light for an ego defensive or impression management reason. This would be stronger in the control group than in the experimental group, since the control group would be conscious of the existing disadvantage on their part (Mikolajczak, et.al. 2007).

Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy and Roy (2007) in their study found in separate analyses checking for gender differences regarding social desirability that emotionality was related to social desirability among women but not among men, whereas sociability was related to social desirability among men but not among women. There are then reported elements within male and female participants that would cause social desirability effects.

Paulhus and Reid (1991) indicated that self-deception, often due to the above social desirability, which is regarded as unconscious and not deliberate, comprises two sub-factors: self-enhancement and self-denial. Self-enhancement refers to the extent to which individuals inadvertently exaggerate their desirable qualities. Self-denial refers to the degree to which individuals inadvertently conceal or minimize undesirable qualities. Both of these factors were possibly playing a part in the control group. Due to the lack of training the control group would experience a deficit and would therefore be even more inclined to react within the unconscious control of social desirability.

To the experimental group, however, it was explained that the improvement of the program is the aim of the evaluation, and their self-critical scoring would assist in this regard. Social desirability would therefore not have the same influence as with the control group.

4.1.3. Differences between Measurements within Groups

Table 5 shows the changes within the experimental group between the Pre- and Post-test measurement occasions.

Table 5

Changes within the Experimental and Control Groups between the Pre- and Post-test

	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
Differences					
EG: Pre-and post-test	-13.95	22.07	-2.83	0.01*	0.63+
EG: Pre-and post-post-test	-18.55	18.28	-4.54	0.00	1.01++
EG: Post-and post-post-test	-4.60	11.14	-1.85	0.08	-
CG: Pre-and post-test	-18.95	23.65	-3.583	0.00	0.80++

EG = experimental group CG = control group

* $p < 0.01$

+ $d > 0.50$ (practically significant, medium effect)

++ $d > 0.80$ (practically significant, large effect)

The results in Table 5 show statistically significant increases in trait emotional intelligence between the pre- and post-test and the pre- and post-post-test of the experimental group. A statistically significant increase in emotional intelligence between the pre- and post-test of the group is also evident.

Within above statistics it is evident that the varying of scores from the mean score steadily decreased as can be seen with the *SD* steadily becoming lower as the comparisons are made from 22.07 for the pre- to post-test compared to the *SD* of 11.14 of the post- to post-post-test. This would indicate that there is a more unified standard found with a similar skill set giving the participants a basis for scoring themselves closer to the general perception of skill.

Due to the *SD*'s downward trend it can be deduced that the difference between the candidates in the experimental group has decreased in terms of growth. This would indicate that there were discrepancies within the pre- and post-tests between candidates where some showed great perceived increase in trait EI, while others showed no increase or even a decrease due to the greater insight into their personal shortcomings (Bond & Manser, 2009). The lower differences indicated by the *SD* within the experimental group's post- to post-post-test comparison suggest that the basis has been laid and that more stable growth is possible from a stable basis.

The change from the pre- to post-post-test compared to the pre- to post-test indicates that the experimental group showed a greater increase after three months.

It is very encouraging to note that the experimental group had shown a significantly higher increase in the post-post-test, which would indicate that the candidates were able to apply the information. Due to this, we could speculate that the small increase shortly after the training only indicates a higher consciousness of their weaknesses. It is possible that this consciousness, however, caused a realistic picture of the self that initiated growth.

With the application and understanding of the power of habits and how to change them the researcher is confident that the candidates would be able to take the information gained on the

emotional intelligence building blocks and make it part of their future behaviour and life attitude. Therefore the growth would theoretically continue into the future due to the newly formed and hardwired habits (Rock, 2007).

The ideal would be to retest the control and experimental groups after 6 and 12 months to see what the growth would be and then to prove the hardwiring effect advocated in neuroscience (Rock, 2007). This would unfortunately not be effective, since the control group was given the opportunity to also receive the training after the completion of the program for purposes of the thesis. This was done to prevent any ethical complications that might occur.

Since the *SD* within the experimental group in the pre- to post-test (*SD* 22.07) and especially in the pre to post-post-test (*SD* 18.28) is lower than the *SD* of the control group in the pre- to post-test (*SD* 23.65) there would be an assumption that there were greater differences in how the participants scored themselves in the control group. This is reflected in Table 5 where it is plain that although the means would indicate greater growth within the control group, the *SD* would show that psychological factors played a role in the result found within the control group (Bond & Manser, 2009).

It was opted to take the most common $p < 0.01$ as the cut-off line for alpha level of significance and found that the change between the pre- and post-post-test and the pre- and post-post-test of the experimental group was significant. This shows that there is an effect over a longer time period, which agrees with the above notion that the candidates in the experimental group have found ways of appropriating the information causing them to have even more of an increase in their trait emotional intelligence. This would show that the growth should increase even more, since it would be created by the habits that would be hardwired through continuous application

leading to resulted significant increased change at the point of the post-post-test which was conducted at least 2 months after the completion of the program (Rock, 2007).

Over and above the theoretical significance (p value) a practical significance was calculated by using the following calculation:

$$d = M \text{ Change} / SD \text{ Change}$$

Within the above calculation the following would guide the understanding of the results.

+ $d > 0.50$ practically significant (medium effect)

++ $d > 0.80$ practically significant (large effect)

The calculations show that the candidates as a group showed that there was a large effect as per the practical significance calculated between the pre- and post-post-tests. In this calculation it was also found that there was a medium effect between the pre- and post-test, indicating immediate results among the candidates on a practical level after the intervention had just been completed.

Showing that the effect of the program is practically significant in life correlates with the individual feedback which was received in the qualitative information gathered which indicated that the program was very effective in creating perceived positive results in the lives of candidates.

The control group has, however, also shown a practically significant large effect when the scores of the pre- and post-tests were compared, which weakens the impact of the above-mentioned results.

It can also be seen in the table that the control group showed a statistically significant increase in their trait EI which resulted in the difference between the two groups not being significant as will be seen in the table below.

Table 6 shows the differences between the pre- and post-test of emotional intelligence of the experimental and control groups.

Table 6

Changes between pre- and post-test results within the Experimental and Control Groups

Test	Group	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	<i>d</i>
Pre- and post-test	EG	13.9500	22.07040	-0.69	-
	CG	18.9500	23.65425		

EG = experimental group CG = control group

The results in Table 6 show that no statistically significant difference was found when comparing the experimental group and the control group considering the mean difference between the pre- and post-test of trait emotional intelligence. Within this direct comparison there is also no mentionable difference between the *SDs* of the two groups making the attempt to conclude that extreme scores might have had an influence difficult to prove. It is noteworthy though that the *SD* of the pre- to post-post and post- to post-post-test comparisons do bring a different perspective when compared to the *SDs* reported in Table 6.

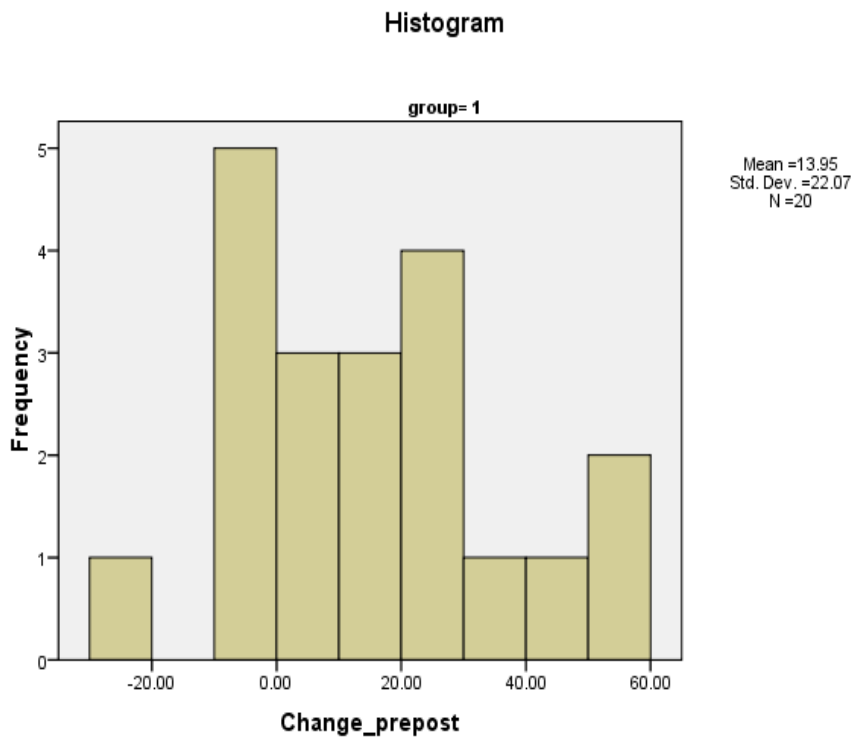
Due to the control group also showing an increased trait emotional intelligence the significant changes within the experimental group have no power to indicate that the program is significantly effective in its aim to increase the trait emotional intelligence of persons.

4.1.4. Evaluation of Individual Growth Perceived within the Experimental and Control Groups

In Figure 7 the histogram of the experimental group below indicates the individual growth perceived. One frequency point is allocated to each individual increase or decrease in growth experienced.

