

SKILLS DEVELOPMENT LEARNING PROGRAMMES AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE COMPETENCIES

by

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DECLARATION

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I declare that *Skills development learning programmes and the development of emotional intelligence competencies* is my own work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

SIGNATURE

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SUMMARY

This study investigated whether skills development learning programmes specifically internship programme in the public service sector are effective in improving interns' emotional intelligence competences. A convenience sample of 66 interns was obtained. The interns, two peers and a mentor assessed the intern's emotional intelligence competencies twice, at the beginning and towards the end of the internship programme with the aid the 360° Emotional and Social Intelligence Inventory (ESCI). A total of 264 participants completed the inventory. Mean competency ratings were compared to determine if there were differences between the first and the second assessments. There were statistically significant differences for Organisational Awareness, Adaptability, Influence, Teamwork, Empathy, Emotional Self Awareness, Conflict Management and Inspirational Leadership. No statistically significant differences were found in the overall development of emotional intelligence based on gender. However, female interns improved more in Emotional Self-Awareness while males improved more in Inspirational Leadership and Coaching. Skills development internship learning programme in the public service appear to be effective in furthering interns' emotional intelligence competencies at work.

KEY TERMS: emotional intelligence competencies, skills development learning programmes, internship programmes, workplace learning, employability, generic skills, soft skills, Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI).

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The South African education and training system is such that learners exit education and training institutions ill-prepared to face the world of work. They lack practical work experience and generic and occupationally directed skills that are required by employers. Consequently, their opportunities of getting employment after completing their post-school education and training are limited. As a result, they become less employable and remain unemployed (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010).

To equip young people with skills that would increase their chances of securing employment, skills development learning programmes have been designed and provided in all economic sectors. For those who have completed matric as the highest level of education, learnership programmes are the most preferred type of skills development learning programmes. These are regarded as the effective vehicle to empower matriculants to compete for employment in the labour market (Babb & Meyer, 2005; Chonco & Folscher, 2006; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010).

For those who have completed their post school qualifications at universities and Further Education and Training (FET) colleges, or are on the verge of completing, internship programmes have become the most preferred type of skills development learning programmes particularly in the public service sector (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2006). The provision of internship programmes is an effort to equip young graduates with employability skills.

Ideally, all skills development learning programmes are supposed to be holistic in approach. They are expected to focus on both technical, occupation-specific skills as well as generic, transferable human behavioural competencies that are needed to be successful in the world of work (Department of Labour, 2005; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010). Human behavioural competencies provide the foundation upon which all other technical skills are built regardless of the field of occupation (Department of Labour, 2005; Nyathi, Stewart, & Janisch, 2008).

Emotional self-regulation and management are central to human behaviour. It is crucial for people to be aware of and control their emotions in the workplace. It is also equally important to be aware of and manage other people's emotions as they interact in work environments (Goleman, 2000, 2005).

This raises the question of whether skills development learning programmes develop learner's capabilities to be aware of and control their emotions as well as those of other people in their work environments.

1.2 Background to the research

In the South African skills development context, the curriculum for learning programmes includes critical cross-field outcomes. These are human behavioural attributes that cut across various fields of occupations (South African Qualifications Authority, 2001; Department of Labour, 2005;) and are vital for effective performance in the workplace (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Griesel & Parker, 2009) and the development of life-long learning (Nyathi et al., 2008).

Literature on skills development has identified a list of such attributes that are said to be required by employers and need to be developed through skills development interventions including internship programmes. These include identifying and solving problems; interpersonal skills; teamwork; effective communication and the development of self, (that is, self-awareness, self-management, self-knowledge) in relation to the world of work, as well as diversity awareness and management (Chonco & Folscher, 2006; Department of Labour, 2005; Nyathi *et al.*, 2008).

Central to these human behaviours are emotions that have to be recognized and controlled for effective interactions in workplace environments. As such, some psychologists, for example Daniel Goleman, Peter Salovey and John Mayer refer to these capabilities as emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2000, 2005). They believe and emphasised that people with well developed dimensions of emotional intelligence such as self-motivation, self-confidence, social skills including communication, adaptability, teamwork and empathy, have better chances of being successful in finding employment and coping well with the changing demands of the world of work (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Goleman, 2000, 2005; Maynard, 2003).

Research on skills development learning programmes has shown that participation in these programmes improves the participants' generic work related skills (Babb & Meyer, 2005; Kraak, Kruss, & Visser, 2009; Kruss & Visser, 2009; Marock, 2008). However, there has not been much focus on the development of skills that are directly linked to an individual's ability to be aware of and control their emotions, ability to be aware of and manage other people's emotions at work.

Although skills development literature makes it clear that the curriculum for all skills development interventions have to incorporate the development of critical cross-field outcomes it is not clear whether these learning programmes, particularly internship programmes, are effective in developing work related human behavioural attributes.

This research therefore focusses on skills development internship learning programmes to evaluate if they indeed develop these attributes, which are here referred to as emotional intelligence competencies.

The emotional intelligence dimensions that are of specific reference include:

- a) *Self-awareness*: which refers to accurate assessment of self, knowing and understanding of own strengths and weaknesses as well as awareness of inner state of emotional affairs. This is about recognition of one's own emotions and how they affect other people in immediate environments (Goleman, 1998)
- b) *Self-management*: the ability to manage one's own internal state of emotions, one's controlling own frustrations and moods so that they do not affect others negatively; the ability to maintain required standards of honesty and integrity; and to take responsibility and accountability for one's own actions and the ability to adapt to the changing situations (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001)
- c) *Self-motivation*: the ability to set own goals and standards; to align them to the environment around; and to persistently strive to achieve them. This involves the ability to use the available opportunities, to find ways to work around obstacles and to achieve set goals (Goleman et al., 2002).
- d) *Social awareness*: being aware of other people's emotions, needs and concerns; and being able to put oneself into other people's shoes. It is about awareness of other

people's strengths and weaknesses, an appreciation of diversity in the expression of thoughts and opinions (Boyatzis, 2007).

- e) *Social skills*: interpersonal relations, the capability to interact with other people and manage the effects of their emotions, frustrations and moods. Well-developed social skills are reflected in clear communication with others; effective management of environmental changes; ability to work productively with others in a team, managing disagreements and resolving conflicts (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Emotional Intelligence Consortium, 2010; Goleman, et al., 2002; Hay Group 2011).

These capabilities are expected to be learned through participation in skills development learning programmes which include internship learning programmes.

1.3 Motivation to undertake the study

In the process of recruitment and selection for employment, the requirements are usually categorised into formal qualifications, knowledge and skills, as well as generic work-related skills.

Various terms are used to refer to the generic work-related skills, such as: soft skills; personal attributes; human behavioural competencies; personal qualities; behavioural qualities; personal effectiveness and critical cross-field outcomes. All these terms refer to the learned capabilities to behave in a way that reflect an awareness of what is acceptable at the place of work and to respect the organizations' ethics and code of conduct. In this study, these capabilities are referred to as emotional intelligence competencies.

Training institutions that prepare young people for the world of work are supposed to design the curriculum in such way that they include the development of these attributes. In the South African context, skills development interventions are meant to endow young, potential employees with the required job knowledge, occupation-directed skills and personal attributes.

The undertaking of this study was stimulated by the curiosity to find out if skills development learning programmes, particularly internship learning programmes, further equip potential employees with personal attributes that are required in places of work.

In the public service sector, the Public Service Internship Programme recommends certain soft skills to be developed by these programmes (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2006). Interns are learners participating in skills development internship learning programmes. As such these two terms: learners and interns are used interchangeably in the study.

1.4 Purpose of the research

The purpose of this research is to evaluate if skills development internship learning programmes are effective in developing the emotional intelligence competencies of learners or the interns.

The frame of reference is the emotional intelligence model developed by Goleman working with Boyatzis (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000). This model is premised on four emotional intelligence dimensions: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. In the study, learners' emotional intelligence competencies are assessed based on these dimensions. The assessment is done two times: before and after the administration of the programme, to evaluate its effectiveness on emotional intelligence competencies.

1.5 Research questions

The main questions for this study are:

- Do skills development internship learning programmes improve the interns' emotional intelligence?
- Are there demographic differences in terms of gender and age in the development of emotional intelligence competencies?

The expectation is that participants' emotional intelligence competencies show an improvement at the end of training programmes on the emotional intelligence measures.

1.6 The scope of the study

This study is partially replicated from the study undertaken by Davies and Bryer at Griffith University in Australia, on the development of emotional intelligence competencies of teachers through teacher education programme (Davies & Bryer, 2010).

The study covered internship learning programmes within the public service sector accredited and managed by the Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority (PSETA) in Pretoria. Participants were sourced from government departments participating in the public service internship programme in 2013. About 100 learners were anticipated to participate depending on their availability and willingness to be part of the study but the final sample consisted of 66 participants in the initial and final assessments.

1.7 Chapter breakdown

In order to address the purpose, the study will be broken down into the following chapters:

Chapter 2

This chapter reflects skills development literature relevant to the study particularly skills development learning programmes, which include internship learning programmes in the South African context. This will be compared to the international literature on vocational and training programmes.

Chapter 3

In this chapter, the study is contextualized by reviewing the soft skills needed in the workplace as modelled in the emotional intelligence framework. This includes definitions; models of Daniel Goleman and Boyatzis in particular; the value of emotional intelligence in the workplace and in relation to employability in the South African context. The issue of how these competencies are learned is also addressed. This chapter is framed in terms of previous locally and international research.

Chapter 4

The research method used to conduct the study is covered in this chapter. This includes processes to gain access and use the instrument to collect data, processes to source study participants, sampling methods, data collection and analysis methods.

Chapter 5

The analysis and interpretation of all statistical tests performed on the collected data, findings and recommendations are reported in this chapter.

Chapter 6

This chapter will conclude the study by providing the summary pertaining to the following: demographic distributions of participants, the reliability of the instrument used to measure interns' emotional intelligence competencies, and the results of the descriptive analysis of collected data in answering the research questions and hypotheses. Limitations (strengths, weaknesses) of this study and recommendations for further studies will also be covered.

1.8 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, contextual background of skills development in the South African labour market was discussed to provide an understanding of the background to this research. The need for the development of both occupation-specific, hard skills as well as generic, transferable soft skills to improve the chances of employability for the South African youth were discussed.

The purpose of the research together with research questions to be answered, the scope of the research in terms of sources, geographic coverage and demographic characteristics of participants were also put into perspective discussed. Finally, the breakdown of all chapters to be covered was provided.

CHAPTER 2: NATIONAL SKILLS DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK AND WORKPLACE-BASED LEARNING PROGRAMMES

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the background to skills development including the South African labour market context, and the evolution of skills development system is discussed. Major role players, for example, the government, Sector Education and Training Authorities, employers and education and training institutions are also discussed.

Skills development learning programmes, for example, apprenticeships, learnerships and internship programmes, which are also referred to as workplace-based training programmes are reviewed including the design of training programmes and roles and responsibilities of all stakeholders.

Empirical research on the need for the development of generic work-related soft skills and the effectiveness of these workplace-based skills development learning programmes in developing the needed soft skills, also referred to as emotional intelligence competencies in this study is reviewed. Finally, the international perspective on the role of skills development programmes in developing behavioural attributes needed in places of work are discussed.

2.2 Background to skills development

The South African education and training system is such that learners exit the system relatively ill-prepared to enter the world of work. According to the Department of Higher Education and Training They lack employment related skills, not only technical, occupation-specific skills, but also behavioural attributes that are needed to be successful in the world of work. As a result, it becomes difficult to get employment, especially for those who are entering the world of work for the first time (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011).

Employers prefer to employ skilled individuals, people who can hit the ground running and do not need basic training before they can do the job. They need to be equipped with the required skills, mindset and attitudes before they can do the job to the satisfaction of the employers (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010c). This situation affects the

labour market negatively. It creates imbalances between the supply and demand of skills. The demand for skilled employees is higher than what the education and training system is producing, hence the outcry of skills shortages (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010; 2011).

The majority of the unemployed South African citizens are young people (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Most of them have gone through the schooling system and have completed their post-school education and training qualifications from universities and FET colleges or are about to complete. They want to enter the world of work for the first time, but they lack practical work experience and competency in work-related behavioural attributes. As such, skills development learning programmes have been designed to close these gaps. These programmes are workplace-based and are provided by employers in their workplaces in partnership with Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) in various economic sectors.

2.2.1 The South African labour market context

The South African labour market is characterised by high levels of unemployment, amongst young people. This has a direct linkage to skills shortage particularly to the new entrants into the labour market. These people do not have the required skills and competencies, and this makes them less employable (Babb & Meyer, 2005; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010c).

There are various other factors that are directly linked to the demand for skilled and capable labour force including globalisation, technological advancements, structural changes in the economy and others (Department of Labour, 2001; Nam, 2009).

Globalisation has a causal effect in skills shortage. South Africa is part of the global community. Employers have to compete in the global labour markets in searching for skilled and capable workforce. As much as employers search for skilled employees in the global markets, skilled, competent and well experienced employees sell their skills in the global markets. They get grabbed by employers outside the country (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011b).

This situation creates persistent skills shortages in South Africa, which demands continuous and improved efforts to produce the needed skills (Department of Labour, 2001). As such, all skills development learning programmes, including those provided in the public service have to meet global standards and expand from the list of basic personal attributes recommended by public service and administration authorities (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2006).

2.2.2 The evolution of the Skills Development System

The relationship between institutions of labour supply (education and training) and labour demand (employers) have a connective effect to the imbalances between the supplied and demanded labour in this country. Research indicates that these institutions have not been consulting effectively on skills issues. Employers have not been communicating their skills needs to education and training institutions and education and training institutions have been providing training and producing skilled individuals without information on what skills do employers actually need to maintain and grow the economy (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012).

As a result, education and training system produces too many graduates in the fields that are not highly needed by the economy. These graduates could not be effectively absorbed into the world of work because they did not possess the knowledge and skills that the labour market needed (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011).

Even in the sectors of economy where these skills were needed, (e.g. Social Sciences) the economic capacity could not accommodate all of them because of their large numbers (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010 & 2012; National Planning Commission, 2011). To deal with the development of skills that are needed by the labour market, skills development legislative framework was promulgated by the South African government.

Initially, the mandate of skills development was under the Department of Labour (DoL) and was later shifted to the Department Higher Education and Training in 2009. The initial

positioning of the skills development mandate also had a contributory effect on skills shortage.

The Sector Education and Training Authorities which are responsible for the management and administration of skills provisioning were under the Department of Labour, while training institutions were under the department of education. This arrangement did not work effectively (National Planning Commission, 2011).

In an effort to resolve this situation, the South African government established the Department of Higher Education and Training in 2009 and mandated it with the oversight responsibility of post-school education and training and skills development (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010b).

Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) which are the central nerve in skills development were also moved from the Department of Labour to Department of Higher Education and Training. The incorporation of SETAs, under Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), was intended to provide clearer pathways from education and training institutions to the world of work and facilitate strengthened communication channels between employers and education and training institutions (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011a).

The labour market imbalance is still a challenge which the Department of Higher Education and Training is trying to address through the recently developed White Paper on Post-school Education and Training (Department of higher Education and Training, 2012).

2.3 Major role players in skills development system

The skills development system, best described as the system of capacitating the economically active population and developing skills needed to grow the economy is a multi-pillar system. It is made up of different inter-dependent role players' namely, the government, employers, Sectors Education and Training Authorities as well as education and training institutions (universities and FET Colleges).

Each stakeholder has important roles to play and as such, failure of one stakeholder to play and fulfil allocated roles and responsibilities has negative impact in the effective functioning

of the whole system. Even though some of these stakeholders are autonomous, they have to function in ways that complement each other (Department of Labour,1998; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011b).

2.3.1 The government

Like all other governments in other parts of the world, the South African government is very active in skills development. It is an engine of the system. It designs the mechanisms to enable all other pillars to function effectively. In the development of these mechanisms, it consults with all role players. This is of utmost importance to ensure that consensus, inter-dependent and complimentary functioning of the system is attained (Filmer, 2012).