Figure 7

Histogram Experimental Group

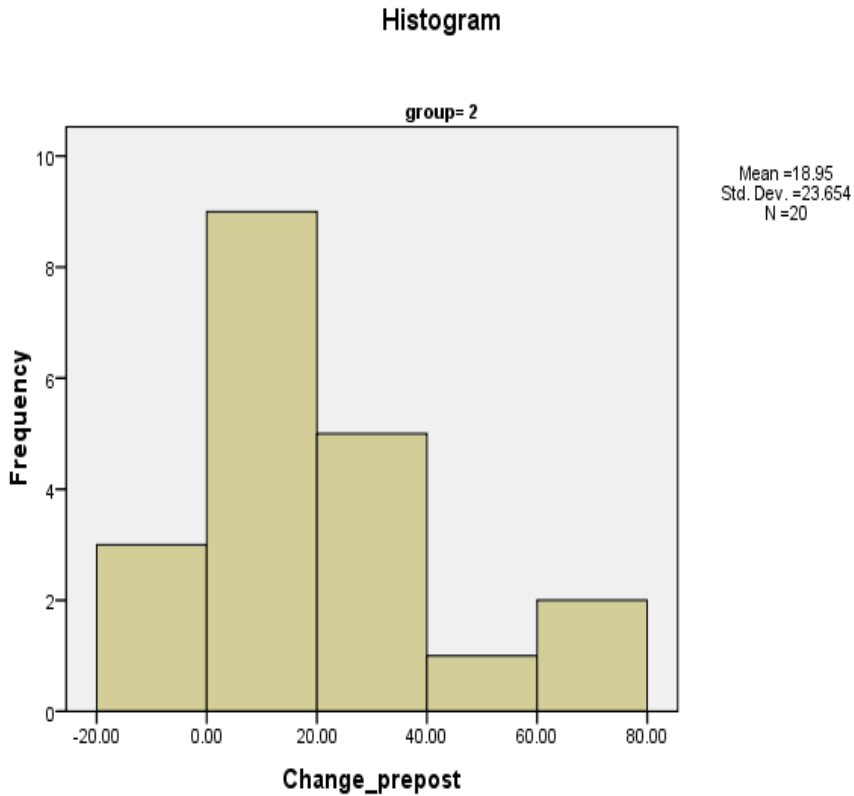


The histogram above shows that there was a specific candidate who had a negative growth which would have an effect on the total group. Seventy five percent of the group is found between a zero and thirty-point growth. Twenty percent is found between a forty and sixty-point growth.

Due to the above information it was decided to investigate the growth reported within the control group to establish whether similar findings would also be reported. The results are displayed in the histogram below.

In Figure 8 the histogram indicates the individual growth perceived by the control group's members. One frequency point is allocated to each individual increase or decrease in growth experienced.

Figure 8

Histogram Control Group

In comparison with the previous histogram this histogram, which refers to the control group, indicates that 85% of the points of growth were found between a zero and forty-point growth. The rest of the growth here would be found on much higher levels which could also serve to strengthen the consideration of social desirability having an overt effect on the score (Fisher, 1993).

Before each questionnaire was completed by the experimental group it was explained to the candidates that they should be completely honest, since the intention was to get feedback in order to improve the program and therefore a real representation was necessary. As mentioned before, this would have the opposite effect than social desirability.

In order to clarify this even more the highest and lowest scores of the two groups were compared in the following table.

Table 7

Comparison of Top and Bottom 5 Candidates Regarding the Pre- and Post-test Differences within Both Groups

		Experimental Group		Control Group		Difference between Groups	
		Case Number	Value	Case Number	Value		
Change_prepost	Highest	1	2	58.00	37	74.00	16
		2	13	58.00	36	64.00	6
		3	7	42.00	22	54.00	12
		4	16	39.00	27	34.00	(5)
		5	4	23.00	23	31.00	8
	Lowest	1	20	-24.00	38	-17.00	7
		2	11	-9.00	35	-6.00	3
		3	5	-7.00	33	-6.00	1
		4	12	-5.00	26	.00	5
		5	1	-5.00	34	1.00 ^a	6

From above table it can be seen that the control group's highest 5 participants scored themselves 37 points higher than the experimental group. While the lowest 5 of the control

group scored 22 points higher than the lowest 5 within the experimental group. These findings could point to the social desirability impact referred to earlier.

4.2. Program Evaluation Questionnaire Results

As per Appendix C the candidates of the experimental group were presented with a questionnaire that had structured program evaluation questions in it to mask the TEIQue-SF questions in order for the candidates to be less able to recognise the original questions.

As mentioned above before each questionnaire was completed by the experimental group it was explained to the candidates that they should be completely honest since the intention was to get feedback in order to improve the program and therefore a real representation was necessary.

The questions were rated on a 7-point-Likert-type scale. The candidates were required to rate each question while guided by the format below.

- 1 – Completely disagree
- 2 – Strongly disagree
- 3 – Disagree
- 4 – Uncertain
- 5 – Agree
- 6 – Strongly Agree
- 7 – Completely Agree

Table 7 explains the key used to make the total score more understandable to the reader of the document.

Table 8

Wellness Program Evaluation Scale

Rating description	Number
Low	2 & below
Below Average	3
Average	4
Above Average	5
High	6 & above

The questions used were grouped in the following categories:

4.2.1. General Program Evaluation

Table 8 reports the results of the questions focussing on the general evaluation of the program's effectiveness.

Table 9

General Program Evaluation Questions

#	Question Description	Mean	SD	Highest score	Frequency of Highest Score	Lowest score	Frequency of Highest Score
1	I found that the Wellness Program benefitted me.	5.8	1.64	7	50%	1	5%
31*	I did not get anything positive from the Wellness Program.	5.85	1.53	7	45%	2	10%
4	The Wellness Program increased my happiness.	5.9	1.03	7	35%	4	10%
34*	My Happiness has not been bettered by the Wellness Program.	5.55	1.59	7	40%	2	5%

* Reverse scored questions

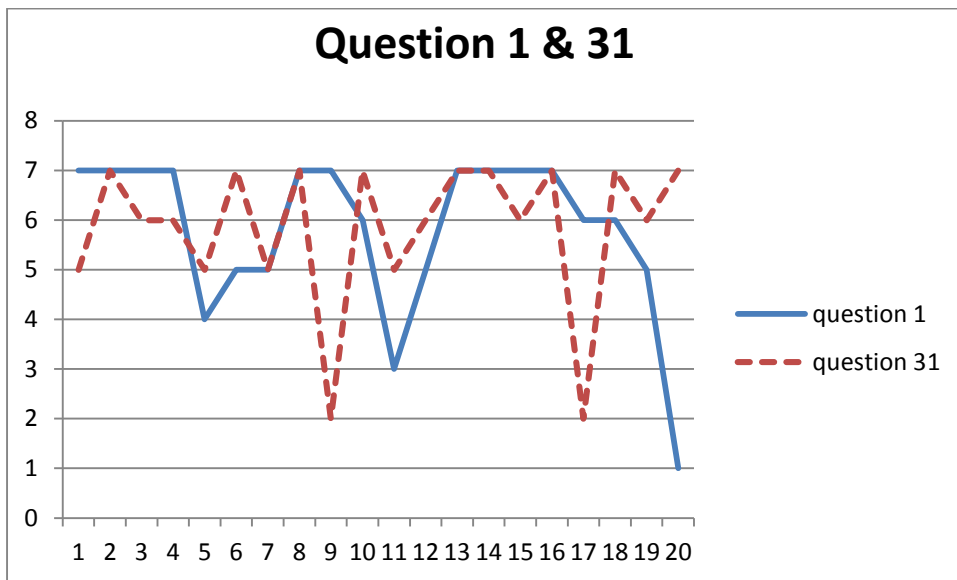
As can be seen above there is a high frequency found in the highest possible scores, which would indicate the confidence of the participants in the effectiveness of the program. Question 4, which links the effectiveness in a direct question to the ability of the program to increase happiness, had a low *SD* of 1.03. This indicates that there was unity in the participants' experience of the program's positive effect which is apparent in the mean score of 5.9 allocated to it, showing that its effect was perceived to be high. These scores were allocated to the

program two months after completion of the program, which would again indicate hardwiring of habits (Rock, 2007).

Figure 9 shows the scores plotted on question 1 and question 31 regarding program benefit in graph form.

Figure 9

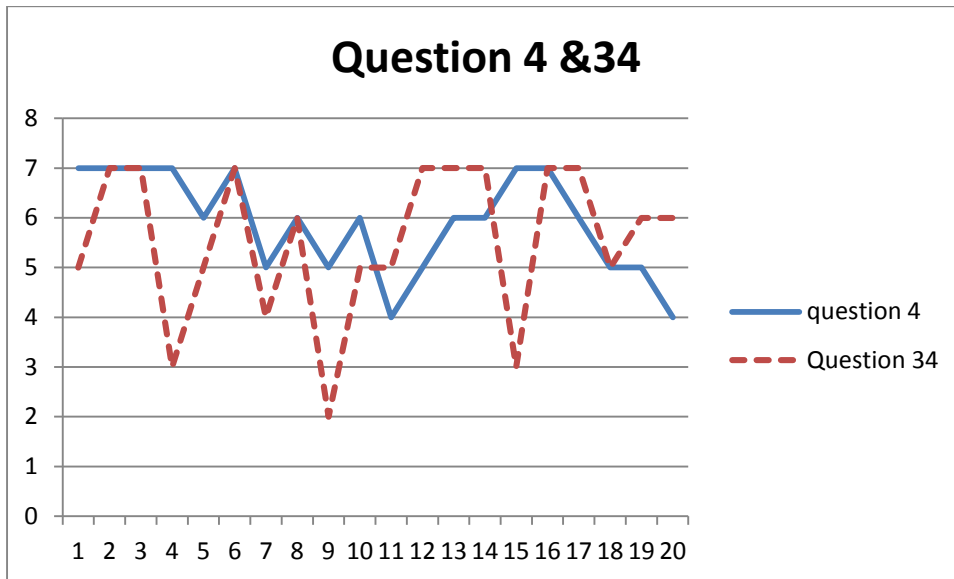
Program Benefit



Candidate 20 probably misunderstood the question 31 or 1 since it shows exactly the opposite response. Apart from this one can notice a general high evaluation regarding the program effectiveness.