The government's main responsibility is to create enabling environments, to develop legislative frameworks, policies and ensure that strategies to implement those policies are in place. It is also the role of the government to monitor and evaluate the impact of these policies in the labour market and economy at large (Department of Labour, 1998).

Before developing enabling mechanisms the government assesses the rationale. Post 1994, the government diagnosed skills challenges that the labour market was experiencing and thus hindering economic growth and social development. The diagnosis showed that there was a need to develop skills particularly for the previously disadvantaged people, in order to bring about equality and social development (Chonco & Folscher, 2006).

Consequently, two legislations on skills development namely the Skills Development Act and Skills Development Levies Act were promulgated in 1998 and 1999 respectively. Thereafter, in 2001 the first phase of National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS I) was developed to guide the implementation of these two legislations (Chonco & Folscher, 2006; Department of Labour, 2001).

Other government strategies that have a bearing on national skills development include South African Qualifications Authority (South African Qualifications Authority, 2001); the government's outcome of *skilled and capable workforce to support an inclusive growth path* that is, Outcome 5 Delivery Agreement (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010b) ; the Skills Summit (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010a); National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS III) (Department of Higher Education and Training, ,

2010c) Human Resources Development Strategy (HRDS), (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011a); National Skills Accord (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2011b); New Growth Path (Department of Trade and Industry, 2011a); Industrial Policy Action Plan2 (IPAP2), (Department of Trade and Industry, 2011b); National Development Plan (NDP) (National Planning Commission, 2012) and the White Paper for Post-School Education and Training (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012). All these policies, strategies and agreements emphasise collaboration between all stakeholders for effective development of skills for the country's economic growth, social development, equality and employment.

Skills Development Act (Act No. 97 of 1998)

Skills Development Act (SDA) regulates the development of skills for the South African labour force and provides for skills development learning programmes including internships, learnership and apprenticeships programmes. The act encourages employers to use their workplaces as active practical learning environments and employees to participate in skills development learning programmes (Chonco & Folscher, 2006; Department of Labour, 1999;).

Skills Development Levies Act (Act No. 9 of 1999)

Skills Development Levies Act (SDLA) regulates financial investment in training and provides financial incentives for skills development. It installs a skills development grant system with incentives for training and supports cost–benefit approach to training (Chonco & Folscher, 2006; Department of Labour, 1999).

National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS)

National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) was developed to implement Skills Development Act and Skills Development Levies Act. This strategy has evolved over three phases. Each phase has a five year life span. The first phase was developed in 2001 and was in operation until 2005. Thereafter the second phased was put in place, which also lasted until 2010. The third phase and the current phase was launched in 2011 and is expected to be in operation until 2015 (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010c; Department of Labour, 2001; 2005)

When NSDS was initially conceptualised, its main aim was to guide the equipment of South Africans with the skills that are needed to succeed in the global market, especially young

people who are entering the labour market for the first time. The targeted groups were the unemployed and employed youth with matric certificates and below. People with post-school, three year tertiary qualifications did not really form part of the targeted groups at that time (Department of Labour, 2001).

The strategy was criticised for the exclusion of young graduates. It was also criticised for focusing mainly on learnership programmes at the disadvantage of apprenticeship and internship programmes (Department of Labour 2001 and 2005; Nyathi *et al.*, 2008).

As a result, in NSDS III the focus expanded to include apprenticeships and internships programmes for people with qualifications from institutions of higher learning. The shift in focus was also facilitated by the repositioning of skills development mandate (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010a, 2010c).

Like the first two phases, NSDS III also encourages and facilitates the integration of theoretical knowledge in the classroom with the practical work experience in the real world of work. Throughout all three phases, the skills development strategy seeks to address challenges that limit employability of young people. Poor work readiness (behavioural competencies) and work ethics amongst young people entering the world of work for the first time across all sectors, remains the central challenge (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010a, 2010c).

This challenge is exacerbated by poor linkages between education and training institutions and places of work. For skills development system to be successful in integrating theoretical learning and practical work, strong partnerships between training institutions, employers in all economic sectors and SETAs is crucial (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012).

2.3.2 Sector Education and Training Authorities

SETAs are the central nerve, playing the crucial role in skills provisioning system. They are tasked with the responsibility to diagnose the skills needs in their respective economic sectors and further ensure that the identified skills are provided. They have to collect data and information on the skills needs and shortages from employers.

Data is analysed and results are presented in the form of sector skills plans (SSPs) (Department of Labour, 2001). In order to produce accurate, verifiable, timely, meaningful, organised and useful information, SETAs need to collect valuable labour market data and information. Sector skills plans are communicated to training institutions and SETAs advise them on prioritisation and articulation of the required skills. Training institutions depend on this information in reviewing and developing programmes that are responsive to the country's skills needs (Falkov, Marock, & Johnson, 2012).

SETAs act as mediators between labour supply institutions (education and training institutions) and labour demand institutions (employers', including government and its entities). The Department of Higher Education and Training oversees the establishment and maintenance of partnerships between these institutions (Department of Higher Education and Training 2011a, 2011b).

If SETA's do not effectively and continually mediate between these institutions, the economy stands a risk of experiencing a persistent mismatch between the skills supplied by training providers and the skills needed (demanded) by employers.

It is also the responsibility of SETAs to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of strategies to provide the needed skills. The success of skills development system in South Africa depends largely on the efficiency and effectiveness of SETAs in carrying out their responsibilities. Research has indicated that SETAs have not been able to play their role effectively and as such the required skills do not get prioritised and articulated as expected to meet the demands (Falkov *et al.*, 2012).

Some reasons attributed to failure of SETAs in this regard are that they do not sufficiently involve employers in the collection of data on skills demands. Therefore the generated sector skills plans (SSPs) do not provide valuable information to address existing needs. As such, training institutions continue to supply skills that are not relevant to grow the country's economy (Falkov *et al.*, 2012).

This increases the number of educated but incapable and therefore unemployable young people. They are incapable because they are unable to meet the needs of the employers.

Employers need balanced individuals who have both occupation-specific (hard) skills and behavioural (soft) skills (Falkov et al., 2012; Nam, 2009).

2.3.3 The employers

The success of skills development system depends heavily on employers. They have to provide SETA's with information on skills that are needed to grow the economy. They also have a voice in ensuring that training strategies and policies are indeed effective in producing the required skills. Employers also finance the provision of training through levies that they have to pay as determined by the Skills Development Levies Act of 1998 (Filmer, 2012).

As education and training institutions provide theoretical aspect of training, employers are tasked with the responsibility of providing the practical aspect. They have to open up their workplaces to provide learners with experiential learning and create employment opportunities for those who have completed their training programmes. However, they are not compelled to absorb all learners who have done their internship and experiential learning with them (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010c, 2011b).

Experiential learning is provided through skills development learning programmes. During the practical experience period, employers have to appoint mentors to guide, supervise and assess learners' performance and exhibition of the needed competencies. Learners are assessed holistically, that is, both job-specific (hard) skills and behavioural (soft) skills required to be effective at work are assessed. Without the contribution of employers, all endeavours to develop skills would be futile (Department of Higher Education and Training 2011b; Falkov *et al.*, 2012).

2.3.4 Education and training institutions

The role of education and training institutions, both public and private, is that of labour supply. They provide the needed skills according to the sector skills plans developed and provided by SETAs. Based on these plans, education and training institutions are expected to design instructional programmes that are responsive to employers' skills needs (Department of Higher Education and Training 2011a; Falkov *et al.*, 2012; Filmer, 2012).

The instructional programmes provided need to meet the international competitive standards. It is for this reason that quality assurance authorities are established to ensure that the supplied skills are of good quality. Quality assurance bodies in the South African education and training system include, for example South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), Higher Education Quality Committee (HEQC), SETA Education and Training Quality Assurance bodies (linked to each SETA) and Quality Council for Trades and Occupations (QCTO), (Department of Higher Education and Training 2011a).

The role of education and training institutions in promoting employability of learners has been questioned. It has been argued that in the previous decade, South Africa and other international countries' vocational training institutions and workplaces have not been particularly effective in promoting the individual's return on investment in education and training. They have not been as fruitful as required in developing personal effectiveness competencies that are needed to succeed in the world of work (Kruss, 2004; 2012; McGrath, 2009).

2.4 Skills development learning programmes

These are workplace-based learning programmes. It is said that the most effective occupation-directed learning comes from the integration of theoretical learning in the classroom, and practical experiential learning at the workplace. As such, South African government places more emphasis on the promotion of work-integrated and workplace-based learning. These learning opportunities are facilitated and funded by SETAs in collaboration with employers (Department of Higher Education and Training 2010c).

Skills development learning programmes for the unemployed people prioritised in this category include apprenticeship learnership and internship learning programmes. Employers play a crucial role in the provisioning of these programmes and have to work closely with SETAs and training institutions. Participants in these programmes are generally referred to as learners (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010c).

2.4.1 Apprenticeship programmes

Apprenticeship is defined as an old-aged training system which includes both theoretical and practical components, aimed at equipping individuals with technical (trade-type), ‘practical’ skills for example electricians, motor mechanics, boiler makers etc. Apprenticeship learning programmes lead to artisan qualification. To qualify as an artisan and get certificated, apprentices (as they are normally referred to) have to undergo trade testing, which is a competency evaluation process. If they are found competent a trade certificate is issued that certifies them as a qualified artisan (Babb & Meyer, 2005; Department of Labour, 2005).

2.4.2 Learnership programmes

Learnership programmes are a workplace-based skills development learning programmes which also combine theoretical and practical components. They are a structured learning experience where theory is learned in the class room and practical component at the workplace (Department of Labour, 2001, 2005). The aim is to prepare individuals for the world of work, equipping them with both occupation-specific and generic work related skills, so that they ultimately get a qualification and recognition status in their specific fields (Babb & Meyer, 2005). Learnership programmes are designed for young people who have who have completed matric as their highest educational qualification.

The qualification is registered on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF), and for this to happen, unit standards (modules) of the programme have to be registered with SAQA, (South African Qualifications Authority, 2001). The SAQA guidelines for the registration of a unit standard stipulate that all unit standards must clearly specify critical cross-field outcomes (CFOs) in which learners must be competent before they receive a qualification (Department of Labour, 2001, 2005; Nyathi *et al.*, 2008; South African Qualifications Authority, 2001).

2.4.3 Internship programmes

An internship is a workplace-based experiential learning programme for learners who have completed or about to complete their qualifications at higher education and training institutions. The two categories of skills development internship programmes are student internship and graduate internship learning programmes (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2006).

Student internship programmes are compulsory for learners who have to gain practical work-based experience before they are awarded a qualification and graduate. Arrangements are made with employers by training institutions in collaboration with SETAs to place students at workplaces so that they are exposed to the world of work and gain practical work experience (Van der Berg, 2012).

Graduate internship programmes are optional as on the job training opportunities. Interns (as they are normally called) do not get a salary, but receive a stipend paid by the SETAs. Unlike student interns who are placed, graduate interns have to apply for the advertised internship opportunities and go through the normal recruitment and selection processes. The intention is to afford them opportunities to transform the theoretical knowledge gained from the institutions of higher learning, into practical experience acquired in the dynamic world of work. In both types of internships, interns sign a contract, and operate on a structured competency development programme. They are assigned mentors to supervise their work, assess their competency levels and work performance as well as provide periodic evidence of their progress (Department of Labour, 2005).

The purpose of internship is to address lack of practical work experience and exposure to the realities of the world of work as well as reduce youth unemployment, although on temporal basis (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012)

2.5 The design of workplace-based skills development learning programmes

Workplace-based learning programmes are designed in such a way that the main role players are SETAs, employers, training providers, SAQA, learners (who are participants in these programmes) and the government.

Employers

The need for training is initiated by employers, who identify skills shortages. They then communicate their needs to relevant SETAs. In partnership with SETAs, they determine the programme that would be best appropriate to provide the needed skills. Employers have to open up their workplace and provide on-the-job learning opportunities to learners for the duration of the programme (Babb & Meyer, 2005).

While learners are at their workplaces, employers have to treat them as their employees and allow them basic benefits that their permanent employees enjoy, for example, leave of absence from work. They have to sign a performance contract (training programme) with learners, allocate mentors who have to mentor guide, assess learners' progress periodically and ultimately attest to the attainment of needed competencies (Department of Labour, 2001; Department of Higher Education and Training, 2010c)

Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs)

SETAs are at the forefront and play a crucial role in overseeing successful implementation of skills development learning programmes. They lead the whole process from the beginning to the end. They are tasked with the responsibility of collaborating with employers and identifying the skills needed in the sector and determining the learning programme that is the best suited to provide them. They approve learning programmes and ensure that they are registered with South African Qualifications Authority (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2012).

The approval is based on the assessment to determine if the programme will meet the identified skills needs. It is also SETAs responsibility to ensure that the qualification culminated through the programme is compliant with National Qualifications Framework before the programme is implemented (Department of Labour, 2001; South African Qualifications Authority, 2001).

SETAs manage the whole process and provide funding. In the case of learnerships and apprenticeships they have to identify training providers, register learners, draw up contracts and ensure that training providers are paid and learners get their stipends. They also have to ensure that the quality of training that learners receive ultimately yields them competent in both hard and soft skills needed. For this reason they have to work closely with Sector Education and Training Quality Assurance bodies (ETQAs). Monitoring and evaluation of the implementation processes and the overall effectiveness of programmes is also SETAs responsibility (Department of Labour, 2001).

Programme participants

Programme participants are individuals who have registered and are participating in learning programmes. They are often referred to as interns for the internship programme, learners for

the learnership programme and apprentices for apprenticeship programmes. Participants have to sign contracts with the SETAs, and employers for the duration of training programme. Each participant has to ensure that they participate in all scheduled training opportunities from induction to assessment and meet behavioural expectations (Department of Labour, 2001).

The government

As Babb and Meyer (2005) maintain, the role of the government is to provide legal frameworks for the system; to provide a conducive environment for all role players to collaborate and to act as the mediator between all role players. The government also has to provide enabling environments to ensure the success and effectiveness of the skills development learning programmes (Babb & Meyer, 2005).

The government monitor and evaluate the impact of legislative frameworks and the harmonious functioning of all organs of the skills development system. It identifies bottlenecks and provides policy direction. It is also the role of the government to evaluate the effectiveness and the impact of programmes in closing skills gap, thereby contributing to the economic growth and social development (Chonco & Folscher, 2006).

2.6 Skills development learning programmes and soft skills needed at workplaces.

The skills development system uses a holistic approach in developing skills. Learning programmes are expected to cover both occupation-specific skills and critical cross-field outcomes, thereby developing a person as a whole. Different economic sectors use different terms to refer to critical cross-field outcomes as explained earlier. In this study these terms are used interchangeably, as referring to emotional intelligence competencies that are transferable and cut across various fields of occupations and sectors.

Human behavioural skills are said to be the foundation upon which all other skills develop. In the workplace, they are vital for effective performance and the development of life-long learning. Literature on national skills development suggest that at the completion of skills development learning programmes, learners are expected to show an improvement in these skills (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Department of Labour, 2005; Goleman, et al., 2002; Nyathi *et al.*, 2008; South African Qualifications Authority, 2001).

A list of basic soft skills that are said to be required by employers and have to be developed through skills development learning programmes has been identified. This includes identifying and solving problems; interpersonal skills; teamwork; effective communication; the development of self-skills, that is, self-awareness, self-confidence, self-management, self-knowledge in relation to the world of work, as well as diversity awareness and management (Chonco & Folscher, 2006; Department of Labour, 2005; Nyathi *et al.*, 2008).

Central to these human behaviours are emotions that have to be recognized and controlled for effective interactions in workplace environments. Goleman emphasises that people with well developed dimensions of emotional intelligence such as self-awareness, self-management, social skills including communication skills and empathy, have better chances of being successful in finding employment and coping well with the changing demands of the world of work (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Goleman, 2000, 2005; Maynard, 2003).