Figure 10 shows the scores plotted on question 4 and question 34 regarding the program's effect on happiness in graph form.

Figure 10

Program and Happiness

It was important to get an indication of the effect the program had on the individual's happiness.

The general high rating as can be seen in above graph was extremely encouraging.

4.2.2. The Effect of the Program on the Candidate's Emotional Life

Table 9 shows the results from the questions focussing on the program's effect on emotion control.

Table 9

The Effect of the Program on the Candidates' Life

#	Question Description	Mean	SD	Highest score	Frequency of Highest Score	Lowest score	Frequency of Highest Score
28	The Wellness Program has helped me to deal with my emotions more effectively.	5.75	0.79	7	20%	5	45%
55*	I cannot deal with my emotions better since I completed the program.	5.4	1.92	7	35%	1	10%

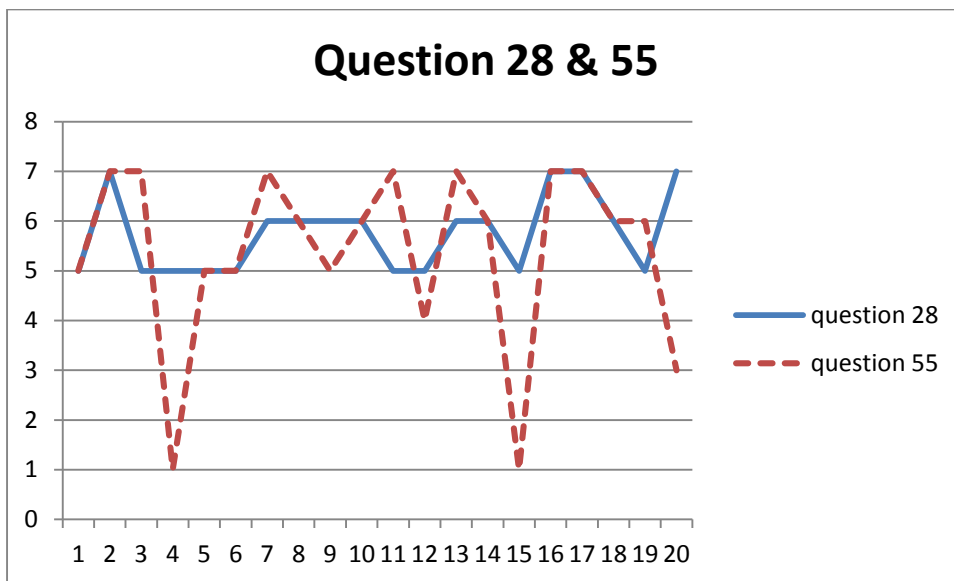
* Reverse scored questions

Interestingly the direct question found a greater coherence in the scoring with the scores ranging between 5 and 7, and subsequent *SD* of 0.79, while the second question showed greater variety in scores, which reflected in the *SD* of 1.92. This could indicate that there might have been uncertainty in rating the reverse scored item. Here also the question 28 score would show a high effectiveness in the program's ability to empower participants regarding controlling their emotions.

The difference in score results is even more evident in Figure 11 which depicts the individual scorings on questions 28 and 55 focussing on the program's effect on emotional control in graph form.

Figure 11

Program and Emotion Control



The inverse peaks of candidates 4, 15 and 20 indicate that there might have been difficulty in understanding the reverse scored items. Once again if this effect had not been, the mean result might have looked very different and this should be considered in future studies.

4.2.3. The Effect of the Program on the Candidate's Communications

Table 10 evaluates the scores of the items indicating the effect of the program in improving the participants' communication skills. This is also done via questions gauging the increase in the quality of interpersonal relationships both within the family and outside of family relations.

With the increase of communication skills the quality of relationships should also increase and should therefore give an indication of effect (Markman et al., 2004).

Table 11

The Effect of the Program on the Candidate's Communication

#	Question Description	Mean	SD	Highest score	Frequency of Highest Score	Lowest score	Frequency of Highest Score
7	I experienced an improvement in relationships since the Wellness Program.	5.55	1.08	7	25%	4	15%
37*	There has been no relationship that improved since the Wellness Program.	5.05	1.87	7	25%	2	10%
25	Family relationships have improved due to the Wellness Program.	5.1	1.37	7	15%	3	10%
53*	My Family life has not benefitted due to the program at all.	5.3	1.28	7	15%	3	10%
13	I can communicate better since completing the program.	5	1.54	7	10%	2	5%
43*	My Communication skills have not increased since completing the Wellness Program.	5.25	1.80	7	30%	1	5%

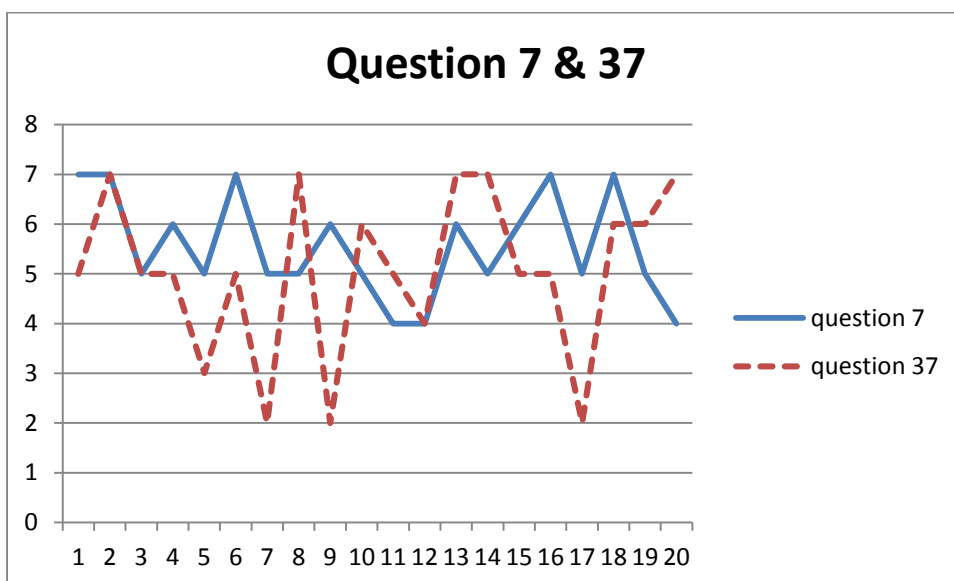
* Reverse scored questions

Since the improved communication skill was supposed to have a ripple effect in the social setting, the relationship rating questions were taken to indicate the effectiveness of the communication session (Markman et al., 2004). Although question 7, which is a direct question regarding the improvement of general relationships, showed a high effectiveness and a low *SD*, indicating that there was no great deviation in the scoring of this question, the general results showed an above average effectiveness with greater *SDs* indicating a greater disparity.

Figure 12 reports the results of the first group of 2 scores, namely question 7 and question 37, which deal with the effect of the program on general relationships plotted in graph form.

Figure 12

Program and General Relationships

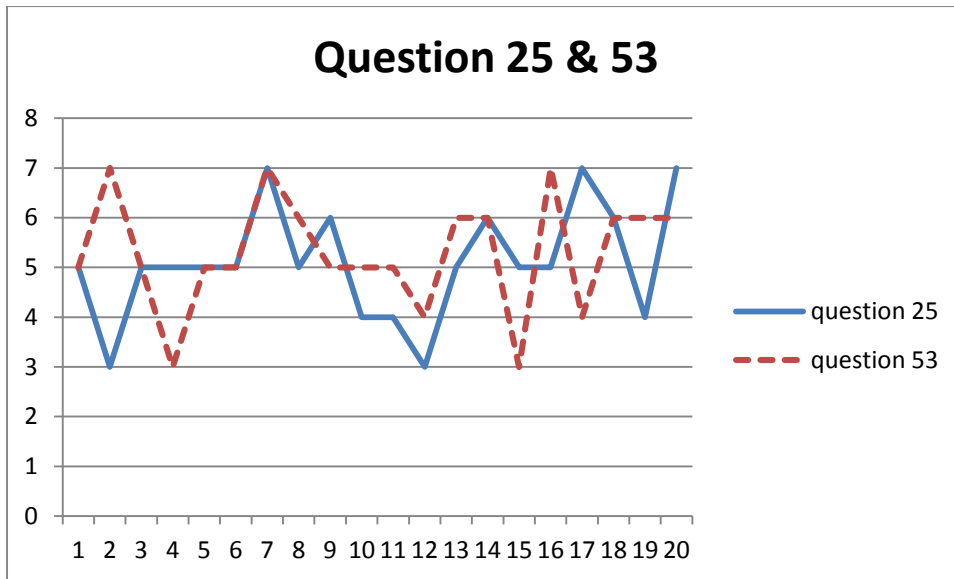


Although there was great stability in the answering of the direct question, the scores that showed great peaks indicate that there might have been difficulty with the understanding of the reverse scored questions.