2.7 Empirical evidence on skills development learning programmes and soft skills

Research has shown that participation in skills development learning programmes has improved learners' generic work related soft skills. However, there has not been much focus in the area of an individual's ability to be aware of and control their emotions, ability to be aware of and manage other people's emotions in places of work (Babb & Meyer, 2005; Marock, 2008; Kraak *et al.*, 2009).

In a study conducted by Kraak, Kruss and Visser to investigate the experiences of learners who had participated in skills development learning programmes, those who had already acquired employment, indicated that learning programmes helped them to demonstrate the kind of skills and attitudes that employers value. They confessed that knowledge and experiences that they had gained from learnership programmes empowered them psychologically by improving their self-skills, interpersonal and problem solving skills (Kraak *et al.*, 2009).

Although skills development literature makes it clear that the curriculum for all skills development interventions have to incorporate the development of critical cross-field outcomes, it is not clear whether skills development internship programmes in particular, are indeed effective in this regard.

In a research conducted for the international Business Report in 2010, most employers interviewed in South Africa indicated that their major constraint was access to suitably skilled employees especially new entrants into the labour market. Suitability was explained as referring to meeting the specified job requirements, in terms of qualifications, experience and personal effectiveness competencies (Thornton, 2010).

Employers are looking for balanced individuals, people who are well groomed and display certain acceptable work related behaviours. Technical occupation-specific skills (hard skills) without required human behavioural competencies (soft skills) are not enough to meet workplace demands (Almlund, Mathilde, Duckworth, Heckman & Kautz, 2011; Filmer, 2012)

There is increasing evidence that shortage of sector specific skills also encompasses a lack of soft skills. This therefore calls for efforts to balance soft and hard skills in skills development interventions. According to Filmer (2012), employers are looking for dependable, persistent, adaptable and conscientious individuals.

SETAs have also acknowledged and articulated that soft skills are as equally important as technical (hard) skills. World Bank research has shown that one of the challenges that are facing skills development system is that learners contracted into learning programmes need psychological and social support (Falkov *et al.*, 2012; Filmer, 2012).

In another study to determine the relationship between personality traits, behaviour, economics and success in the world of work, it was revealed that there are certain behaviours that are key predictors of success in finding employment. The study also showed that there is a high correlation between high job performance and emotional stability as well as good interpersonal relation and socio-emotional stability. Employees displaying these behaviours are most likely to be more successful in the world of work than their counter parts (Filmer, 2012).

Consequent to this study further research generated more evidence about these relationships. Most of employers interviewed voiced out that they want employees with good interpersonal relations, socio-emotional skills, dependability, emotional stability, persistence and people

who can work in teams. The study also showed that such employees had high work performance (Almlund *et al.*, 2011).

Findings of a study set out to measure soft skills that correlate with high earnings revealed that cognitive skills, interpersonal relations, perseverance and socio-emotional skills correlated highly with high earnings. It showed that these skills that affect success at both training institutions and in places work. This evidence suggests that at the completion of a learning programme and developing learners' soft skills should improve the situation, if training is responsive to the skills needs of the employers (Almund *et al.*, 2011).

2.8 International perspectives on skills development

Governments internationally support the notion that the content of skills development programmes offered at further education and training colleges as well as vocational colleges should also focus on work-readiness outcomes. Private education and training providers, further and higher education and training institutions are expected to transform their curriculum and ensure that they include skills that promote employability of their learners. This also applies to work-based learning programmes (Harvey, 1999; McGrath, 2009).

It has been argued that in the previous decade, Britain's vocational training institutions and workplaces have not been particularly effective in promoting the improvement of individual's personal attributes required by the labour market. Public education and vocational institutions have a history of poor interactive relations with the employers and as such are divorced from rapid changes and industrial realities (McGrath 2009).

In Australia the government adopted an employability skills framework which provides a list of indicators for the development of behavioural skills that are required by employers. Included in the list are interpersonal relations, self-management, ability to work in a team and socio-emotional management. The responsibility of ensuring that learners are competent in these skills rests on education and training institutions (Cleary, Flynn, & Thomasson, 2006).

In Peru, studies have shown that employers want employees with good interpersonal skills, reliability, high self-awareness and self-management, and the socio-emotional skills of being aware and able to manage other people's emotions. This study also revealed that this is

applicable to all employees regardless of whether they have higher or lower educational qualifications and that these skills are more important to those with low education qualifications (Almund *et al.*, 2011).

2.9 Chapter Summary

In South Africa and abroad, literature and empirical research has indicated that employers need balanced individuals. They need employees with occupation-specific knowledge and experience as well as work related personal effectiveness competencies required to be successful at work.

In their diagnosis of skills shortage, SETAs have acknowledged that soft skills are also in short supply. As such, skills development learning programmes, including internship learning programmes need to develop learners holistically. They have to increase learners' potential to be successful economically in the world of work, and socially in their personal lives.

It is the responsibility of all role players in the skills development system to ensure that behavioural skills are incorporated in the curriculum for all skills development learning programmes. Nonetheless, the system has been questioned in this regard. It has been argued that skills development programmes have not been particularly effective in developing behavioural skills that are needed to succeed in the world of work.

It is therefore imperative to embark on a research to find out if workplace-based skills development initiatives, particularly internship programmes within the public sector, promote the development of self-skills that is, emotional intelligence capabilities required to be effective in the workplace.

CHAPTER 3: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the study is contextualised by reviewing emotional intelligence theories and the importance of emotional intelligence competencies in the world of work. Emotional intelligence is a better predictor of success at the workplace. People who are emotionally intelligent are more likely to be successful and happier at work and in life (Goleman, 2005).

Emotional and social intelligence competencies are acquired through socialisation (Bar-On, 1997). It is vital that training interventions develop and improve these competencies, which are said to be oriented to the real world practicalities (Hein, 2003). Attention will be given to the definitions; assessment methods and how emotional intelligence competencies are acquired.

Further attention will be given to the comparison of emotional intelligence competencies with employability skills needed by South African employers. Special focus will be given to Daniel Goleman's model of emotional and social intelligence (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000) which is the model on which the research is grounded.

3.2 Defining emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a difficult construct to define. There is no definition that is globally agreed upon (Murphy, 2006). Various theorists define it in many diverse ways. However, what is common in these definitions is that the construct of emotional intelligence has to do with the realisation and understanding of personal emotions and keeping them under control as well as awareness, understanding and management of other people's emotions in social interactions (Badenhorst & Smith 2007).

3.2.1 *Broad definitions of emotional intelligence*

In an effort to create linkages between diverse definitions of this construct, some researchers in this field grouped definitions into three broad groups (Murphy, 2006). These groupings are ability, personality traits and interpersonal communication.

The first group is more focused on personal emotions and the ability to cognitively process emotional impulses in order to have control over any action resulting from emotional inclinations. It links emotion to cognitive activities of reasoning and decision making. Thus, the main focus of this group is more on the individual's emotions and utilisation of cognitive abilities to manage emotions. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso are the most prominent advocates in this group (Badenhorst & Smith, 2007). These theorists define emotional intelligence as "the capacity to perceive emotions, understand the information of those emotions and manage them" (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso 1999, p. 1).

The second group approaches emotional intelligence from the personality point of view. These theorists suggest and believe that the best way to define emotional intelligence is to link it to underlying personality traits. They view emotional intelligence as a collection of self-perceived emotions linked to the person's personality. They believe that emotional intelligence is an inborn potential to recognise, manage and use emotions in communicating and dealing with all other environmental issues. The most prominent theorists in this group include Petrides and Furnham (2003) and Hein (2003). According to Hein (2003), emotional intelligence is formed by four main inherent emotional components that are sensitivity, memory, processing and learning ability.

The third group combines definitions of the first (ability) and the second (personality) groups and incorporate interpersonal aspect. It extends and refers to emotional intelligence as two way traffic of self in relation to others and others in relation to self. This is a broader definition as it takes into consideration the fact that a person exists in a social environment and therefore their emotions and actions have an effect on the social environment as much as the environment has an effect on how they manage these socio-emotional relations (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 2005).

Daniel Goleman, a recognized subscriber to the third group, defines emotional intelligence as the capability to "motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations, to control impulse and delay gratification, to regulate one's mood and keep distress from swamping the logical thinking, to empathise and hope" (Goleman, 2005, p. 34). The other well-known theorist in this group is Reuven Bar-On, who defines this construct as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Emotional Intelligence Consortium, 2010 p.3).

To substantiate the cognitive definitions, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (1999), in their reviewed perspective, propose that emotional intelligence can be best described in terms of five domains. These are: knowing one's emotions; managing one's emotions; motivating oneself; recognising emotions of others; and handling social relationships. This reviewed perspective is aligned to the third group's perspective. In line with this, Goleman proposes four components of this construct, namely: self-awareness; self-management; social awareness; and relationship management. On the other hand, Petrides and Hein's group suggest the four components of emotional sensitivity, emotional memory, emotional processing and emotional learning ability (Badenhorst & Smith, 2007; Goleman, 2005, Hein, 2003; Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

Bar-On who strongly focuses on the interpersonal perspective, concurs with Goleman's combination. He further suggests that problem solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control are key to succeed in handling and dealing with environmental demands (Boyatzis et al., 2000).

3.2.2 Differences and similarities between the broad definitions

Hein's emotional intelligence components are similar to Goleman's four components: recognition and understanding of own emotions (although Goleman doesn't make any reference to recollection or remembrance of past emotional occurrences); dealing with or controlling own emotions and learning capability. Goleman also strongly believes that emotional intelligence is a learned capability.

Another aspect of similarity between the ability group and Goleman's group is the relationship of emotions to reason. When an emotion is experienced, be it from within a person (self) or from other people, the cognitive dimension gets involved in processing and deciding what action to take to respond or react to the emotion and what the outcome of that action will be ((Mayer et al., 1999).

Badenhorst and Smith (2007), organise these diverse definitions into two main types: narrow and broad definitions. They classify the narrow definitions as the academic type and broad definitions as the popular non-academic type for the lay public. The Mayer, Salovey and Caruso's grouping and the Hein and Petrides group are classified as the academically

oriented theorists. On the other hand, Goleman and Bar-On are said to be on the non-academic, populist group that combines ability, personality and social perspectives (Badenhorst & Smith, 2007; Murphy, 2006).

From the three groups discussed earlier, the academic types of definitions are similar to those groups that view emotional intelligence from the ability and personality perspectives. The broad, populist type is equivalent to the group that combines ability, personality traits and interpersonal or social perspectives. Collectively, these definitions suggest that the most inclusive and operational definition that can be used to understand the construct of emotional intelligence is that it is a learned capability to deal with the dynamic practicalities of life (Murphy, 2006).

This includes the capability to perceive, assess, generate, understand, react, distinguish between various feelings, express and regulate own emotions and those of others. It also includes the ability to listen to others, empathise and communicate one's own emotions and those of others such that growth in emotional, cognitive and social interaction is promoted (Badenhorst & Smith, 2007; Van der Merwe, Coetzee, & De Beer, 2005) .

There is a relationship between emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence and social intelligence constructs. Badenhorst and Smith (2007) suggest that human dimensions that are related to emotional intelligence are cognitive and social intelligence.

3.3 Models of emotional intelligence

In an attempt to resolve the complexities in the definition of emotional intelligence and create bridges towards unified or common understanding, researchers reframed the previously discussed three models as: the ability model; the trait model and the mixed model (Badenhorst & Smith, 2007; Murphy, 2006).

3.3.1 The ability model

Theorists subscribing to the ability school of thought about emotional intelligence believe it to be an ability to perceive, understand and integrate emotion, to facilitate thought, and regulate emotions and to promote personal growth. This is based on the definition given by the first group of theorist (Badenhorst & Smith, 2007; Mayer et al., 1999).

This model views emotional intelligence from the cognitive and ability angle and is centered on the individual's personal growth. Initially it focused only on one's own emotions and use of cognitive abilities to facilitate mental activities such as reasoning and decision making (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). However, as it got reviewed, the theorist included social interaction factors (the ability to recognize and manage other people's emotions) as well as self-motivation (Badenhorst & Smith, 2007).

According to this model, emotional intelligence abilities are grouped into five dimensions namely perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, managing emotions, and self-motivation.

a) Perceiving emotions

Perceiving emotions is the ability to identify and make sense of own emotions, reflected through verbal and non-verbal expressions, such as voices, facial expressions, pictures, and cultural artefacts.

b) Using emotions

Using emotions: is defined as the ability to control emotions in order to facilitate cognitive processing of the identified emotions. It involves such activities as reasoning, problem solving, analysis and decision-making (Badenhorst & Smith, 2007).

c) Understanding emotions

Understanding emotions is a component that involves cognitive processing of the identified emotions that enables the attachment of meaning and therefore understanding of those emotions. This involves comprehension of emotional language (verbal and non-verbal) and to appreciate complicated relationships amongst emotions and to be able to explain how emotions develop over time (Harms & Credé, 2010).

d) Managing emotions

Managing emotions *is* the ability to organize and take control of own emotions such that positive outcomes of whatever tasks at hand are achieved. It is said that emotionally intelligent persons are able take advantage their emotions and those of others, whether positive or negative, and use them in such a way that they have a positive impact in their lives (Harms & Credé, 2010).

e) Self-motivation

Self-motivation has to do with the drive to improve, achieve set goals, meet standards of excellence and persist in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks. It also has to do with readiness to act on opportunities presented by the environment (Boyatzis et al., 2000).

From this model it is clear that using emotions involves reasoning, problem solving, and analysis and decision-making which are basically cognitive activities. This indicates a strong interrelatedness between emotion and cognition (Emotional Intelligence Consortium, 2010). An emotionally intelligent person is said to be able to utilize these abilities to effectively engage and master tasks at hand (Badenhorst & Smith, 2007).

3.3.2 The trait model

This model is linked to the second group of theorists to which Petrides and Furnham (2003) and Hein (2003) subscribe. It views emotional intelligence from personality traits rather than an ability point of view. According to this model emotional intelligence is a collection of emotional self-perceptions located within an individual's personality. A person is born with an innate ability to perceive own emotions, learn to control and use emotions, deal with and adapt to environmental demands.

Emotional self-perceptions can be traced from the personality psychology and have a behavioural connotation that suggests that personality is manifested through a person's behaviour (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Hein (2003) suggests that as a person gets exposed to different environments this innate emotional intelligence is either developed or damaged, depending on whether the environment is conducive for development or not.

Both Hein and Petrides refer to this innate emotional intelligence as potential emotional intelligence (EQ) and that the development thereof is dependent on the environment in which a person lives. If the environment is positive for development, the level of a person's actual emotional intelligence (EI) will be higher, and if the environment is hostile it will be lower or deteriorate.

The potential emotional intelligence is made up of the four inborn components of emotional sensitivity, emotional memory, emotional processing and emotional learning ability. The actual emotional intelligence is manifested through a person's observable behaviours (Hein,

2003; Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Thus from these two models, ability and trait, it appears that:

- a) A person is born with a potential ability to perceive, use, understand and manage own emotions as well as those of others, and
- b) The development of actual emotional intelligence is dependent on people's cognitive abilities and socio-environmental factors in which they function.

3.3.3 The Mixed model

The ability and trait models share two main elements, namely, (a) own emotions and (b) other's emotions. The mixed model adds to these common elements the interpersonal relations component. Goleman and Bar-on, the most prominent theorist that subscribe to this model, consider emotional intelligence as the capability to “motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations, to control impulse and delay gratification, regulate one's mood and keep distress from swamping the logical thinking, to empathise and hope” (Goleman, 2005, p. 34).

In the same breath, Bar-On adds a social perspective and suggests that emotionally intelligent people understands their own emotions and those of others and that they relate well with other people. Such a person adapts effectively to the immediate surroundings and is more successful in dealing with environmental demands and stressors (Bar-On, 1997).

Goleman (2005) and Bar-On's (1997) approaches form a model that integrates emotional capabilities with cognitive abilities and personality traits that is manifested in behavioural tendencies. This model assumes that people with a higher than average potential emotional intelligence (EQs) are generally at an advantageous position to be more successful in adapting to environmental demands and meeting behavioural expectations (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 2005).

Emotional intelligence is perceived to be a range of capabilities that drive work performance. To explain how these capabilities matter in work life, Goleman (2005) uses the four dimensions of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Each dimension encompasses a set of skills and competencies (Boyatzis et al., 2000; Goleman, 2005).

a) Self-awareness

As the name suggests, self-awareness is about being aware of own emotions, analyse and understand them. Competencies encompassed in this dimension include the recognition of one's emotions and how they affect one's performance, behaviour and relationships (emotional self-awareness); knowing one's strengths and weaknesses (self-assessment) as well as a sound sense of one's self-worth and capabilities (self-confidence). It is alleged that understanding of one's own feelings is the cornerstone of emotional intelligence. People who are closer to their emotions are better drivers of their own lives. Self-awareness is crucial to psychological well-being and self-understanding (Boyatzis et al., 2000; Goleman, 1996).

b) Self-management and motivation

Self-management and motivation is about how people's control or regulation of their own emotions and impulses, and adapting to environmental factors. According to McGurk (2010) people who have well-developed self-management competencies are able to accept reasonable criticism and constructive feedback; and to admit and learn from their mistakes and experiences.

Self-management competencies include keeping disruptive emotions and impulses under control by thinking clearly and remain focused under pressure (emotional self-control). It also includes exhibiting trustworthiness, honesty, integrity, and acting harmoniously with own values (transparency). People who self-manage are flexibility in adapting to and handling change (adaptability). They have a drive to improve their performances and meet standards of excellence (motivation) and are prepared to grab and act on available opportunities (initiative) as well as persevere in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks (optimism) (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

Managing own emotions is a build-up from emotional self-awareness. When people are aware of and understand their emotions they are in a position to regulate them appropriately to achieve positive outcomes under adverse circumstances. People who are highly competent in self-management and motivation are said to be highly productive and effective in their work and in life (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; McGurk, 2010).

c) *Social-awareness*

Social awareness refers to the ability to read, analyse and understand other peoples' emotions in social interactions. Competencies of social-awareness include: recognising other people's emotions, understanding their perspectives and taking active interest in their concerns (empathy); being able to read the decision networks or power relationships within an organization or social group (organizational awareness); and recognition, anticipation and meeting clients' needs (service orientation), (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Goleman et al., 2002).

d) *Relationship management*

Relationship management is a build-up from social-awareness. It covers such competences as: working effectively with other people to achieve a common goal (teamwork and collaboration); negotiating and resolving conflicts (conflict management); initiating and managing change (change catalyst) and having positive impact on other people's lives (influence), (Cherniss et al., 2001; Goleman et al., 2002; Goleman, 2005).

Table 3.1 shows a summary comparing the three models including the definitions; the most prominent theorist advocating the model; and the dimensions of the construct and measurement tools. The mixed model is the best fit for this study, on the basis that it defines the construct in a broad way and is inclusive of other models' perspectives. For this reason it is adopted as the theoretical framework on which this study is grounded.

Table 3.1: A comparison of emotional intelligence models

| The Ability Model (Salovey, Mayer and Caruso) | | |
|---|--|---|
| <i>Definition</i> | <i>Emotional Intelligence dimensions</i> | <i>Assessment tools</i> |
| The ability to perceive and integrate emotion to facilitate thought; understand and regulate emotions to promote personal growth. | <i>Initial domains:</i> Perceiving, Using, Understanding and Managing own emotions. <i>Reviewed domains:</i> self-motivation, recognising and controlling own and others' emotions and handling relationships | <i>An ability test:</i> Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) |
| The Trait Model (Petrides and Hein) | | |
| <i>Definition</i> | <i>Emotional Intelligence dimensions</i> | <i>Assessment tools</i> |
| An inborn (innate) emotional potential within a person's personality to perceive own emotions; use them in social relations and learn from them | <i>four inborn components:</i> emotional sensitivity, memory, processing, and learning ability | <i>Self-report inventories</i> e.g. Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) |
| Mixed models (Goleman and Bar-On) | | |
| <i>Definition</i> | <i>Emotional Intelligence dimensions</i> | <i>Assessment tools</i> |
| An awareness and management of own emotions and those of others'; ability to adapt to environment and manage social relationships. | <i>Four domains:</i> Self-awareness Self-management social awareness and relationship management | The Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI); Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI); Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), |

Adapted from (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008) and Wikipedia (2012)

3.4 Age and gender differences in the development of emotional intelligence

Literature shows that there may be some emotional intelligence differences between individuals based on age and gender. Goleman (2005) suggests that as a person grows older, emotional intelligence also increases. In addition Wolff (2005) suggests that females have higher ratings than males in certain competencies like empathy and non-verbal communication. The implication therefore is that older individuals should have higher levels

of emotional intelligence than younger individuals and women should have higher levels of emotional intelligence than men (Wolff, 2005).

Research on age and gender differences in the development of emotional intelligence has mixed findings. Some researchers have found that there are gender differences on certain competencies while others have found that there are no differences (Wolff, 2005). Regarding overall emotional intelligence, no gender differences have been revealed between males and females. However, statistically significant gender differences do exist for a few of the competencies (Bar-On, 2006).

Petrides and Furnham (2000), in the study of age and gender differences in the development of emotional intelligence, found that females scored higher in social skills than males. In another study done by Cavallo and Brienza (2002), reported in Wolff (2005) also found that females had higher ratings than males in Emotional Self-Awareness, Conscientiousness, Developing Others, Service Orientation, Communication, Adaptability and Service Orientation. Fernández-Berrocal, Cabello, Castillo and Extremera (2012) found that age has a partial effect on managing emotions dimensions of emotional intelligence, that is, self-management and relationship management.

3.5 Emotional intelligence competencies, employability skills and the workplace

There are observable similarities in the general definitions of emotional intelligence and employability skills. Employability skills are generally defined as non-technical work related skills that are important for effective and successful participation in the workplace (Barnard & Nel, 2009; Cleary, et al., 2006; Marock, 2008).

Employers have identified employability skills that are commonly needed at work, namely: communication skills; team work; problem solving; self-management; initiative and innovation; interpersonal skills; self-control and discipline. These are somehow similar to competencies referred to in the mixed model's definition of emotional intelligence (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Maynard, 2003).

The next table (Table 3.2) indicates similarities between emotional intelligence dimensions (according to mixed model) and employability skills.

Table 3.2: Employability skills and emotional intelligence competencies

| Employability skills | Emotional intelligence dimensions |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Communication skills | Relationship management |
| Self-management | Self-management |
| Team work | Relationship management |
| Problem solving | Relationship management |
| Initiative and innovation | Self-management |
| Interpersonal skills | Relationship management |
| Self-control and discipline | Self-management |
| Emotional intelligence | Self-awareness, self-management social awareness and relationship management[all dimensions] |

Adapted from Cherniss and Goleman (2001), Goleman (2005), Maynard (2003), and Murphy (2006)

The table above shows that the skills envisaged to make people employable are similar to competences encompassed in the emotional intelligence dimensions of the mixed model. In a nutshell, employability skills and emotional intelligence competencies are similar. For this reason, in this study, the terms emotional intelligence competencies and employability skills will be used interchangeably when referring to skills needed for effective participation and performance in the workplace.

3.6 The importance of emotional intelligence in the workplace and how it is learned

Emotional intelligence is viewed as a critical success factor in workplace achievements. This view is also supported by Steven Covey (1999), who suggests that emotionally intelligent people possess habits of highly effective people. Such people are assets to any organizational achievements (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Covey, 1999).

The situation at the place of work can be very stressful, presenting extreme pressures to perform and meet deadlines. People who manage to perform successfully under such situations are those who remain optimistic even in the face of adversity, people who can manage their own impulses, communicate effectively with others, solve problems, and use

humour to build rapport in tense situations. People with these capabilities are the emotionally intelligent people. Goleman (2005) also concurs with this view and suggests that emotional and cognitive abilities contribute equally to a person's potential to succeed in different socio-economic environments (Goleman, 2005; Poskey, 2010).

The world of work needs people who work well in teams and are cooperative, people who can read and understand other people's emotions, take initiative to improve their performance, show awareness of own emotions and remain calm and composed even in adverse situations, people who adapt to rapidly changing priorities. People who understand social networks, within the organisation's culture and values are usually successful and get promoted faster than their counterparts.

The presence of these capabilities underpins highly effective performance for the individual as well as the organization (Hay Group, 2010). According to Anne Kreamer, as quoted by Moran (2013), 'Workplace cultures that emphasise empathy and enthusiasm reap benefits ranging from greater creativity to reduced absenteeism' (Moran, 2013 p.2).

Although findings of a research on call centre leaders indicate that there is little relationship between job performance and emotional intelligence, it has shown that emotional intelligence and behaviour play a significant contributory role in the employee's performance (Gryn, 2010).

In many places of work, employees are expected to deal with more than just work. More and more employers are demanding a range of adaptive and interpersonal skills such as teamwork, communication, conflict resolution and critical thinking, given that these are critical in improving organizational performance (Murphy, 2006).

It is said that emotional intelligence is a learned capability that makes an effective contribution to improved work performance. Since emotional intelligence competencies are similar to employability skills, it is anticipated that the ways through which they are learned are also similar. As McGurk suggests, emotional intelligence competencies are "inherently practical and are real-world oriented" (McGurk, 2010, p.25). As such the best way to learn these skills and competencies are through exposure to real life situations and personal

experiences; through practice, getting feedback from the surrounding social environment and self-reflection.

Emotional intelligence can be developed through life experiences presented by home environments, learning institutions and at workplaces. The impacts of these life lessons determine the level of one's emotional intelligence at a point in time. The impact of life experiences can be positive or negative. Positive impact is indicated by an improvement in the expected and acceptable performance, while negative impact is indicated by deterioration or unacceptable performance below the expected level (McGurk, 2010; Hein, 2003).

Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (2005) are in agreement with Hein (2003) and McGurk's (2010) point of view and further add that emotional intelligence develops over time and can be improved through training and therapy. Environmental factors play a bigger part in learning. Therefore, the design of training programmes should determine how learning takes place (McGrath 2009).

Workplaces expose learners to practical, real-life work situations where they are expected to learn to:

- a) understand their emotions and the effect they have to their work performance and others around them;
- b) keep their disruptive emotions under control;
- c) recognize other people's emotions around them and take active interest in their concerns; and
- d) manage social relationships and work well in teams (Goleman, 2005; Goleman et al., 2002; McGrath, 2009; Nyathi et al., 2008).

In the South African skills development context, learning programmes are designed in such a way that learning takes place in classroom environment (theory) and in workplace environment (practical). As Van der Berg (2012) maintains, internship learning programmes provide a platform for young graduates, who have completed or are about to complete their university and college studies to learn and improve these behavioural competencies.

The Department of Public Service and Administration (2006) of the South African Government also support this view and suggest that generic competencies should be

developed through these programmes and that at the completion, learners should show improvement in:

- a) job performance, which involves such competencies as initiative, time management, planning and organising;
- b) job knowledge, involving understanding of work procedures;
- c) interpersonal relations, that is cooperation and working harmoniously with other people and making contribution to team efforts;
- d) Communication that is effective vertical and horizontal communication with all stakeholders
- e) Client service, which involves the provision of quality service to all stakeholders (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2006).

3.7 Research on the employability skills required by employers in SA

Nyathi et al. (2008) in their research findings provided a list of the most commonly needed employability skills as critical cross-field outcomes of a learning programme. The list includes problem-solving, interpersonal skills and teamwork; self-awareness, self-management, self-assessment, communication skills; diversity awareness and management (Nyathi et al., 2008).

This was substantiated by the findings of the survey conducted by Adele Shevel (2012). In this survey, Chief Executive Officers of some of the top companies in South Africa were asked to indicate important attributes that they need from their employees. The following were generally identified as most important:

- i) ability to inspire others (influence, a competency for *relationship management*)
- ii) ability to bounce back and pursue goals despite hardships, obstacles and setbacks (resilience - a competency for *self-management*)
- iii) knowing and articulating one's strengths and limits (accurate self-assessment- a competency for *self-awareness*)
- iv) initiating, managing and leading a new direction, team-building, courage and competitiveness (inspiration, change catalyst- competencies for *relationship management*)
- v) readiness to take opportunities to solve problems (reasoning, initiative and problem solving- competencies for *self-management*).

- vi) drive to improve performance and meet standards of excellence, display of honesty, trustworthiness and integrity (self-motivation, achievement orientation and transparency- competencies for *self-management*).
- vii) ability to adapt to changing work situations (adaptability - competency for *self-management* (Emotional Intelligence Consortium, 2010; Goleman *et al.*, 2002; Shevel, 2012)

This information authenticates findings of a research conducted earlier on employability skills needed by employers in South Africa by Marock (2008) and Nel and Barnard (2009). In their separate studies, they found that employers need similar skills as those mentioned above that is, communication skills; team work; problem solving; self-management; initiative and innovation; interpersonal skills; self-control and discipline (Marock, 2008; Nel & Barnard, 2009).

It has also been ascertained that these employability skills are needed not only in the South African context, but also in the international labour markets. In Britain, McGrath (2010) maintains that training institutions should incorporate the development of these competencies in their training programmes. In Australia Cleary *et al.* (2006) conclude that the explicit inclusion of these skills in training packages represents the progression of competency-based training into the system which develops a full range of competencies and behaviours required for successful participation in the workplace (Cleary *et al.*, 2006; Harvey, 1999; McGrath, 2009).

3.8 Chapter Summary

Emotional intelligence is a complex construct which makes it extremely difficult to reach a common definition. However categorising diverse definitions into groups that have different but interrelated perspectives makes it better to understand. What is common in these definitions is that emotional intelligence has to do with recognising and managing own emotions and those of others as well as managing interpersonal relations. This commonality provides a linkage between the three models of emotional intelligence, that is, ability, trait and mixed models. The mixed model is adopted as the theoretical framework for this study.

Emotional intelligence competencies are similar to employability skills and as such they are learned in the same way, through training. The development of these skills and competencies

need to be included in learning programmes. These competencies are learned and developed through exposure to real life practical experiences, reflections and feedback from social environments and places of work.

The design of skills development learning programmes is such that learners are exposed to the practicalities of work environments. It is therefore assumed that this exposure to the dynamics of workplace practicalities will enable them to learn and improve emotional intelligence competencies needed in the world of work.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on research methodology to answer research questions. It puts into perspective the design; population and sample selection; hypotheses; research instrument (*access processes, permission for utilisation*); ethical considerations; data collection and statistical analysis procedures.

4.2 The design

The study is a quantitative type of a study and data is collected using a pre-designed five point scale questionnaire. The intention is to evaluate the effect of one variable on another variable, and for this reason, a quasi-experimental design is most appropriate. Experimentation has been proven to be the best way of discovering a ‘causal and effect relationship between variables’ (Abdi, Eldelman, Dowling, & Valentin, 2009, p.1).

4.2.1 *Quasi-experimental design*

Quasi-experimental research strives to discover the effect of one variable on another variable. This research strives to establish the effect of training (internship programme) on the emotional intelligence competencies of the interns (Kirk, 2013).

In typical experimental research, the design has an experimental group to which the independent variable is administered and the effects measured, as well as the control group, to which measured effects are compared to detect differences. In this research the skills development internship learning programme is an independent variable, an intervention that is administered to interns. Emotional intelligence competencies are dependent variables that are affected by the administered internship programme (Labaree, 2013; Miller, 1984).

The current study deviates from the traditional experimentation that usually has an experimental and a control group (Abdi et al., 2009). Instead an intervention is administered to the whole sampled group. To be able to detect the effects of the intervention, emotional intelligence competency levels of all participants are assessed two times, at the beginning and towards the end of training programme offered over a period of 12 months (Davies & Bryer, 2010).