Figure 13 shows the scores of questions 25 and 53 which report on the effect of the program on family relationships, and reports on it in graph form.

Figure 13

Program and Family Relationships

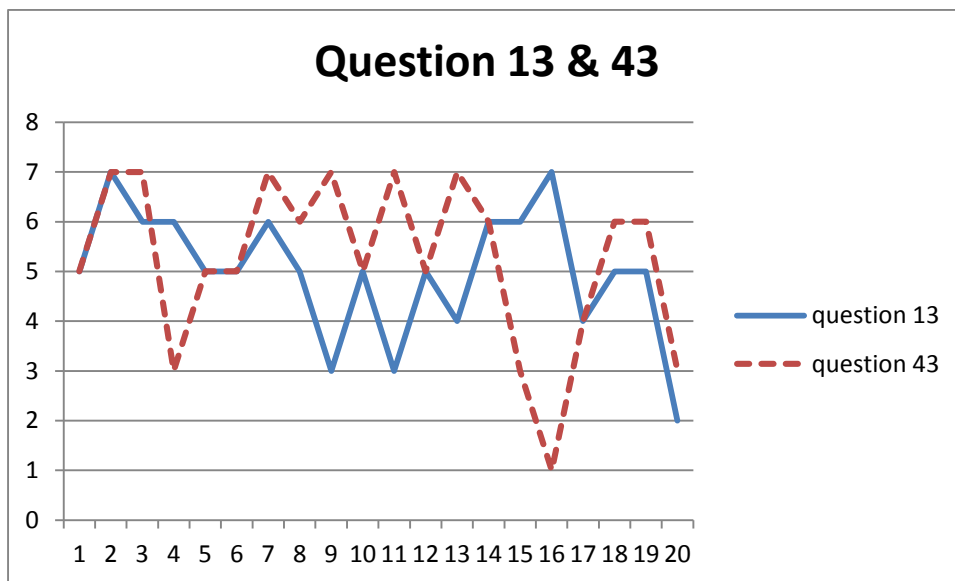


Although there are great differences between the way participants perceived the program's effect on the family relationships, there seems to have been more stability within the individuals' scoring which might reflect on more understanding of the reverse scored question and this could indicate possible changes that could be made to other similar questions in future to make the scoring more effective.

Finally, Figure 14 focuses directly on the participants' rating of their perception of increased communication skills due to the program in question 13 and question 43. This is also reported in graph form.

Figure 14

Program and Communication



When looking at the peaks towards the more positive and negative it can be concluded that the reverse scored question was again not fully understood by some participants.

4.2.4. The Effect of the Program on the Candidate's Ability to Deal with Stress

Table 11 indicates the perceived effect of the program on the stress management skills of candidates.

Table 12

The Effect of the Program on the Candidates' Stress Management skills

#	Question Description	Mean	SD	Highest score	Frequency of Highest Score	Lowest score	Frequency of Highest Score
10	Since I completed the Wellness Program, I'm more able to handle difficult situations / problems	5.7	1.31	7	20%	1	5%
40*	The program did not assist me in dealing with problems / difficult situations.	5.7	1.22	7	30%	2	5%
16	I can deal better with my stress levels since completing the Wellness Program.	5.25	1.48	7	10%	1	5%
46*	My Stress Management skills have not increased.	4.05	2.52	7	5%	1	10%

* Reverse scored questions

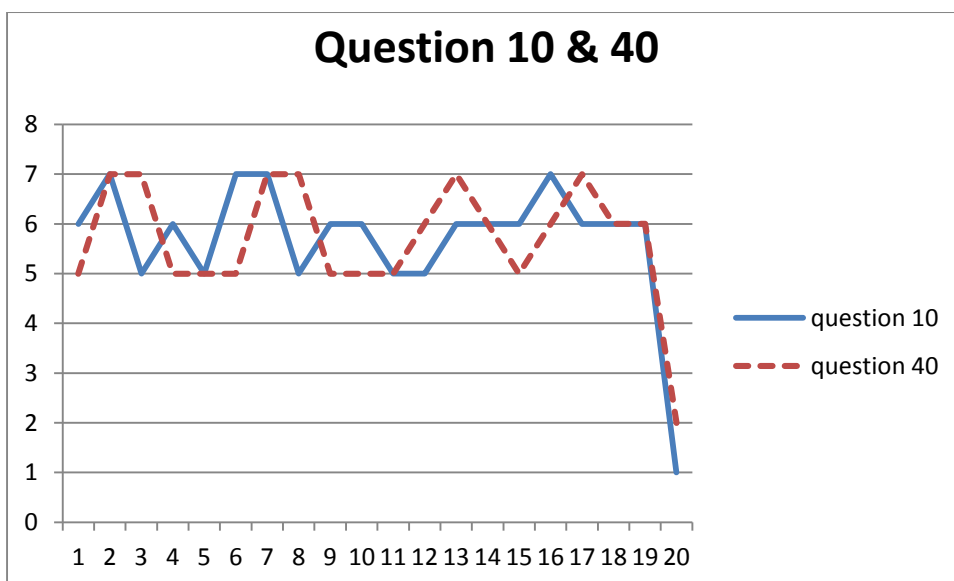
When being able to deal with stress and getting focus on the physical root challenge the candidate should be able to also be more effective when confronted with difficult situations. Therefore questions 10 and 40 were also included in the group of questions indicating the program's effectiveness with regard to increasing the candidates' stress management skills.

The reverse scored question 46 has a high *SD* of 2.52, indicating that there was great difference in the participants' scoring while the other questions have much lower *SD*s. This places a question mark on the participants' understanding of the reverse scored question.

Figure 15 depicts the perceived effect of the program on the participants' ability to deal with difficult situations.

Figure 15

Program and Dealing with Difficult Situations

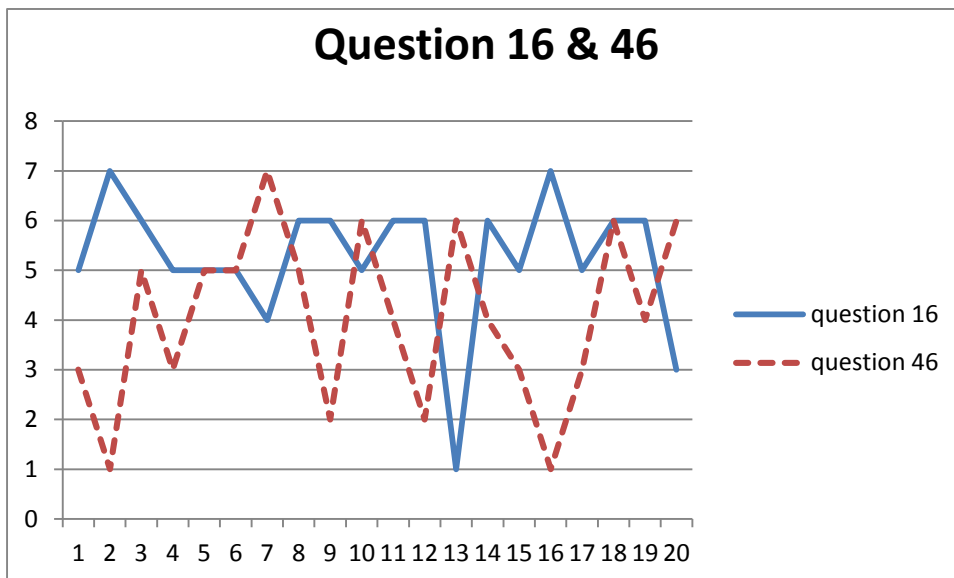


The participants clearly understood the questioning and were scoring very similarly, resulting in the similar scoring of both questions aiming at the same result. Participant 20 did not experience the positive effect the rest of the group had experienced.

Figure 16 reports on the stress management skills gained via the program.

Figure 16

Program and Stress



There could possibly be a language barrier that caused question 46 to be understood in the same manner as question 16. Looking at the above graph it can be seen that the opposing peaks would indicate opposing scores. It can therefore be theorised that the word stress management might have been foreign to the participants.

4.2.5. The Effect of the Program on the Candidates' Ability to Prevent Procrastination

Table 13 reports on the program's effectiveness in decreasing procrastination.