This design is replicated from the research done by Davies and Bryer (2010). In this study, the effects of teacher education training programme on emotional intelligence competencies of university students were measured. The programme was offered over a period of four years and the students' emotional intelligence competencies were measured at the beginning and at the end of the programme (Davies & Bryer, 2010). Differences between the first and the second measurements were observed.

Similarly in this study, the first and the second assessments are compared to detect differences. The assumption is that the more significant the differences between the two measurements, the stronger the effect of an intervention (internship programme) to the dependent variable (emotional intelligence competencies).

Literature suggests that because the study is experimental in design, findings may not be generalised to the bigger population of interns and to other internship programmes offered in other public service departments (Bradley, 2014; Michael, 2014). This design provides evidence for the current sample only. However, it allows other researchers to conduct the same research, test the same hypotheses to different samples and come up with the same or different findings (Abdi et al., 2009).

4.3 Population and sample selection

The general population, from which participants were sampled, were young people who had been selected to participate in an internship learning programme administered and managed by the Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority (PSETA). Participants were unemployed and had completed or were about to complete their university or FET college studies (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2006).

4.3.1 Permission to source participants

The Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority (PSETA) was approached to request permission to have access to interns contracted in internship programmes and placed in government departments in the public service. The PSETA granted permission and provided an endorsement letter introducing the intended research to departments.

Contact was made with different government departments and an agreement was reached with one department which was to place about 100 interns in 2013. The number of interns

placed in that department was sufficient to cover the planned sample size of a minimum of 50 participants

4.3.2 Sampling and sample size

A non-probability, convenience sampling method (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002), was most appropriate to select participants. As such, all interns who were placed in the internship learning programme in that department were selected to participate in the study.

The sample size was driven by the number of interns contracted in the internship programme of that department during 2013. As such, the size of the sample was 100 interns. Demographic proportions of the sample in terms of gender, age, field of study, highest level of education and the unit in which placed were determined by the composition of participating interns.

4.4 The research instrument

The different models each use different tools to assess or measure emotional intelligence. This will now be briefly explored.

Ability model measurement tools

As stated earlier, this model was developed by Mayer et al., (1999). They worked together and designed an ability based emotional intelligence test widely known as Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). The test consists of a series of emotion-based logical reasoning and problem solving items (Murphy, 2006).

Although it is modelled around an IQ test and promoted as a test, the responses do not have objectively correct answers, but rather the correctness of answers was determined by consensus decision of a panel of experts. Items in this test are based on the five domains of the ability model of perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions, managing emotions and self-motivation. The individual's responses on each item are compared to the responses of experts and the higher the overlapping of the individual's scores to those of experts, the higher a person is scored on emotionally intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003; Murphy 2006).

Trait model measurement tools

This model uses self-report measures to assess emotional intelligence. One of the more comprehensive, widely researched and used measures is the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue). The design of TEIQue encompasses 15 subscales organized under four factors: well-being, self-control, emotionality, and sociability (Hein, 2003)

The tool has been widely researched and has been found to be normally distributed and reliable globally. Researchers have also determined that TEIQue scores are related to nonverbal reasoning which they interpreted as support for personality traits. Other studies have also found that TEIQue scores were positively related to some of the traits (Hein, 2003; Murphy, 2006; Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

Mixed model measurement tools

The mixed model mainly uses three measurement tools which are the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI) and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) (Murphy, 2006). Goleman worked extensively with other practitioners in the emotional intelligence field and developed the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), and the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI), while Bar-On, who also contributed to this model, developed the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i). These are self-report tools developed to assess emotional and social competencies. They provide an estimate of one's emotional and social competence.

The EQ-i is not meant to measure personality traits, but rather mental abilities to be successful in dealing with environmental demands and pressures. It is a self-report questionnaire consisting of 133 items grouped into four main components of the mixed model namely self-awareness; self- management and motivation; social-awareness and relationship management (Emotional Intelligence Consortium, 2010; Van der Merwe et al., 2005).

On the other hand, the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI) is a 360° assessment tool. In this 360° tool, participants do not only assess themselves but are also assessed by other people with whom they interact frequently at the place of work and in life general. The purpose is to compensate for the criticism of self-assessment which is said to be inaccurate and that people tend to over or under estimate their behaviours.

This tool was developed by the Hay Group in partnership with Daniel Goleman and Richard Boyatzis mentored by David McClelland. As such ESCI is distributed by the Hay Group, worldwide, including in South Africa (Hay Group, 2010). ESCI assesses 12 competencies that differentiate average from outstanding performers and measure people's demonstrated behaviours (Hay Group, 2011).

Initially, Daniel Goleman and Richard Boyatzis (David McClelland's students), worked together and developed the emotional intelligence assessment tool which became known as the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), measuring 18 competencies. After a comprehensive review of each item in the ECI, the social aspect was factored in and a reviewed assessment tool, Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI) was developed. In reviewing ECI, the number of competencies was reduced from 18 to 12 competencies (Hay Group, 2010). For this study, ESCI was identified as the best fit for the chosen emotional intelligence model, that is, Goleman's mixed model.

4.4.1 The Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI)

After searching through test developing and distributing organisations in the country, information about Hay Group was secured. Contact was made and information on the processes to follow in order to have access to the instrument and get permission to use it for research purposes was obtained. To have access to ESCI, users and researchers have to get trained by Hay Group and get accredited to use EI tools. As such accreditation training was attended and a certificate to access and use the tools was granted. The researcher signed an agreement stipulating terms and conditions for using ESCI for research purposes.

4.4.2 Permission to use ESCI for research purposes

Over and above accreditation training, to be able to use the ESCI for research purposes, permission has to be granted by Hay Group. All processes were followed and documentation was submitted to facilitate the granting of permission to use the instrument.

4.4.3 Description of the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory

Emotional and Social Competency Inventory is a **competency based assessment** tool that measures clusters of competencies based on the mixed model of emotional intelligence. It measures twelve competencies organised under four dimensions, namely:

- self-awareness (recognising and understanding of own emotions);
- social-awareness (recognising and understanding other peoples' emotions);
- self-management (managing own emotions effectively); and
- relationship management (applying emotional understanding in dealing with others in social relationships, at work and in life general), (Goleman, 1998; Boyatzis, 2007; Hay Group, 2011).

The model below illustrates the twelve competencies under the four clusters.

Table 4.1: Competencies of the mixed emotional intelligence model

| Self-awareness | Self-management | Social awareness | Relationship management |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Emotional self-awareness | Emotional self-control | Empathy | Influence |
| | Achievement orientation | Organizational awareness | Coach and mentor |
| | Positive outlook | | Conflict management |
| | Adaptability | | Inspirational leadership |
| | | | Teamwork |

Adapted from: Hay Group (2011)

4.4.3.1 Description of the twelve emotional intelligence competencies

- i. Emotional self-awareness is the ability to understand one's own emotions and their effects (Goleman, 1998).
- ii. Emotional self-control is the ability to keep disruptive emotions and impulses under control and remain effective under stressful or hostile conditions (Goleman, 1998).
- iii. Achievement orientation is about taking calculated risks in setting challenging goals, and striving to exceed standards of excellence (Goleman et al., 2002).

- iv. Positive outlook is the ability to see the positive in people, situations and events including persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks (Gryn, 2010).
- v. Adaptability is about flexibility in handling change, juggling multiple demands and adapting to changing environments and ideas (Goleman et al., 2002).
- vi. Empathy is the ability to sense others' feelings, perspectives and taking an active interest in their concerns (Boyatzis, 2007).
- vii. Organizational awareness is the ability to understand power relationships; identify influencers, networks and dynamics and utilise them effectively (Hay Group, 2011).
- viii. Influence is the ability to have a positive impact on others, persuading them in order to gain their support (Goleman et al., 2002).
- ix. Coach and mentor is the ability to foster long term development of others by giving support and feedback (Boyatzis, 2007).
- x. Conflict management is about tactfully helping others in tense emotional situations, to find solutions acceptable to everyone affected (Bipath, 2007).
- xi. Inspirational leadership is the ability to inspire, bring out the best and guide others to get the job done (Hay Group, 2011).
- xii. Teamwork is about being able to work effectively with others, actively participating, contributing and sharing responsibility towards a common goal (Boyatzis, 2007; Goleman, 1998; Hay Group, 2011).

Emotional and Social Competency Inventory is a self-assessment tool. Research has shown that self-assessment alone is not very reliable and does not provide valid 'measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour' (Hay Group, 2011, p.10).

To control for criticisms of a self-assessment tools, ESCI has been designed to be a 360° assessment tool. That is, over and above the intern assessing themselves, they are also assessed by other people (referred to as other raters). Each rater sees the candidate from a different perspective. The combined ratings by all raters including self-rating are envisaged to provide a rounded picture of a person's behaviour at work (Wolff, 2006).

Other raters are selected by participants (interns) themselves, on the basis that they interact with them on regular basis in work environment and have observed their behaviours. In this study, other raters are categorised in two groups, peers and mentors. Research on ESCI has indicated that there are significant differences between self and other rater's assessments (Hay Group, 2010).

4.4.4 Psychometric properties of the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory

During the 15 years of development and reviewing, which ultimately resulted in the evolution of the instrument from ECI to ESCI, a lot of research was undertaken. Boyatzis and the Hay Group undertook reviews and studies where about 160,000 participants around the world (including South Africa) in business organisations, education institutions and public sector were involved (Hay Group, 2011).

These studies focussed on continuous improvements of the reliability of the tool. Key findings in the application of ESCI in assessing participants' learning, change and development, enabled the validation to ensure that it remains relevant, acceptable to researchers, participants and that it measures behaviours it is meant to measure. It has also enabled continuous checking if it correlates appropriately with other similar measures of the same construct and predicts the desired outcomes (Boyatzis & Gaskin, 2010).

4.4.4.1 Reliability of the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory

The reliability of a measuring tool refers to the consistency or stability of the observations elicited by the tool. To determine the consistency of observations given by the tool, there are two types of reliability that are taken into consideration, namely, internal consistency and test retest reliability. Internal consistency is measured thorough Cronbach's alpha indicating the average of intercorrelations of all items in a single assessment session. Test retests reliability refers to the consistency of observations when the same subjects are assessed using the same tool over time (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2009).

The most recent statistical analysis of ESCI showed Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency as ranging between 0.83 and 0.92. The table below show sCronbach's alpha for all competencies in ESCI (Boyatzis & Gaskin, 2010).

Measures reflected in this table were determined from the total of 52,363 participants, rating as 'other raters' (Boyatzis & Gaskin, 2010). The rule of thumb is that the reliability coefficient of 0,70 is considered as acceptable in most social science research situations, As such the ESCI's internal reliability can therefore be taken to be at adequate levels for all twelve items (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2009).

Table 4.2: Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for ESCI Competencies

| ESCI item | Cronbach's Alpha |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| Emotional self-awareness | 0.83 |
| Emotional self-control | 0.91 |
| Achievement orientation | 0.86 |
| Positive outlook | 0.88 |
| Adaptability | 0.85 |
| Empathy | 0.86 |
| Organizational awareness | 0.86 |
| Influence | 0.84 |
| Coach and mentor | 0.92 |
| Conflict management | 0.79 |
| Inspirational leadership | 0.89 |
| Teamwork | 0.89 |

Adapted from Boyatzis (2007), Boyatzis and Gaskin (2010) and Hay Group (2011).

4.4.4.2 Validity of the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory

Test validity refers to the degree to which the test actually measures what it claims to measure. It is also the extent to which inferences, conclusions, and decisions made on the basis of test scores are appropriate and meaningful. Test validity is requisite to test reliability. If a test is not valid, then reliability is also doubtful. In other words, if a test is not valid there is no point in discussing reliability because test validity is required before reliability can be considered in any meaningful way (Boyatzis & Gaskin, 2010).

ESCI is meant to measure behaviours in work settings.

In a study done by Byrne (2003) on the overall validity of ECI 2.0 using self-scores, findings indicated that the instrument showed adequate construct, discriminant and criterion validity (Hay Group, 2011). In an effort to re-affirm the validity and to achieve a higher psychometric standard of ESCI, Boyatzis did a pilot study where ESCI was administered to 116 participants who rated themselves and 1 022 other raters. The results re-affirmed that ESCI

measures those behaviours that contribute to effective work performance, which is what it is meant to measure (Hay Group, 2011).

4.4.5 Measurement scales of the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory

The ESCI consists of 12 competencies (discussed earlier) measured through 68 items, describing work-related behaviours. Each item is measured using a 5-point scale to indicate the frequency of observed behaviour, that is

1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Sometimes; 4 = Often; and 5 = Consistently.

If the rater has not observed that particular behaviour from the rated person, or if that behaviour does not apply to the person rated, the rater has an option of choosing the ‘don’t know’ option. However, if the rater chooses more than 5 (or 25%) ‘don’t know’ options, the rater’s assessment is taken as invalid and is therefore not considered (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2007).

4.5 Data collection procedure

4.5.1 Piloting the instrument

Before the tool was used to collect data for the actual study, it was piloted to interns placed in another government department. The interns’ other raters included two peers, assigned mentor and the manager (the mentor’s supervisor). The pilot revealed that managers did not know much about the interns’ behaviours or they rarely had opportunity to observe their behaviours at work. Most managers selected the ‘don’t know, option’ more than five times. As a result their assessments were considered invalid and were therefore discarded. Based on this, in the actual study, a decision was taken to exclude manager from the other rater’s group. The final data that was collected came from the intern, the intern’s mentors, and two peers.

4.5.2 Demographic information

A short questionnaire on demographic information of the interns was included in the ESCI. This was important to aid the provision of answers to research questions on whether age and gender have any effect in the development of the interns’ emotional competencies. Names of interns and their mentors were strictly for administrative use only.

4.5.3 Data collection process

The first assessment was done at the beginning of the programme. Initially, self-rating questionnaires were distributed with a covering letter explaining the purpose of the research to interns. Also attached to the questionnaire was a consent form. Interns were requested to complete and sign it if they agreed to participate in the study.

Because the instrument (ESCI) is a 360° tool, requiring rating of the intern by other raters, interns were requested to nominate people to rate them, people with whom they interact regularly in the workplace. These were grouped in two categories, that is the assigned mentor and two peers or colleagues with whom they work closely.

About 100 questionnaires were distributed for completion by interns (self-raters). When the interns had completed and returned the questionnaires together with their signed consent and rater nomination forms, other rater's questionnaires were distributed according to the interns' nominations. About 258 questionnaires were distributed for completion by other rater (mentor and two peers for each intern).

The second assessment was done towards the completion of the programme. During the second round of assessment, the same procedure was followed, and interns were requested to give the questionnaires to the same mentors and peers that had rated them earlier.

4.6 Ethical considerations

To ensure that the ethical principle of autonomy of participants was respected, they were given a letter of information and consent which explained the purpose of the study and their role as participants. The letter also explained that their participation in the study was voluntary and could be discontinued at any point in time. Processes and procedures were explained prior to the administration of the questionnaire, so as to get their informed consent.

Although participants were requested to complete their demographic information as part of the questionnaire, they were assured that their names will not be disclosed but will remain anonymous (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). As specified in the information and consent forms their names were used for administrative purposes by the researcher only, to match the first to the second assessments. In data capturing, codes were used to link first and second assessments.

Information provided was treated with high confidentiality. Conditions specified in permissions granted by Hay Group and PSETA were adhered to at all times. In all written text and research reports submitted as part of the study, names of participants remained anonymous.

The endorsement and agreement with the PSETA and the Hay Group stipulated that the final research report should be made available. This will be honoured and participants will have access to the report (should they wish to do so). As stipulated in the conditional use agreement signed with the Hay Group (Hay Group, 2013), the questionnaire (ESCI) could not be attached to the final report.

4.7 Data processing and analysis procedures

The collected data was captured and cleaned on Excel and exported to the Statistical Package in Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis.

Statistical analysis of the first set of data (pre-intervention assessment data) was done. The instrument's psychometric properties were analysed (internal reliability). Preliminary descriptive statistical analysis was also done on demographic data (frequency distributions and cross tabulations). The means for self-raters and other raters' scores per participant were determined and compared to detect differences (Hay Group, 2012).

The same analysis was repeated on the second set of data (post-intervention assessment data). Paired samples t-tests were done on SPSS to determine whether the observed differences between the first and the second assessments were statistically significant or not, and whether gender and age differences were also statistically significant.

4.8 Hypotheses of the study

The core null hypothesis was that skills development internship programme does not develop learners' emotional intelligence competencies. Other null hypotheses were that, there are no gender differences in the development of emotional intelligence competencies and that older learners are not more competent in emotional intelligence than younger learners.

Stated clearly, the null hypotheses and their alternative hypotheses were:

1. Ho: Internship learning programme in the public service does not develop learners'

emotional intelligence competencies.

H1: Internship learning programme in the public service develops learners' emotional intelligence competencies

2. Ho: There are no gender differences in the development of learners' emotional intelligence competencies.

H1: There are gender differences in the development of learners' emotional intelligence competencies.

3. Ho: Older learners are not more competent in emotional intelligence than younger learners

H1: Older learners are more competent in emotional intelligence than younger learners

4.9 Chapter summary

The focus of the study was to evaluate the effectiveness of skills development learning programmes (specifically the internship learning programme in the public service) in developing emotional intelligence competencies of the interns. The research followed quantitative approach and was designed to be an experimental study striving to discover the effect of internship programme on emotional intelligence competency levels of the interns.

The general population, from which participants were sampled, was young people who had completed or were about to complete their university and FET college studies, and had been selected to participate in an internship programme in the public service in 2013. Permission was granted by Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority (PSETA) to source participants from government departments.

Participants' emotional intelligence competencies were assessed at the beginning and towards the end of the programme using a 360° Emotional and Social Competency Inventory tool. Access to the tool and permission to use it for research purposes only, was granted by the Hay Group in 2013. The intern's pre- and post-training assessment scores were compared to determine if there were differences.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of collected data. The discussion of results starts by re-capping the purpose of the study and the rate of participant's response in completing and returning the questionnaires during the first and the second rounds of assessment. The reliability of the instrument, distributions of participants' demographic characteristics, descriptive data analysis and interpretation are discussed.

Detailed analysis of differences in mean ratings between the first and the second rounds of assessment in all competencies as rated by all rater groups, and by mentors' group separately, are discussed. Differences in the development of emotional intelligence competencies based on gender and age are also reported.

5. 2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of skills development internship programme in developing emotional intelligence competencies of the interns in the public service sector. Interns were assessed two times, when they had just started and towards the completion of the programme. The intention was to determine if there were differences between the first and the second rounds of assessment, and whether there were differences based on gender and age.

5.3 Response rate

Initially, 100 self-rating questionnaires were distributed for completion by the interns. About 86 were returned. Based on the rater nomination forms which were completed and returned, by 86 interns, 258 questionnaires were distributed for completion by other raters, that is peers and mentors. All 258 were returned, however, 60 were invalid because they were either incomplete or had more than 25% of 'don't know' responses. These were excluded and therefore rendered 20 interns to be eliminated from the study because they did not have enough raters (Hay Group, 2011).

Ultimately during the first round, there were 66 interns and 198 other raters who had successfully completed and returned valid questionnaires. Altogether, 264 participants successfully completed and returned questionnaires for analysis.

During the second round, the distribution was based on the first round's valid return rate which consisted of 66 self-ratings and 198 other-raters. A total of 264 questionnaires were distributed for completion by all participants, that is the interns, their mentor and peers. All 264 questionnaires were ultimately returned and captured for analysis.

The final sample therefore consisted of a convenience sample of 66 interns (self-ratings) and 198 other-raters, bringing the total to 264 participants whose questionnaires were captured and analysed. Table 5.1 below summarises the response rate which was finally at about 77%.

Table 5.1: Response rate

| | Interns | Other raters | Total |
|------------------------|----------------|---------------------|--------------|
| Targeted sample | 86 | 258 | 344 |
| Ultimate sample | 66 | 198 | 264 |
| Response rate | 76.7 | | |

5.4 Demographic distributions of the pre- and post-tests

Demographic data was gathered for the interns only. This included age, gender, highest level of education, field of study and unit placed at within the department. Contact information was gathered for all participants through rater nomination forms, for data verification purposes during processing.

5.4.1 Gender distribution

The distribution of interns by gender was balanced, that is 52% females and 48% males which is comparable to gender distribution in the Census 2011 and it remained the same in both rounds of assessment (Statistics South Africa, 2011).

Table 5.2: Gender distribution

| Gender | Round 1 | | Round 2 | |
|---------------|----------------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | N | % | N | % |
| Female | 34 | 52 | 34 | 52 |
| Male | 32 | 48 | 32 | 48 |
| Total | 66 | 100 | 66 | 100 |

The table above shows gender distribution of the interns in both round 1 and round 2 (the pre- and post-) assessments. Figure 5.1 above represent gender distribution in both rounds of assessment graphically.

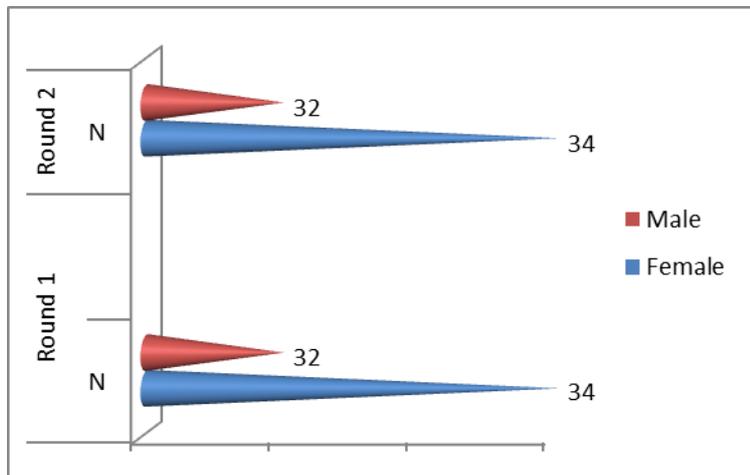


Figure 5.1: Gender distribution

5.4.2 Age distributions

Unlike with gender, age distribution did not remain the same in both rounds. The majority of interns were spread across the two age groups, 24-27 and 19-23. During the second round, few interns grew from the younger to the older age groups. Consequently, 28-32 year old group was increased by 2 interns while the two younger age groups, 19-23 and 24-27 year old groups decreased by 1 intern each. The 28-32 year old group increased from 14% to 17% while the other two younger groups decrease by 2% each. Table 5.3 and Figure 5.2 below visually represent these distributions.

Table 5.3: Age distribution

| Age | Round 1 | | Round 2 | |
|-------|---------|------|---------|------|
| | N | % | N | % |
| 19-23 | 17 | 25.8 | 16 | 24.2 |
| 24-27 | 36 | 54.5 | 35 | 53.0 |
| 28-31 | 9 | 13.6 | 11 | 16.7 |
| 32-35 | 4 | 6.1 | 4 | 6.06 |
| Total | 66 | 100 | 66 | 100 |

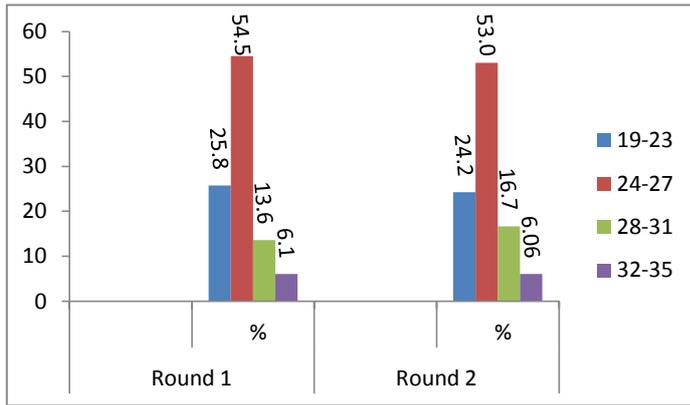


Figure 5.2: Age distribution

Figure 5.2 below shows that the 24-27 year old group is the largest (above 50%), followed by the 19-23 group in both rounds. Very few interns were aged 32 to 35 (only 6% in both rounds). The 28-31 age groups also had comparatively few interns (about 14% in the first round and 17% in the second round).

5.4.3 Distributions by highest education level

The table below shows the distribution of interns by highest level of education.

Table 5.4: Distribution by highest education level

| Highest education level | Round 1 | | Round 2 | |
|--------------------------------|----------------|------------|----------------|------------|
| | N | % | N | % |
| Bachelor degree | 21 | 31.8 | 21 | 31.8 |
| Honours degree | 7 | 10.6 | 7 | 10.6 |
| National Diploma | 35 | 53.0 | 35 | 53.0 |
| Post matric Certificate | 3 | 4.5 | 3 | 4.5 |
| <i>Total</i> | <i>66</i> | <i>100</i> | <i>66</i> | <i>100</i> |

From Table 5.4 above, it is evident that more than half of the interns had National Diplomas as their highest level education qualification (53%), followed by those with Bachelor degrees (31,8%), while those with Honours constituted only 10%. Very few had only Post Matric Certificates (4.5%).

5.4.4 Distributions by field of study

The distribution of interns by field of study also remained the same in both round 1 and round 2. Table 5.5 below shows that 50% of interns were in Economics & Management Sciences. Both Accounting & Finance and Human & Social Sciences had 19.7% each while Information Technology had 9.1%. Only one intern was in the Communication field, which constituted only 1.5%.

Table 5.5: Distribution by field of study

| Field of study | Round 1 | | Round 2 | |
|--------------------------------|---------|------|---------|-------|
| | N | % | N | % |
| Accounting & Finance | 13 | 19.7 | 13 | 19.7 |
| Communication | 1 | 1.5 | 1 | 1.5 |
| Economic & Management Sciences | 33 | 50.0 | 33 | 50.0 |
| Information Technology | 6 | 9.1 | 6 | 9.1 |
| Human & social Sciences | 13 | 19.7 | 13 | 19.7 |
| Total | 66 | 100 | 66 | 100.0 |

5.4.5 Cross tabulations of demographic distributions of post-test

5.4.5.1 Age and gender

The table below shows distribution of participating interns by age and gender.

Table 5.6: Age and gender cross tabulation

| Age | Age * Gender | Gender | | Total |
|-------|--------------|--------|-------|-------|
| | | Female | Male | |
| 19-23 | Count | 7 | 9 | 16 |
| | % of Total | 10.6% | 13.6% | 24.2% |
| 24-27 | Count | 20 | 15 | 35 |
| | % of Total | 30.3% | 22.7% | 53.0% |
| 28-31 | Count | 4 | 7 | 11 |
| | % of Total | 6.1% | 10.6% | 16.7% |
| 32-35 | Count | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| | % of Total | 4.5% | 1.5% | 6.1% |
| Total | Count | 34 | 32 | 66 |
| | % of Total | 51.5% | 48.5% | 100% |

From Table 5.6 above, 24.2 % of interns were 19-23 years old of which 13.6% were males and 10.6% were females. The largest group, 24-27 years olds constituted 53%, of which 30.3% were females and 22.7% were males. Those aged 28-31 years old constituted 16.7% of which 10.6% were males and 6.1% were females. Very few interns were aged 32-35 years, that is, only 6.1% of which 4.5% were females and 1.5 % were males.

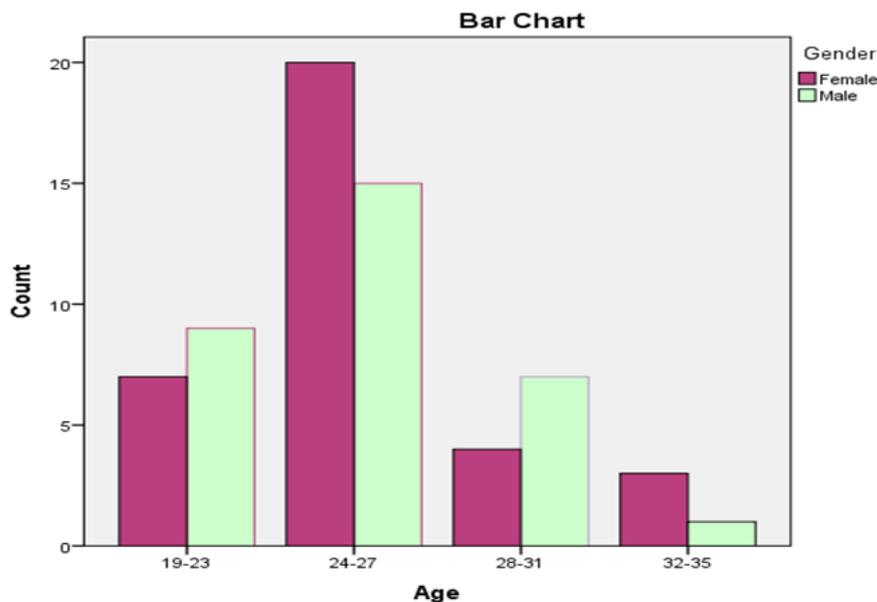


Figure 5.3: Age and gender cross tabulation

Figure 5.3 below graphically represents a cross tabulation of age and gender distribution. It shows that females out-numbered males in the 24-27 as well as in the 32-35 age groups. On the other hand, males out-numbered females in the 19-23 and 28-31 age groups.

5.4.5.2 Field of study and highest educational qualification cross tabulation

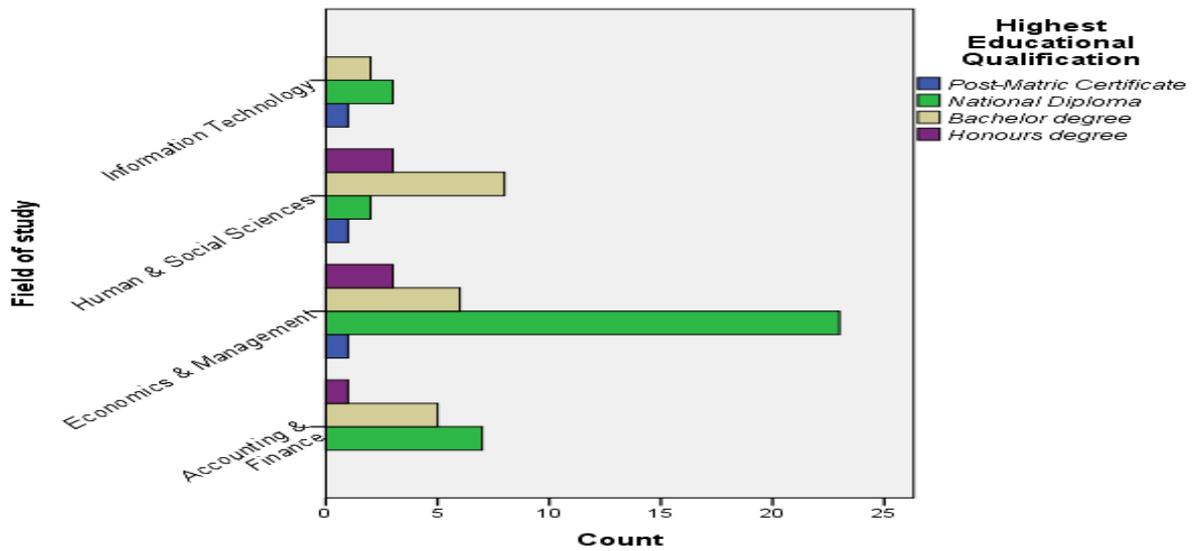
The table below indicates the distribution of participating interns by field of study and highest level of education. In Accounting & Finance 53% had National Diploma while 38% had Bachelor degree and 7.7 % had Honours degree. In Economics & Management Sciences, which had the largest number of interns, 69% had National Diploma while 18.2% had Bachelor degree, 9.1% Honours degree and only 3% had Post Martic Certificate.