Table 13

The Effect of the Program on the Candidates' Ability to Prevent Procrastination

#	Question Description	Mean	SD	Highest score	Frequency of Highest Score	Lowest score	Frequency of Highest Score
19	Planning my day has benefitted me.	5.4	1.56	7	25%	1	5%
49*	As far as I'm concerned, planning and happiness don't have anything to do with each other.	4.95	2.14	7	25%	1	5%
22	Since the completion of the Wellness Program, I have started to plan my day more.	5.55	0.73	7	10%	5	55%
51*	My planning has not been effected by the Wellness Program.	4.2	2.56	7	5%	1	20%

* Reverse scored questions

If a person is effective in planning he/she should be able to prevent procrastination. It was opted to create questions focussed on planning since this should be an easier concept for the

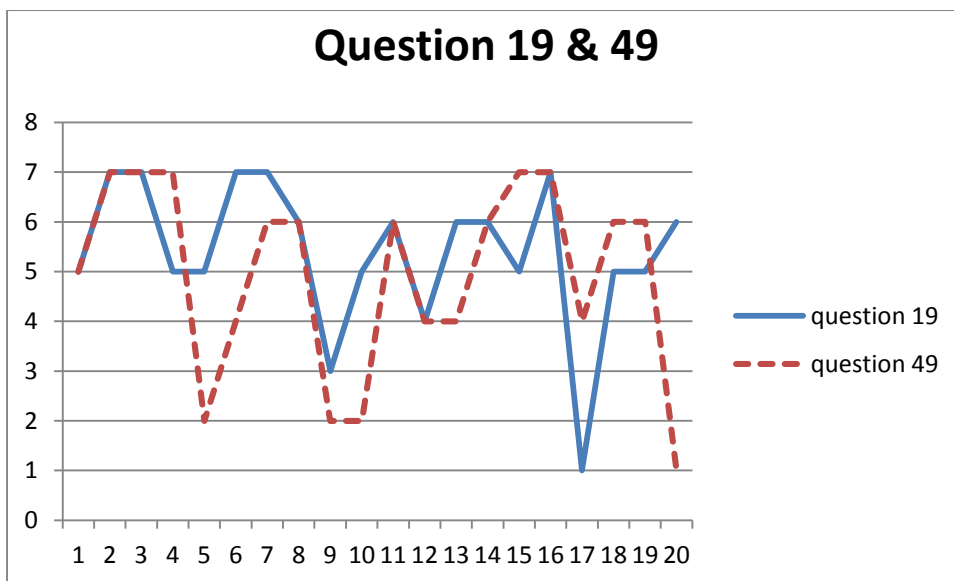
participants to grasp clearly. This was intended to prevent confusion. Question 49 was intended to test the candidates' insight as to the effect that planning would have on a person's life. It becomes clearer in the graph below that only 4 participants were not able to comprehend that there is a connection to be made between their happiness and the effective planning.

Between the reverse scored questions with the same focus as the direct questions there were great differences in the *SD*. This indicates that there was much more unity in scoring the direct questions and, possibly due to the reverse way of stating, many of the participants found it difficult to understand the statement.

Figure 17 indicates the perception change that the program aimed at, namely that planning has a benefit and impacts of my happiness. This was reported on in graph form.

Figure 17

Planning and Benefit

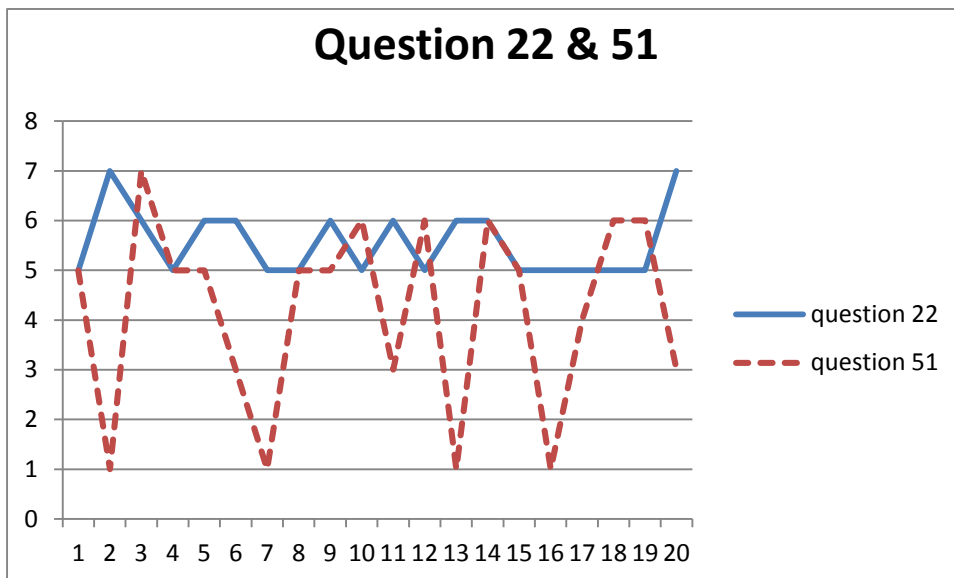


Although the score seems to be average; many participants did not seem to make the aimed connection between happiness and planning.

Figure 18 reports the effect of the program on the creation of the habit of planning with the participants.

Figure 18

Program and Planning



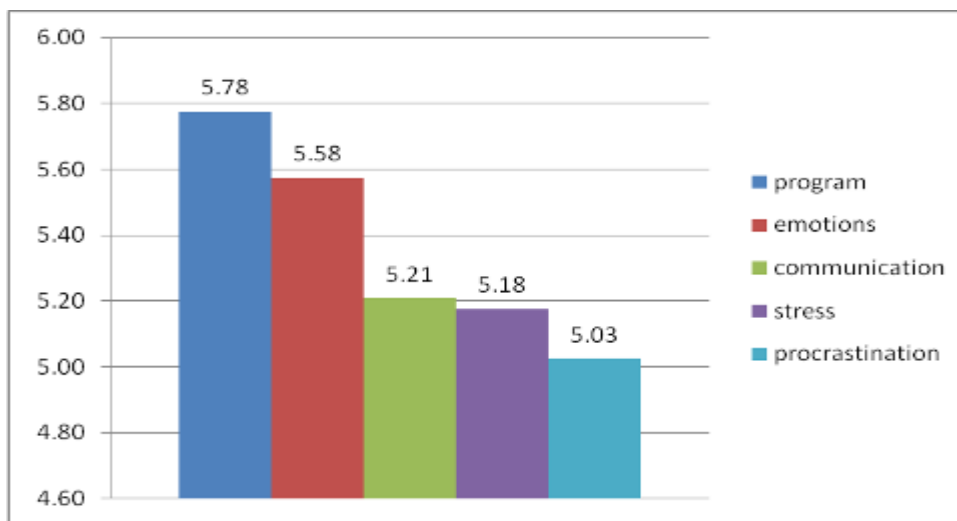
As is evident in the above graph, question 51, which was a reverse scored item, seems to have been misunderstood and therefore produced a lower score than had been hoped for. As can be seen in the above figure, also this question resulted in the lowest mean score of all the evaluation questions and the highest *SD*. Question 51 should be removed in future studies.

4.2.6. Combined Program Evaluation

In Figure 19 the histogram indicates the evaluation of the program by the experimental group.

Figure 19

Histogram Program Evaluation 1



As per above histogram one can see that the program was scored close to a high rating with a score of 5.78. This indicates that the candidates had experienced the program to be effective in increasing their happiness and in giving them the necessary tools to be more effective in life.

The candidates also showed that as a group their ability to deal with their emotions had been increased and that they were more competent in this area due to the program. Their confidence in the program's effectiveness in this area was shown by the above average (5.58) score they allocated to it.

With the communication questions, which include the improvement in relationships as a measurement as well, the score allocated was slightly lower at 5.21. This is, however, still

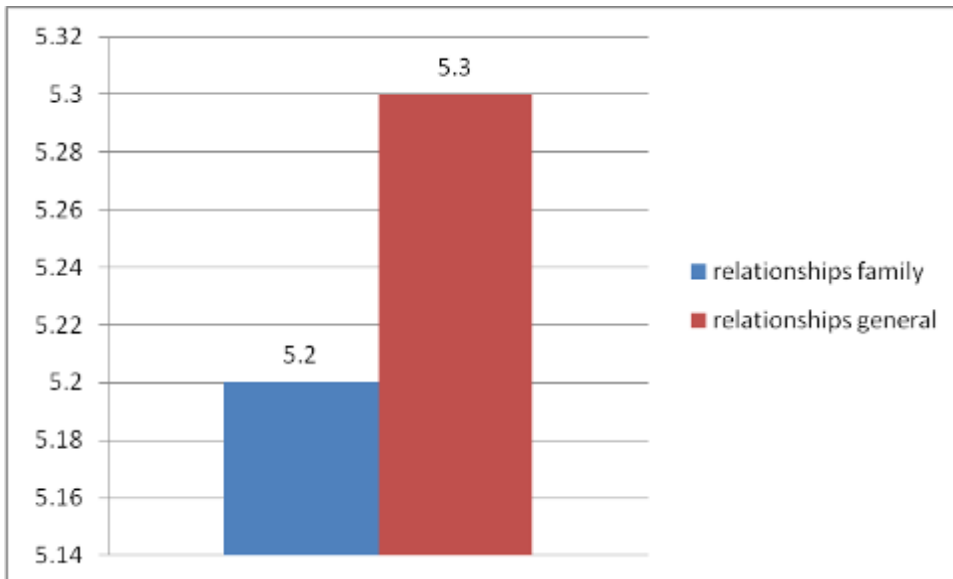
within the above-average range and considering that the bulk of the indicators were linked to implementation of the material, it is very encouraging to have received such a high score.

It is worth noting that the group score under the stress heading was 5.18. Once again this is still within the above average range set. It is interesting to note that the questions aimed at the ability to deal with problems and challenges that fed into this score received a very high score of 5.7, while the questions using the term stress only received a score of 4.65, which is average. This would indicate that the candidates have a concept of how to deal with challenges. Dealing with challenges more effectively is mostly the underlying requirement for dealing with stress in the long run. The candidates should thus be able to develop effectiveness in dealing with stress more effectively with time.

Although the procrastination session just managed to reach the above average range with a score of 5.03, it proved to be the area that needs improvement within the program. The measurement was also masked by using planning instead of procrastination which could also have an effect on the end result.

In Figure 20 the histogram indicates the effect of the program on relationships as perceived by the experimental group.

Figure 20

Histogram Program Evaluation 2

It is very encouraging that the candidates indicated an above average increase in their relationships. In the above histogram it can be seen that the candidates experienced an above average score of 5.3 in general relationships which would include all areas outside of the family setting. The family setting showed a score of 5.2, which also indicates an above average score. These scores are especially important since they would also impact greatly on the individual happiness of the candidates.

4.3. DISCUSSION

Although the quantitative results tend to indicate that there was no significant change in the trait emotional intelligence between the experimental and control groups, it was found that there are reasonable explanations for this within the transference of the trait via telephonic and personal contact due to work engagement between the groups. The fact that the TEIQue-SF component within the post-post-test indicated that the experimental group showed even more

growth was encouraging since it is expected that the score should decrease after a certain amount of time has elapsed, and since this is not the case, one could theorise that this would indicate that the staff had been equipped in an effective way that would cause even more growth in future.

This seems to be supported by the program evaluation results since the staff members scored the program's total effectiveness at a mean score of 5.78, which, rounded off to the nearest constant, would indicate a high level of satisfaction with the results experienced due to the program. The fact that the responses indicated that the experimental group participants rated the program as beneficial to them is extremely heartening. 47.5% of the group indicated the highest score possible when rating the program. On a Likert scale, ranging from 1 – 7, the mean score was 5.83 indicating a high score on the above-average level. This general experience of benefit is reflected also in the more detailed questions.

Happiness has been proven to benefit mental and physical health (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). The participants have indicated a mean score of 5.73 on the above Likert scale for the impact on happiness evaluation questions. These results would show that the program has not only shown a high above-average ability to increase participants' happiness, but via this, would also have benefitted the physical and mental health of the participants.

Emotion control is a basic element needed to be able to state your point of view effectively without being fearful and without spilling over into aggression, which is defined as the ability to be assertive (Bar-On, 1997). Emotion control is also found stated to be a skill involving the use of self-regulatory processes to keep performance anxiety and other negative emotional reactions in check during task engagement (Kanfer, Ackerman, & Heggestad, 1996). The

participants have shown a mean score of 5.58, once again indicating a score on the Likert scale that would speak of high above-average effectiveness on the part of the program in enhancing emotion control.

Another encouraging result is the above-average effect the program had on both family (mean 5.2) and general relationships (mean 5.3). In both the mentioned areas the program was perceived to be above average in its effectiveness to improve relationships. Improved relationships are bound to have a positive effect on a person's general well-being (Petrides, 2001)

The program has also received a mean score on the Likert scale of 5.13, once again indicating that there was a perceived increase in the communication skills of the participants. This would also emphasise that the transference of information between the control and experimental groups would have been above average with the increase in the experimental group's communication courage.

Stress management was also part of the skill development portfolio of the development program and in this area the participants scored a mean of 5.18 on the Likert scale. Stress management entails a capacity for accepting our aggressive impulses, being composed and controlling aggression, hostility and irresponsible behaviour (Bar-On, 1997). Stress has been proven to weaken a person's immune system (Segerstorm & Miller, 2004), cause headaches and backaches (De Longis, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1988) and even stomach ulcers (Gallo, Mimura, & Sugaya, 2009). Therefore the stress management that has been perceived to be successful in the lives of the participants would have benefitted not only their emotional well-being, but also their physical health.

The final item to report on was the aimed decrease in procrastination. The indicator of benefit in this area was that the candidates realised the benefits of planning and were able to benefit practically from that insight. Keyes (2005) distinguished lower levels of procrastination as an indicator of higher levels of productivity and even well-being. This domain, was rated lowest of all areas and would probably need further improvement. Procrastination showed a mean score of 5.03 on the Likert scale, which is also above average. This result would therefore also indicate that the program would have improved not only the well-being, but also the effectiveness at work and in general life.

4.4. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The results found via the TEIQue-SF and the qualitative feedback of the participants were discussed in this chapter. The results were combined and a realistic conclusion was stated regarding the effectiveness of the emotional intelligence program.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to draw conclusions from this study. Conclusions are drawn in accordance with the research objectives. Furthermore, limitations of this study are discussed and recommendations are made for future training. Finally, research opportunities emanating from this study are presented.

5.1. CONCLUSIONS

Next, the conclusions of the research are drawn.

Conceptualisation of Trait Emotional Intelligence

The first objective of this study was to conceptualise the trait emotional intelligence within literature.

Trait emotional intelligence is formally defined as a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). Trait EI in essence concerns people's self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. An alternative description for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

To achieve this, the concept of trait emotional intelligence was set within the emotional intelligence history. By showing the correlation to the big five and giant three, the trait emotional intelligence was placed within international theory (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). In

order to expand on this even further it was discussed how trait emotional intelligence was proven to impact on emotional wellbeing (Frederickson, 1998). The positive association with peer-rated social competence, particularly pro-social behaviour, was also discussed to emphasise its benefits (Mavroveli et al., 2007).

Within this placement it was seen that trait emotional intelligence did have overlapping concepts found within the mainstream emotional intelligence models such as the EQi model of Bar-on. Here the factor Wellbeing within the trait emotional intelligence model has characteristics common to the self-perception components. While Emotionality would correspond with elements of self-expression and decision making, the self-control factor of the trait emotional intelligence hierarchical structure on the other hand would partially match up with stress management. The last component of EQi that would need placement can be found within the sociability factor set out by Petrides and Furnham in the trait emotional intelligence model (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). The focus within the model is rather founded personal perception. In this regard the trait concept was further clarified by comparing it to ability emotional intelligence and highlighting the difference (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

It is therefore concluded that the trait emotional intelligence model is immersed in internationally well-known models while having a specific focus on the perception of the individual regarding effectiveness in controlling personal wellbeing, emotionality while in any social setting.

Developing an Effective Emotional Intelligence Program

Objective 2 was to develop an emotional intelligence program that will consist of components that will positively affect the factors of the trait emotional intelligence structure.

A discussion was held on how the trait emotional intelligence program intended to affect the factors of the trait emotional intelligence structure. This was achieved by giving a description of how the research was designed in preparation of the above aim. Then an individual discussion on the program content followed, giving the theoretic background to the assertiveness, communication, stress and procrastination/planning sessions. This was clarified even further by using a graphic hierarchical representation of which facet is impacted by which session/s. A brief description of the participant groups that would partake in the study was also included, placing the program in the public sector that it aimed to affect.

The TEIQue-SF, which is known to measure trait emotional intelligence, was discussed and a background was given to the measurement tool. Important elements to the tool were highlighted in the form of cross cultural studies it had been used in, its validity and internal consistency. Following the above, the meanings of the different facets were discussed to ensure that there is clarity on how the results should be interpreted. In conclusion of the theoretical preparation a discussion followed on the research procedure that would be implemented and the method of data analysis.

In order to assess whether we had reached the aim set to develop the program that would effectively impact on the facets of the trait emotional intelligence model, the above-mentioned theory had to be put into practice with the experimental and control group. This was done and

the results were reported in Chapter 4. The results showed that the experimental group had a significant change within itself. However, the control group also showed a significant increase in their trait emotional intelligence. These high ratings within the control group were theorised to be caused by social desirability having an overt effect on the score (Fisher, 1993; Mikolajczak, et al., 2007), habits that were still being developed (Rock, 2007), self-deception due to a lack of knowing personal weaknesses within the control group (Paulhus & Reid, 1991), and transference between the control and experimental group due to daily routine contact at work and intentional sharing, which would be an encouraging reflection on the attained positive self-perception of participants. However, when comparing the experimental group with the control group it was found that the program did not make a significant change within the experimental group, since the difference from the control group's increased trait emotional intelligence was not significant. The study therefore confirmed that the aim had not been achieved.

The rating of the program by the experimental group nevertheless showed high impacts in the areas of personal perceived happiness, emotion control, dealing with difficult situations and planning, while above-average scores were allotted to the program's effectiveness in the perceived areas of positively impacting on general and family relationships, communication, procrastination and stress management.

Program Effectiveness within Namibian Public Sector

Objective 3 was to assess the effectiveness of an emotional intelligence development program in the Namibian public service.

To achieve this objective, staff members within the Namibian Ministry of Justice were selected on a voluntary basis. Thereafter they were divided into an experimental and a control group with homogenous work level and sex. Both groups were tested before the intervention. The growth of the groups was compared after the experimental group had received the training within the emotional intelligence development program. Furthermore, the experimental group completed a program evaluation questionnaire.

As mentioned previously, the results regarding the effectiveness of the program, when compared between the groups, were not significant. The statistical conclusion therefore should remain that the program was not able to be proven statistically effective in increasing the trait emotional intelligence within the experimental group more than was reported within the control group.

The study was not able to prove significant increase. However, this was not insignificant, since it was able to create a perceived increase in specific areas required to report on in the program evaluation questionnaire.

Within this questionnaire it was found that the direct questioning regarding the program's perceived effect on the participants, happiness, which is question 4, received a rating of 5.9 and the reverse scored question 34 scored 5.55. Combined, these scores would indicate a rating of

5.73 which, when rounded to the nearest symbol, would result in a high score on the perceived effect of the program on happiness. This would lead to the conclusion that the program was perceived by participants to have a high influence on happiness.

Secondly, it was found that the direct questioning reading into the perceived effect on personal ability to control emotions, question 28, received a rating of 5.75, and the reverse scored question 55 scored 5.4. Combined these scores would indicate a rating of 5.58 which, when rounded to the nearest symbol, would result in a high score on the perceived effect of the program on the participants' gain in emotion control. Here also this would lead to the conclusion that the program was experienced as effective in assisting in this way.