Table 5.7 Field of study and highest educational qualification cross tabulation

| Field of study | Field of study * Highest Educational Qualification | Highest Educational Qualification | | | | Total |
|------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|------------------|-----------------|----------------|-------|
| | | Post-Matric Certificate | National Diploma | Bachelor degree | Honours degree | |
| Accounting & Finance | Count | 0 | 7 | 5 | 1 | 13 |
| | % | 0.0% | 53.8% | 38.5% | 7.7% | 100% |
| Economics & Management | Count | 1 | 23 | 6 | 3 | 33 |
| | % | 3.0% | 69.7% | 18.2% | 9.1% | 100% |
| Human & Social | Count | 1 | 2 | 8 | 3 | 14 |
| | % | 7.1% | 14.3% | 57.1% | 21.4% | 100% |
| Information Technology | Count | 1 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 6 |
| | % | 16.7% | 50.0% | 33.3% | 0.0% | 100% |
| Total | Count | 3 | 35 | 21 | 7 | 66 |
| | % | 4.5% | 53.0% | 31.8% | 10.6% | 100% |

In Human & Social Sciences, the larger group (57.1%) had Bachelor degree while 21.4% had Honours degrees, 14.3% had National Diploma and 7.1% had Post Matric Certificate. Information Technology field of study had the larger group with National Diploma (50%) while 33.3% had Bachelor degree and 16.7% had Post Matric Certificate. There were no interns with Honours in Information Technology.

Figure 5.4: *Field of study and highest educational qualification cross tabulation*



Overall, as visually represented in Figure 5.4, most participating interns had National Diploma in Economics & Management Sciences, and in Accounting & Finance. The majority of those with Bachelor and Honours degrees were mostly in Human & Social Sciences. Economics & Management Sciences and Accounting & Finance had almost equal distribution of interns with Bachelor degree. This pattern was the same for Honours degree in Human & Social and in Economics & Management Sciences.

5.4.5.3 Gender and field of study cross tabulation

From Table 5.8 below, 50% of both males and females were in Economics and Management Sciences. Accounting and Finance had more females (23.5%) than males (15.6%), unlike in Human & Social Sciences which had more males (21.9%) than females (20.6%).

Table 5.8: Gender and field of study cross tabulation

| Gender | Gender * Field of study | Field of study | | | | Total |
|--------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|-------|
| | | Accounting & Finance | Economics & Management | Human & Social Sciences | Information Technology | |
| Female | Count | 8 | 17 | 7 | 2 | 34 |
| | % | 23.5% | 50.0% | 20.6% | 5.9% | 100% |
| Male | Count | 5 | 16 | 7 | 4 | 32 |
| | % | 15.6% | 50.0% | 21.9% | 12.5% | 100% |
| | Count | 13 | 33 | 14 | 6 | 66 |
| Total | % | 19.7% | 50.0% | 21.2% | 9.1% | 100% |

This pattern was the same in Information Technology where males (12.5%) were more than females (5.9%).

5.5 Reliability analysis

The table below reflects Cronbach's Alpha in all 12 competencies, for both rounds of emotional intelligence assessment. In the first assessment, ranged from .503 to .815, and in the second assessment it ranged from 0.393 to 0.760. Based on the rule of thumb a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.7 is acceptable and below 0.5 is not acceptable (Hay Group, 2010).

In the second round, Cronbach's Alpha in all competencies reduced as a result of low inter-correlation between items measuring the same competency. In the analysis, it was observed that reversed items had low to negative correlations. When they were deleted, the Cronbach's Alpha values increased. Although inconsistency was observed in all sub-scales, it was more prevalent in items measuring Conflict Management and Emotional Self-Awareness.

Table 5.9: Cronbach's Alpha of pre- and post-tests

| Competency | Cronbach's Alpha | |
|--------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| | Round 1 pre-test | Round 2 post-test |
| Emotional self-awareness | .503 | .462 |
| Achievement Orientation | .715 | .640 |
| Adaptability | .686 | .649 |
| Emotional Self Control | .603 | .521 |
| Positive Outlook | .815 | .748 |
| Empathy | .556 | .501 |
| Organisational Awareness | .766 | .760 |
| Conflict Management | .560 | .393 |
| Coach & Mentor | .790 | .723 |
| Influence | .731 | .731 |
| Inspirational Leadership | .691 | .672 |
| Teamwork | .720 | .638 |

Participants may have been confused and misunderstood meanings in reversed items during questionnaire completion and thus responded in a way that did not reflect their observations. The confusion and misunderstanding of meaning in reversed items was revealed earlier in comments made by participants who had completed the questionnaire when it was piloted before the actual study. Language proficiency in English might have been the reason for confusion and misunderstanding of the reversed item.

Basically, the reliability of the tool, ESCI, as applied to this sample of participants is unstable, compared to the study done by Boyatzis and Gaskin (2010).

The table below indicates reversed items used to assess different competencies.

Table 5.10: Reversed items with poor inter-item reliabilities

| Competency | Item No. | Item Text |
|--------------------------|----------|--|
| Teamwork | 5 | Does not cooperate with others |
| Emotional Self-Control | 7 | Loses composure when under stress |
| | 64 | Gets impatient or shows frustration inappropriately |
| Achievement Orientation | 15 | Does not try to improve |
| | 43 | Does not strive to improve own performance |
| Coach & Mentor | 30 | Does not spend time developing others |
| Inspirational Leadership | 31 | Does not inspire followers |
| Adaptability | 44 | Has difficulty adapting to uncertain and changing conditions |
| Empathy | 49 | Does not understand subtle feelings of others |
| Conflict Management | 51 | Allows conflict to fester |
| Emotional Self-Awareness | 58 | Does not describe own feelings |

The meanings of these items may have been confusing and misunderstood by the participants when completing the questionnaire

5.6 Descriptive analysis

The descriptive results for both rounds of assessment are presented by individual competencies as rated by all rater groups.

5.6.1 Descriptive analysis by all rater groups on overall EQ score

Table 5.11 below shows descriptive analysis of combined mean ratings for all competencies as rated by all rater groups (self, mentors and two peers) in the first and the second assessment. It shows that mean ratings for self-raters (interns' self-assessments) decreased slightly from the first to the second assessment (from 38.9 to 38.5), while mentors' ratings increased from 29.7 in the first round to 34.2 in the second round.

Table 5.11: Composite descriptive statistics by all rater groups

| Rater Group | Round | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | Variance |
|--------------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| Self | 1 | 28.24 | 46.76 | 38.94 | 4.11 | 16.88 |
| | 2 | 26.03 | 45.88 | 38.53 | 3.90 | 15.17 |
| Mentor | 1 | 21.62 | 46.32 | 29.67 | 5.63 | 31.75 |
| | 2 | 24.26 | 46.32 | 34.24 | 6.06 | 36.67 |
| Peer A | 1 | 24.41 | 47.50 | 34.74 | 5.61 | 31.52 |
| | 2 | 24.12 | 46.76 | 34.48 | 4.91 | 24.09 |
| Peer B | 1 | 25.00 | 49.71 | 35.15 | 5.68 | 32.23 |
| | 2 | 25.29 | 49.71 | 35.59 | 5.69 | 32.35 |

The pattern for peers' mean ratings resembles that of self-rater group. There were visible positive mean differences in mentors' assessments between the first and the second rounds, compared to self and peers rater groups.

From the rater nomination forms, it was observed that the nominated peers were also interns participating in the study. The similarity of self-rating means and mean ratings by peers confirm this observation. These also confirm the conclusion that self-assessment data are not very reliable hence ESCI has been designed to be a 360° assessment tool (Hay Group, 2010).

Mentor assessments reflect objectivity. They seem to be more realistic than those of the interns' self-assessments. At the beginning of the programme, they rated the interns' emotional intelligence conservatively, on the basis that they had not observed their behaviours at work. In the second round (during the course of training programme), they assessed them objectively and realistically since they had observed and formed opinions about their behaviours at work. Their assessment scores were higher than in the first round indicating that the interns were observed to be eliciting behaviours that were expected and acceptable in their places of work. The differences in mentors' mean ratings also reflect that the intern's emotional intelligence competencies improved after receiving training. This confirms what Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (2005) suggested, that emotional intelligence can be improved through training and therapy.

As interns got exposed to the practical, real workplace situations, they learned some practical life lessons. These lessons changed their emotional self-perceptions which may have emanated from their individual personality traits. As a result, in the second round they rated

themselves a little lower based on the realities of the world of work on which they had been exposed and experienced. As McGurk (2010) maintains, the impacts of lessons they had learned from the world of work life, determined how they assessed their emotional intelligence competencies in the second round.

Hein (2003) suggests that, as a person gets exposed to different environments, the innate emotional intelligence either develops or deteriorates, depending on whether the environments are conducive for development or not. However, the reduction on the interns' self- assessment scores from the first to the second round of assessment may not necessarily mean that environments on which they were exposed were not conducive for development. On the contrary, the fact that the reduction was very little, it may mean that work environments were conducive for them to be more realistic about their emotional self-perceptions.

5.6.2 Descriptive analysis of emotional intelligence competencies of all rater groups

Table 5.12 below shows descriptive results of individual competencies as assessed by all rater groups. In the first round higher mean ratings were observed in the following competencies: Achievement Orientation; Emotional Self-control; Positive Outlook; Empathy; Organisational Awareness and Teamwork.

This indicates that learners elicited acceptable behaviours manifesting the presence of emotional intelligence in these competencies when they started with the training programme. They showed that they:

- a) could calculate risks in setting their goals, and they strived to exceed standards of excellence (Goleman *et al.*, 2002.)
- b) could keep disruptive emotions and impulses under control and remained effective under stressful conditions (Goleman, 1998)
- c) could see the positive in people, situations and events and persisted in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks (Gryn, 2010).
- d) could sense others' feelings, perspectives and took active interests in their concerns (Boyatzis, 2007)
- e) understood power relationships and dynamics; could identify influencers, networks and utilised them effectively (Hay Group, 2011)

- f) worked effectively with others, participated actively, made contributions and shared responsibilities towards a common goal in their work teams (Boyatzis, 2007; Goleman, 1998; Hay Group, 2011).

Table 5.12: Composite descriptive statistics for each EI competency

| Competency | Round | Mean | Std. Deviation | Variance | Minimum | Maximum |
|--------------------------|--------------|-------------|-----------------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Emotional Self Awareness | 1 | 3.350 | 0.788 | .622 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.480 | 0.766 | .587 | 1.60 | 5.00 |
| Achievement Orientation | 1 | 3.763 | 0.782 | .612 | 1.67 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.819 | 0.723 | .523 | 1.67 | 5.00 |
| Adaptability | 1 | 3.358 | 0.865 | .748 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.605 | 0.840 | .706 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| Emotional Self Control | 1 | 3.642 | 0.710 | .505 | 2.00 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.705 | 0.665 | .442 | 2.20 | 5.00 |
| Positive Outlook | 1 | 3.696 | 0.845 | .714 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.789 | 0.769 | .591 | 1.33 | 5.00 |
| Empathy | 1 | 3.526 | 0.840 | .706 | 1.50 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.731 | 0.767 | .589 | 1.50 | 5.00 |
| Organisational Awareness | 1 | 3.588 | 0.833 | .694 | 1.60 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.851 | 0.748 | .559 | 2.00 | 5.00 |
| Conflict Management | 1 | 3.133 | 0.983 | .966 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.306 | 0.912 | .832 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| Coach & Mentor | 1 | 3.133 | 1.056 | 1.116 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.205 | 0.970 | .941 | .80 | 5.00 |
| Influence | 1 | 3.184 | 0.807 | .652 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.398 | 0.795 | .631 | 1.33 | 5.00 |
| Inspirational Leadership | 1 | 3.149 | 1.042 | 1.085 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.295 | 1.016 | 1.032 | 1.00 | 5.00 |
| Teamwork | 1 | 3.730 | 0.801 | .641 | 1.80 | 5.00 |
| | 2 | 3.927 | 0.710 | .504 | 2.20 | 5.00 |

In the first round lower mean ratings were observed in the following competencies: Conflict management; Coach & Mentor; Influence, and Inspirational Leadership. This indicates that behaviours showing the presence of emotional intelligence in these competencies were not observed from learners. Learners did not:

- a) tactfully help others in tense emotional situations, to find solutions acceptable to everyone affected (Bipath, 2007).

- b) foster long term development of others by giving support and feedback (Boyatzis, 2007).
- c) have a positive impact on others, persuade them in order to gain their support (Goleman et al., 2002).
- d) Inspire and bring out the best in others, and guide others to get the job done (Hay Group, 2011).

However, lack of exhibition of these competencies by learners may be justifiable in that most of them are not very applicable to them as interns but are applicable to their supervisors and managers.

In the second round, mean ratings increased slightly in all competencies, however, slightly higher mean differences were observed in Achievement Orientation; Emotional Self-control; Positive Outlook ; Empathy ; Organisational Awareness Teamwork and Adaptability.

Learners' flexibility in handling change, juggling multiple demands and adapting to changing environments and ideas (Goleman et al., 2002), could not be observed in the first round but only in the second round. This is practically logical in the sense that during the first assessment, the interns had just joined the department and work environment was completely new to them. They were still adapting to the new work environment. As they got exposed they learned to adapt.

From the analysis of items that assessed Adaptability, the larger contribution to the improvement was attributed to item 53 'Adapts overall strategy, goals, or projects to cope with unexpected events', which showed a bigger mean difference between the first and the second rounds of assessment. During the second assessment a maximum of 31% of learners were observed to often and consistently adapt to overall strategy, goals, or projects in order to cope with unexpected events at the workplace (Hay Group, 2010).

Tables 5.13 shows the results of the descriptive analysis of Adaptability and Item 53 as rated by all rater groups.

Table 5.13: Composite descriptive statistics for adaptability by all raters

| Items | Round | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | Mean Diff |
|---|--------------|----------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------------|------------------|
| Q14: <i>Adapts to shifting priorities and rapid change</i> | 1 | 1 | 5 | 3.26 | 1.343 | 0.31 |
| | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3.57 | 1.244 | |
| Q24: <i>Adapts by applying standard procedures flexibly</i> | 1 | 1 | 5 | 3.67 | 1.143 | 0.13 |
| | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3.80 | 1.104 | |
| Q44: <i>Has difficulty adapting to uncertain and changing conditions</i> | 1 | 1 | 5 | 3.62 | 1.249 | -0.31 |
| | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3.31 | 1.314 | |
| Q48: <i>Adapts by smoothly juggling multiple demands</i> | 1 | 1 | 5 | 3.12 | 1.273 | 0.25 |
| | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3.37 | 1.235 | |
| Q53: <i>Adapts overall strategy, goals, or projects to cope with unexpected events</i> | 1 | 1 | 5 | 3.44 | 1.228 | 0.27 |
| | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3.70 | 1.158 | |
| Q65: <i>Adapts overall strategy, goals, or projects to fit the situation</i> | 1 | 1 | 5 | 3.32 | 1.233 | 0.26 |
| | 2 | 1 | 5 | 3.58 | 1.186 | |

As interns got exposed to the organisational, work environments, for them to cope with unexpected events they learned to often and consistently adapt to overall strategy, goals, or projects in which they were involved.

As they got to understand the informal processes, unspoken rules, values, culture, social networks as well as the structures by which work gets done, in their teams and organisation at large, their competency in adaptability improved.