Thirdly, general relationships were perceived to be positively impacted via the program. This was shown by the direct question in this regard within the program evaluation questionnaire, question 7, which received a rating of 5.55, while the reverse scored question 37 scored 5.05. Combined these scores would indicate a rating of 5.3 which, when rounded to the nearest symbol, would result in an above-average score on the perceived effect of the program on the participants' general relationships.

Fourthly, the perceived improvement in family relationships due to the program was assessed via the direct question 25 and received a rating of 5.1, while the reverse scored question 53 scored 5.3. Combined these scores would indicate a rating of 5.2 which, when rounded to the nearest symbol, would result in an above-average score on the perceived effect of the program on the participants' family relationships. It can therefore be concluded that the program was perceived to be effective in improving family relationships.

Fifthly, the participants' perception of a higher ability in communication was rated within the program evaluation questionnaire. It was found that the direct question number 13 received a rating of 5, while the reverse scored question 43 scored 5.25. Combined these scores would indicate a rating of 5.13 which, when rounded to the nearest symbol, would result in an above-average score on the perceived effect of the program on the participants' increase in communication skills. This would lead to the conclusion that communication skills were positively affected by the program.

The perceived increased ability to manage stress, due to the program, was the sixth element reported on within the questionnaire. Here the direct question within the program evaluation questionnaire, question 16, indicated a rating of 5.25, while the reverse scored question 46 scored 4.05. Combined these scores would show a rating of 4.6 which, when rounded to the nearest symbol, would result in an above-average score on the perceived effect of the program on the participants' ability to deal with stress. This would lead to the conclusion that the program is capable of increasing perceived higher effectiveness in stress management.

The last aim of the program evaluation questionnaire was to assess whether the program could cause a perceived decrease in personal procrastination. The increase in planning would result in the decrease of procrastination (Tracy, 2004). Therefore the direct questioning reading into the above would be the question probing for an effective increase in planning. Question 22, which received a rating of 5.55, and the reverse scored question 51, scored 4.2, would therefore give an indication of the perceived decrease in procrastination, since it aims at testing the increase of planning. Combined these scores indicate a rating of 4.88 which, when rounded to the nearest, symbol would result in an above-average score on the perceived effect of the program on the participants' daily planning habit which would result in decreased

procrastination (Tracy, 2004). This item scored the lowest of all evaluations and would lead to the subsequent insight into the program's weaknesses as set discussed below.

Program Weaknesses

The final objective that was set was identifying the weaknesses observed within the trait emotional intelligence development program.

This was achieved via the program evaluation form, which was completed by the experimental group 2 months after completing the program. The results were discussed above and showed high and above-average scores on most levels. When looking for more detail, specific questions were reported which might highlight some weak points within the program. These were found in comprehension of the link between more effective planning and happiness (Tracy, 2004). It seems that the participants could not see the link between the ability to create a happiness effect via the endorphins that would be secreted due to the ticking off of tasks that are planned in writing. It was also found that the procrastination session was rated much less effective than the rest of the program, and one would have to work on the presentation of this material.

Furthermore, many of the participants requested another session to recap and ask questions about content that occurred during the implementation of the training gained from the program, and this should also be worked into the program to allow for better results. This need would also result in participants airing their questions within the procrastination session which could explain the lower rating on this session. Furthermore, the fact that participants needed to clarify items of previous sessions afterwards would show that there might have been questions on the

last session's content that they were not able to ask and this could also reduce the experienced effectiveness.

5.1.1. Integration and Contribution of this Study

This study contributes towards labour relations management and the employment relationship in a broader sense in the following manner:

Two major role players in an employment relationship are the employer on the one hand and the employee on the other. The employment relationship is influenced by external factors such as the socio-political environment, the labour market, economy and technology, while internal factors influencing the employment relationship include personal perceived happiness, ability to control emotions which would lead to greater assertiveness, perceived ability to positively manage general relationships (including work relations), family relationships (which would positively or negatively spill over to work) and stress levels, increased communication skills and decreased procrastination. All have been shown within the study to be perceived to be influenced by the trait emotional intelligence program. In conclusion there is value added to the internal factors influencing the employment relationship when participating in the trait emotional intelligence program.

The program therefore would not only have an impact on the individual person, but also on the organisation at large via an influence on interpersonal relationships.

It is important to note that the trait emotional intelligence program was proven to be insignificant when change within the trait emotional intelligence ratings of the experimental

and the control groups where compared. The perceived influence on the above mentioned internal factors were, however, rated at high and above-average effectiveness.

5.2. LIMITATIONS

The trait emotional intelligence construct is an explanatory framework providing comprehensive coverage of the emotion-related aspects of personality (Petrides, Furnham, & Mavroveli, 2007). In certain cases, however, much of this explanatory power is compromised when a short measure of trait emotional intelligence, which cannot measure all of the constituent parts of the construct reliably, is employed. This is because a global score from a short questionnaire might well mask significant differences in the relationships between the factors (or facets) with a criterion (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Unfortunately, it is important to keep the questionnaire as short as possible in order to get willingness from voluntary participants.

The TEIQue-SF is a short form of the TEIQue, although studies show that the form is effective (Petrides & Furnham, 2003; Cooper & Petrides, 2010). It should be emphasized, that the TEIQue-SF is a short form of a larger scale that also measures 15 different facets. It remains a short form that is culled from a larger measure, and includes item content from across all of its facets; it will thus tend to be somewhat heterogeneous. In other words, maintaining adequate domain coverage in a short form may come at the expense of ideal item psychometric properties (Mikolajczak, et al., 2006). As mentioned above, the TEIQue-SF was opted for to accommodate the voluntary participants.

The TEIQue-SF has been used in a large variety of countries, but it was found difficult to understand at times by some participants that filled it in. This was mainly due to unfamiliar words. The challenge was especially prevalent in the north of Namibia in a more rural setting, while in the urban setting of Windhoek this was found to be less of a challenge.

A convenience sample ($n = 40$) was taken from the Ministry of Justice of the Republic of Namibia (consisting of a population of 983 staff members), from whom the researcher had received permission. This sampling method selects participants at the convenience of the researcher and the availability of the participants (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, & Zechmeister, 2003). The small sample might not be completely representative of the staff complement, although care was taken to attempt to have participants from all work levels. The bulk of the voluntary participants were based in the north of the country and this geographic limitation might also result in a group that is not completely representative. This was a convenience sample and would therefore consist of voluntary participants, which would exclude the unwilling staff members.

The experimental group was requested to give an honest reflection of their personal findings, since their response would assist the developer of the program to identify weak points in the program and correct them in order to achieve greater program success. This could have had an inverse social desirability effect. Social desirability effect would especially be prevalent within the control group; they felt a disadvantage in the assessment, since no training had been received before the second test was completed. There had also not been the same drive to prevent social desirability within the control group, as had been done with the experimental group.

A qualitative questionnaire was filled in only by the experimental group, since the qualitative questions were directed at the effectiveness of the program. This leaves one with a section of the persons tested without completing a qualitative questionnaire. If a qualitative questionnaire about the changes observed in the colleagues (similarly to a 360 degree assessment) that had completed the training would have been done, it would have shed more light on the effectiveness of the program, as per the environment. Within future research one could consider such an assessment by superiors, colleagues on the same level and family members combined with own assessment to allow for a 360 degree assessment.

Due to the research design the results received only reflected a small possible area of comparison and could have been covered more comprehensively with a different research design. The comparison possibility only consisted of change over a 2 to 3 *week* period, while it could have been comparing the groups over a 2 to 3 *month* period, without much difficulty. However, this might have caused an ethical problem since the control group would then only have received the training 2 months later then they had received it.

Since all the presentations in the sessions were done by the researcher there was consistency in presentation. However, this could also weaken the validity of the score, since the questionnaire might be measuring the combination between program and personal interest, which could also have an effect on the results in a positive or negative way.

Within the program evaluation, the reverse scored items often seemed to have been misunderstood by many participants with them scoring them mirrored to the direct question that aimed at the same measurement. This caused uncertainty about the validity of the results.

This should, however, rather result in increased scores for the program effectiveness, since the reverse scored items generally scored lower than the direct questions.

5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

5.3.1. Suggestions for Improving the Trait Emotional Intelligence Program

As mentioned previously, the trait emotional intelligence program was perceived to be beneficial amongst the participants. The areas that were perceived to be affected by the program would have a positive effect on the individuals and their environment.

Although the program was rated as highly effective and there should not be any question as to presenting the training to other individuals within the public sector, the procrastination session was perceived to be less effective. This session should possibly be adjusted to suit especially the clerical segment of the staff complement where it received the lowest ratings. The researcher also found that if an extra session was included, the focus on this session should improve. This conclusion was drawn due to many participants attempting to clarify items discussed in previous sessions in this session, given that it was the last planned contact with the trainer/researcher. An extra session would therefore result in less anxiety about items still to be clarified. The researcher would also suggest that, if practically possible, the sessions be offered with longer intervals to allow for better practical appropriation. The last session would preferably be conducted with at least a week's break after the fourth session.

To prevent the human factor from having an influence it might be interesting to create a workbook, DVD set or both, which people would be able to work through and which would afford them the opportunity to be tested without any human intervention. This would possibly comprise the theme for a further study that might be considered by the researcher.

The evaluation of the staff growth should comprise not only the self-evaluation questionnaire, but also a 360 degree evaluation by peers, supervisors, family and themselves. It was found that the staff member that showed the most improvement, according to her peers and supervisors, did not rate herself much better at all. The control group staff members would possibly score lower if the evaluation was not only based on self-evaluation. Consequently it would be possible to ensure that one is testing a true reflection of the training that is transferred to the work environment (Kirkpatrick, 1998).

5.3.2. Recommendations Regarding Future Studies in the Field of Trait Emotional Intelligence

The ideal would be to retest the control and experimental group after 6 and 12 months to establish what the growth would be then in order to prove that even more growth would be achieved over time. This would unfortunately not have been effective for the purposes of this study, since the control group were also given the opportunity to receive the training after the completion of the program. This was done to prevent any ethical complications that might occur. In future studies it would be recommended that this be considered.

It would be advisable to find a questionnaire that has been used in an African context, especially when working with individuals from a rural setting. It might therefore be optimal to use a questionnaire that is standardised to a Namibian population instead of the TEIque-SF. When testing candidates it would be advisable to use a 360° test that would allow for a better evaluation. More of a qualitative approach to the evaluation might also render better results. Removal of the impact of the facilitator, by eliminating the human factor and using written or

DVD material or using a variety of persons to conduct the training would result in improved evaluation of the program.

Within the program evaluation it would be recommendable to simplify the language of the questions, especially the reverse scored items. It was found in question 40 that the reverse question was the only one that scored similarly to the direct question and this was a question stated in easy to understand English without difficult phrases.

Studies on emotional intelligence would be more effective when conducted longitudinally.

5.4. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter reflected on how the aims set out in Chapter 1 were achieved. Thought was also given to integration and the contribution the program can make as well as consideration of future interventions. Limitations that prevented the researcher from achieving the aims as effectively as was hoped for were reflected on. The chapter was concluded with possible solutions to making the program more effective and also recommendations for other researchers that might in future wish to investigate the trait emotional intelligence.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF JUSTICE

Tel: (061) 2805111
Fax: (061) 234774

Private Bag 13302
WINDHOEK

Enquiries: **L. Kamati**

Our Ref: **Wellness**

22 September 2010

Mr Siegfried Lange
Psychologist Counsellor
My Wellness 24/7
WINDHOEK

Dear Sir

REQUEST TO USE FEEDBACK ON WELLNESS PROGRAM IN MASTERS THESIS

The above subject matter refers.

Kindly be informed that the Ministry has no objection for you to use the data from the Wellness Program for your Master's Thesis as long as the confidentiality of staff member's information is not comprised. You would be requested also to share the findings of your study, once completed, with the Ministry.

Thank you for your understanding.

Yours sincerely


PERMANENT SECRETARY



Appendix B

TEIQue-SF

Instructions: Please answer each statement below by putting a circle around the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement. Do not think too long about the exact meaning of the statements. Work quickly and try to answer as accurately as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. There are seven possible responses to each statement ranging from 'Completely Disagree' (number 1) to 'Completely Agree' (number 7).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Completely

Completely

Disagree

Agree

1. Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. On the whole, I'm a highly motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I generally don't find life enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I can deal effectively with people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I tend to change my mind frequently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I'm usually able to influence the way other people feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. On the whole, I'm able to deal with stress.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I'm normally able to "get into someone's shoes" and experience their emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I'm usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. On the whole, I'm pleased with my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I would describe myself as a good negotiator.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I often pause and think about my feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I believe I'm full of personal strengths.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Generally, I'm able to adapt to new environments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Others admire me for being relaxed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Scoring key: Reverse-score the following items and then sum up all responses

I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me. (R) 16

I often find it difficult to see things from another person's viewpoint. (R) 2

I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated. (R) 18

I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions. (R) 4

I generally don't find life enjoyable. (R) 5

I tend to change my mind frequently. (R) 7

I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of. (R) 22

Many times, I can't figure out what emotion I'm feeling. (R) 8

I normally find it difficult to stand up for my rights. (R) 10

I tend to "back down" even if I know I'm right. (R) 25

I don't seem to have any power at all over other people's feelings. (R) 26

On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things. (R) 12

Those close to me often complain that I don't treat them right. (R) 13

I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me. (R) 28

I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances. (R) 14

*Numbers on the right correspond to the position of the items in the short form of the questionnaire.

**If you would like to derive factor scores based on the long form, see Webnote 2 on the website.

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire – Short Form (TEIQue-SF). This is a 30-item questionnaire designed to measure *global* trait emotional intelligence (trait EI). It is based on the long form of the TEIQue (Petrides, 2001). Two items from each of the 15 subscales of the TEIQue were selected for inclusion, based primarily on their correlations with the corresponding total subscale scores. This procedure was followed in order to ensure adequate internal consistencies and broad coverage of the sampling domain of the construct. Items were responded to on a 7-point Likert scale. The TEIQue has been constructed with the aim of providing comprehensive coverage of the trait EI domain (Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

Petrides, K. V. (in press). Psychometric properties of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue). In C. Stough, D. H. Saklofske, and J. D. A. Parker (eds.), *Advances in the measurement of emotional intelligence*. New York : Springer.

Petrides, K. V. & Furnham, A. (2001). Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies. *European Journal of Personality*, 15, 425-448.

Reference for the TEIQue-SF: Petrides, K. V. & Furnham, A. (2006). *The role of trait emotional intelligence in a gender-specific model of organizational variables*. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 36, 552-569.

Please note that any commercial use of this instrument is strictly prohibited.

If you would like to use the long form of the TEIQue, please e-mail me at: k.petrides@ucl.ac.uk

Appendix C

Instructions: Please answer each statement below by typing the number that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement into the column under rating. Do not think too long about the exact meaning of the statements. Work quickly and try to answer as accurately as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. There are seven possible responses to each statement ranging from ‘Completely Disagree’ (nr. 1) to ‘Completely Agree’ (nr. 7). Please see below scoring key for more clarity:

	1. Completely Disagree	2. Strongly Disagree	3. Disagree	4. Uncertain	5. Agree	6. Strongly Agree	7. Completely Agree
nr.	Statement						Rating
1	I found the Wellness Program benefitted me.						
2	Expressing my emotions with words is not a problem for me.						
3	I often find it difficult to see things from another person’s viewpoint.						
4	The Wellness Program increased my happiness.						
5	On the whole, I’m a highly motivated person.						
6	I usually find it difficult to regulate my emotions.						
7	I experienced an improvement in relationships since the Wellness Program.						
8	I generally don’t find life enjoyable.						
9	I can deal effectively with people.						
10	Since I completed the Wellness Program, I’m more able to handle difficult situations / problems						
11	I tend to change my mind frequently.						
12	Many times, I can’t figure out what emotion I’m feeling.						
13	I can communicate better since completing the program.						
14	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.						
15	I often find it difficult to stand up for my rights.						
16	I can deal better with my stress levels since completing the Wellness Program.						
17	I’m usually able to influence the way other people feel.						
18	On the whole, I have a gloomy perspective on most things.						
19	Planning my day has benefitted me.						
20	Those close to me often complain that I don’t treat them right.						
21	I often find it difficult to adjust my life according to the circumstances.						
22	Since the completion of the Wellness program, I have started to plan my day more.						
23	On the whole, I’m able to deal with stress.						
24	I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me.						
25	Family relationships have improved due to the Wellness Program.						
26	I’m normally able to “get into someone’s shoes” and experience their emotions.						
27	I normally find it difficult to keep myself motivated.						
28	The Wellness Program has helped me to deal with my emotions more effectively.						
29	I’m usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.						
30	On the whole, I’m pleased with my life.						
31	I did not get anything positive from the Wellness Program.						
32	I would describe myself as a good negotiator.						
33	I tend to get involved in things I later wish I could get out of.						
34	My Happiness has not been bettered by the Wellness Program.						
35	I often pause and think about my feelings.						
36	I believe I’m full of personal strengths.						
37	There has been no relationship that improved since the Wellness Program						

nr.	Statement	Rating
38	I tend to “back down” even if I know I’m right.	
39	I don’t seem to have any power at all over other people’s feelings.	
40	The Program did not assist me in dealing with problems / difficult situations.	
41	I generally believe that things will work out fine in my life.	
42	I find it difficult to bond well even with those close to me.	
43	My Communication skills have not increased since completing the Wellness Program.	
44	Generally, I’m able to adapt to new environments.	
45	Others admire me for being relaxed.	
46	My Stress Management skills have not increased.	
47	In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	
48	The conditions of my life are excellent.	
49	As far as I’m concerned planning and happiness don’t have anything to do with each other.	
50	I am satisfied with my life.	
51	My planning has not been effected by the Wellness Program.	
52	So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	
53	My Family life has not benefitted due to the program at all.	
54	If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	
55	I cannot deal with my emotions better since I completed the program.	

Thank you for your cooperation in the program. Please return this document to me via e-mail:

ntf@iway.na

or fax it to the following telephone number:

(061) 221758

If none of the above are not possible please feel free to contact me at the following numbers:

0811281626 or

(061) 221459

Please also feel free to contact me at the above numbers if you should need any further assistance in any area of your life or in the life of your family members!

Once again I thank you for your cooperation and re-commit myself to keeping all information that I have received from you confidential. The content of this questionnaire will be used to evaluate the Program and no personal detail will be given out during the reports and the writings that will come out as a result of the program. You are more than welcome to request a feedback session with myself to get informed as to the results of your personal results and the general report will also be forwarded to you in due

Kind Regards,

Siegfried Lange