Table 5.14: Composite descriptive statistics of Item 53 by all raters

| Item: Q53 | Rating | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent | |
|--|----------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|--|
| Round 2 | | | | | | |
| Adapts overall strategy, goals, or projects to cope with unexpected events | Never | 14 | 5.3 | 5.3 | 5.3 | |
| | Rarely | 27 | 10.2 | 10.2 | 15.5 | |
| | Sometimes | 62 | 23.5 | 23.5 | 39.0 | |
| | Often | 81 | 30.7 | 30.7 | 69.7 | |
| | Consistently | 80 | 30.3 | 30.3 | 100.0 | |
| | Round 1 | | | | | |
| | Never | 21 | 8.0 | 8.0 | 8.0 | |
| | Rarely | 43 | 16.3 | 16.3 | 24.2 | |
| | Sometimes | 60 | 22.7 | 22.7 | 47.0 | |
| | Often | 80 | 30.3 | 30.3 | 77.3 | |
| | Consistently | 60 | 22.7 | 22.7 | 100.0 | |
| Total | 264 | 100.0 | 100.0 | | | |

5.7 Testing for mean differences in EI competencies on the pre- and post-tests

The descriptive statistical results showed that there were some differences in the means of combined competencies as rated by mentors' rater group as compared to when rated by self and peers' rater groups. These results also showed that while there were some improvements in all competencies from the first to the second assessment, mean differences were observed in the following competencies: Achievement Orientation; Emotional Self-control; Positive Outlook; Empathy; Organisational Awareness Teamwork and Adaptability. However, the level of statistical significance in these mean differences had not been determined.

Paired samples t-test were performed to determine the level of statistical significance for mean differences, in all competences, firstly as assessed by all raters, and secondly as assessed by mentors only.

5.7.1 Paired sample test of all rater groups and all competencies combined

When the paired samples t-test for all rater groups in both rounds, for all competencies combined was analysed, it was observed that for self and peers-rater groups, the p-values were above 0.05 which was an indication that mean differences in all competencies as rated by these groups were not statistically significant (mean difference of 0.078, p-value of 0.862

for self and mean difference of 0.378, p-value of 0.516 for peers). This confirms the descriptive results of assessments by these rater groups. Table 5.14 below shows paired samples t-test results for all competencies combined as rated by all rater groups.

Table 5.15: Paired sample t-tests of all rater group and all competencies combined

| Rater Groups | Composite EI Competencies: Round 1-Round 2 | Paired Differences | | | | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|--------------|--|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|-------|--------|-----|-----------------|
| | | Mean Difference | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper | | | |
| Self | Self-assessment mean ratings | -.078 | 3.655 | .450 | -.977 | .820 | -.174 | 65 | .862 |
| Mentor | Mentors assessment mean ratings | -5.157 | 6.489 | .799 | -6.752 | -3.56 | -6.456 | 65 | .000 |
| Peers | Peers assessment mean ratings | -.378 | 6.663 | .580 | -1.525 | .770 | -.651 | 131 | .516 |

The mean difference (5.157) as rated by mentors' rater group, were shown to be statistically significant with the p-value below 0.001 at 95% confidence interval that the difference falls between 6.752 at a lower bound and 3.56 at an upper bound.

5.7.2 Paired samples t-tests for individual competencies and all rater groups

From the table below, mean differences that were shown to be statistically significant with p-values below 0.001 were:

- Organisational Awareness,
- Adaptability
- Influence
- Teamwork
- Empathy

Table 5.16: Paired samples t-tests of all rater groups and individual competencies

| Paired competencies: Round 2-Round 1 | Paired Differences | | | | | t | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|---|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|-------|-------|--------------------|
| | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | |
| | | | | Lower | Upper | | |
| Emotional Self Awareness | .130 | .851 | .052 | .026 | .233 | 2.474 | .014 |
| Achievement Orientation | .056 | .774 | .048 | -.038 | .149 | 1.167 | .244 |
| Adaptability | .246 | .914 | .056 | .135 | .357 | 4.375 | .000 |
| Emotional Self-Control | .063 | .717 | .044 | -.024 | .150 | 1.425 | .155 |
| Positive Outlook | .093 | .809 | .050 | -.005 | .191 | 1.863 | .064 |
| Empathy | .205 | .923 | .057 | .094 | .317 | 3.616 | .000 |
| Organisational Awareness | .263 | .889 | .055 | .155 | .371 | 4.807 | .000 |
| Conflict Management | .173 | .981 | .060 | .054 | .292 | 2.871 | .004 |
| Coach & Mentor | .073 | .975 | .060 | -.045 | .191 | 1.212 | .227 |
| Influence | .213 | .860 | .053 | .109 | .318 | 4.032 | .000 |
| Inspirational Leadership | .146 | 1.002 | .062 | .024 | .267 | 2.366 | .019 |
| Teamwork | .198 | .841 | .052 | .096 | .300 | 3.821 | .000 |

N= 264; df= 263

Other competencies shown to have mean differences that are statistically significant with a p-values below 0.05 were:

- Emotional Self-Awareness
- Conflict Management
- Inspirational Leadership

Competencies that were shown to have no statistically significant differences, with a p-values above 0.05 are:

- Achievement Orientation
- Emotional Self-control
- Positive Outlook and
- Coach & Mentor

5.7.3 Paired samples test of individual competencies by mentors only

Since amongst all rater groups, mentors' ratings showed statistically significant competency mean differences, a detailed analysis of paired t-test for individual competencies, as rated by mentors only was done.

Table 5.17: Paired samples t-tests for mentors only and individual competencies

| Paired competencies: Round 2-Round 1 | Paired Differences | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | t | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|---|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|-------|-------|-----------------|
| | Mean Difference | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | Lower | Upper | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| Emotional Self Awareness | .358 | .883 | .109 | .141 | .575 | 3.290 | .002 |
| Achievement Orientation | .520 | .732 | .090 | .340 | .700 | 5.775 | .000 |
| Adaptability | .606 | .975 | .120 | .366 | .846 | 5.048 | .000 |
| Emotional Self-Control | .345 | .668 | .082 | .181 | .510 | 4.201 | .000 |
| Positive Outlook | .427 | .849 | .104 | .218 | .635 | 4.084 | .000 |
| Empathy | .712 | .942 | .116 | .481 | .944 | 6.143 | .000 |
| Organisational Awareness | .721 | .874 | .108 | .506 | .936 | 6.703 | .000 |
| Conflict Management | .598 | 1.040 | .128 | .343 | .854 | 4.673 | .000 |
| Coach & Mentor | .379 | 1.060 | .130 | .118 | .639 | 2.903 | .005 |
| Influence | .621 | .948 | .117 | .388 | .854 | 5.321 | .000 |
| Inspirational Leadership | .428 | 1.117 | .137 | .153 | .703 | 3.113 | .003 |
| Teamwork | .658 | .859 | .106 | .446 | .869 | 6.218 | .000 |

N=66 ; df= 65

The paired samples t-test showed that in all competencies, mean differences were statistically significant with p-values below 0.05. Most of them have p-values below 0.001 with the exception of Emotional self-Awareness (p=.002), Coach & Mentor (p=.005) and Inspirational Leadership (p=.003).

5.7.4 Paired samples test for individual competencies by gender and age

From the table below, in the composite emotional intelligence, no differences have been revealed between males and females.

Table 5.18: Paired Samples Test by gender for all raters

| Gender | Paired competencies: Round 2- Round 1 | Paired Differences | | | | | | | |
|--------|---|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|-------|-------|----|-----------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper | | | |
| Female | Emotional Self Awareness | .541 | .967 | .166 | .204 | .878 | 3.264 | 33 | .003 |
| Male | | .163 | .751 | .133 | -.108 | .433 | 1.224 | 31 | .230 |
| Female | Achievement Orientation | .451 | .821 | .141 | .164 | .737 | 3.202 | 33 | .003 |
| Male | | .594 | .628 | .111 | .367 | .820 | 5.350 | 31 | .000 |
| Female | Adaptability | .529 | 1.081 | .185 | .152 | .907 | 2.856 | 33 | .007 |
| Male | | .688 | .859 | .152 | .378 | .997 | 4.527 | 31 | .000 |
| Female | Emotional Self-Control | .459 | .757 | .130 | .195 | .723 | 3.533 | 33 | .001 |
| Male | | .225 | .544 | .096 | .029 | .421 | 2.339 | 31 | .026 |
| Female | Positive Outlook | .539 | .972 | .167 | .200 | .878 | 3.235 | 33 | .003 |
| Male | | .307 | .691 | .122 | .058 | .556 | 2.517 | 31 | .017 |
| Female | Empathy | .787 | 1.056 | .181 | .418 | 1.155 | 4.346 | 33 | .000 |
| Male | | .633 | .813 | .144 | .340 | .926 | 4.402 | 31 | .000 |
| Female | Organisational Awareness | .694 | .915 | .157 | .375 | 1.013 | 4.424 | 33 | .000 |
| Male | | .750 | .842 | .149 | .446 | 1.054 | 5.036 | 31 | .000 |
| Female | Conflict Management | .596 | 1.229 | .211 | .167 | 1.025 | 2.825 | 33 | .008 |
| Male | | .602 | .813 | .144 | .308 | .895 | 4.186 | 31 | .000 |
| Female | Coach & Mentor | .418 | 1.319 | .226 | -.042 | .878 | 1.847 | 33 | .074 |
| Male | | .338 | .708 | .125 | .082 | .593 | 2.695 | 31 | .011 |
| Female | Influence | .696 | 1.064 | .182 | .325 | 1.067 | 3.815 | 33 | .001 |
| Male | | .542 | .818 | .145 | .247 | .836 | 3.748 | 31 | .001 |
| Female | Inspirational Leadership | .346 | 1.292 | .222 | -.105 | .797 | 1.559 | 33 | .129 |
| Male | | .516 | .907 | .160 | .189 | .843 | 3.217 | 31 | .003 |
| Female | Teamwork | .624 | .943 | .162 | .295 | .953 | 3.856 | 33 | .001 |
| Male | | .694 | .774 | .137 | .415 | .973 | 5.072 | 31 | .000 |
| Female | Composite Emotional Intelligence | 5.431 | 7.739 | 1.327 | 2.731 | 8.132 | 4.092 | 33 | .000 |
| Male | | 4.865 | 4.936 | .873 | 3.085 | 6.644 | 5.575 | 31 | .000 |

However, there seems to be differences in the development of emotional intelligence competencies between males and females in certain competencies. Males seemed to have no statistically significant differences in Emotional Self-Awareness (with p-value of 0.230 and t-value of 1.224) than females, while females seem to have no statistically significant differences in Inspirational Leadership (with p-value of 0.129 and t-value of 1.559), and in Coach and Mentor (with p-value of 0.074 and t-value of 1.847) than males.

Thus, females seem to have developed higher than males in Emotional Self-Awareness while males seem to have developed higher in Inspirational Leadership and Coach and Mentor. These results are similar to the finding by Cavallo and Brienza (2002), reported in Wolff (2005). They are also partially confirming literature on gender differences in the development of emotional intelligence that there may be differences based in certain competencies (Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Wolff, 2005). In all other competencies the paired samples t-test showed statistically significant differences between the first and the second assessment for both males and females, with slight differences in the levels of significance. Overall, the composite emotional intelligence seem to have improved for both males and females after participating in the internship programme

Literature has indicated that research on age differences has mixed findings, some have found differences while other have found no differences (Wolf 2005) and in this research, the collected data did not support the notion that there are age differences in the development of emotional intelligence.

Literature also suggested that emotional intelligence competencies are learned through exposure to the real world of work environments (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman 2005; Hein 2003; McGurk, 2010). Although these interns were at different age groups, all of them had not been exposed to the realities of the world of work before and they were within the unemployed youth category, ranging between 19 to 35 years old (Statistics South Africa, 2011).

5.7.5 Competencies with significant mean differences by all rater groups and for mentors

In a nutshell, competencies with mean differences that tested statistically significant in paired samples 2-tailed t-tests for all rater groups and for mentors only are indicated in the table below.

Table 5.19: Competencies with significant mean differences by all rater groups and mentors Only

| Paired competencies: Round 2-Round 1 | | Paired Differences | | | | | t | Sig. (2-tailed) |
|---|---------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|-------|-------|--------------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper | | |
| Emotional Self Awareness | <i>all raters</i> | .130 | .851 | .052 | .026 | .233 | 2.474 | .014 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .358 | .883 | .109 | .141 | .575 | 3.290 | .002 |
| Achievement Orientation | <i>all raters</i> | .056 | .774 | .048 | -.038 | .149 | 1.167 | .244 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .520 | .732 | .090 | .340 | .700 | 5.775 | .000 |
| Adaptability | <i>all raters</i> | .246 | .914 | .056 | .135 | .357 | 4.375 | .000 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .606 | .975 | .120 | .366 | .846 | 5.048 | .000 |
| Emotional Self-Control | <i>all raters</i> | .063 | .717 | .044 | -.024 | .150 | 1.425 | .155 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .345 | .668 | .082 | .181 | .510 | 4.201 | .000 |
| Positive Outlook | <i>all raters</i> | .093 | .809 | .050 | -.005 | .191 | 1.863 | .064 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .427 | .849 | .104 | .218 | .635 | 4.084 | .000 |
| Empathy | <i>all raters</i> | .205 | .923 | .057 | .094 | .317 | 3.616 | .000 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .712 | .942 | .116 | .481 | .944 | 6.143 | .000 |
| Organisational Awareness | <i>all raters</i> | .263 | .889 | .055 | .155 | .371 | 4.807 | .000 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .721 | .874 | .108 | .506 | .936 | 6.703 | .000 |
| Conflict Management | <i>all raters</i> | .173 | .981 | .060 | .054 | .292 | 2.871 | .004 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .598 | 1.040 | .128 | .343 | .854 | 4.673 | .000 |
| Coach & Mentor | <i>all raters</i> | .073 | .975 | .060 | -.045 | .191 | 1.212 | .227 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .379 | 1.060 | .130 | .118 | .639 | 2.903 | .005 |
| Influence | <i>all raters</i> | .213 | .860 | .053 | .109 | .318 | 4.032 | .000 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .621 | .948 | .117 | .388 | .854 | 5.321 | .000 |
| Inspirational Leadership | <i>all raters</i> | .146 | 1.002 | .062 | .024 | .267 | 2.366 | .019 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .428 | 1.117 | .137 | .153 | .703 | 3.113 | .003 |
| Teamwork | <i>all raters</i> | .198 | .841 | .052 | .096 | .300 | 3.821 | .000 |
| | <i>mentors only</i> | .658 | .859 | .106 | .446 | .869 | 6.218 | .000 |

From the table above, paired samples t-test showed that there was consensus between mentors' only assessments and all rater groups' assessments that mean differences for Organisational Awareness, Adaptability, Influence, Teamwork and Empathy were statistically significant with p-values below 0.000. Other competencies with statistically significant mean differences with p-value below 0.05 were Emotional Self-Awareness; Conflict Management and Inspirational Leadership. There was no consensus on statistical

significance in mean differences for Achievement Orientation, Coach & Mentor, Positive Outlook and Emotional Self-Control.

Although descriptive analysis indicated that mean differences for Achievement Orientation, Positive Outlook and Emotional Self-control were visible, samples t-test showed that they were not statistically significant. Instead mean differences for Emotional Self-Awareness, Conflict Management and Inspirational Leadership that were shown to be low and not that visible, were tested to be statistically significant.

5.7.6 Basic competencies to be developed by internship programmes in the public service sector

According to the guidelines for internship programmes in the public service sector, there are recommended behavioural attributes to be developed through internship programmes. These are said to be the 'assumed basic competencies that all employees of the organisation should possess' (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2006, p. 14). The table below aligns these basic competencies with ESCI emotional intelligence competencies.

The analysis of t-test showed that these basic competencies: Organisational awareness, Adaptability, Influence, Teamwork, Empathy, Conflict Management and Inspirational Leadership had shown statistically significant mean differences between the first and the second assessments and therefore seem to have improved during the course of training. The table also shows that guidelines for internship programmes in the public service do not include the development self-awareness competencies.

Table 5.20: Alignment of public service recommended basic skills and emotional intelligence competencies

| DPSA Basic competencies | EI Clusters and competencies |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Time management | Self-management: |
| | <i>Emotional Self-control</i> |
| | <i>Achievement Orientation</i> |
| | <i>Positive Outlook</i> |
| Interpersonal skills | Adaptability |
| | Social Awareness: |
| | <i>Organisational awareness</i> |
| Teamwork and communication skills | <i>Empathy</i> |
| | Relationship Management: |
| | <i>Influence</i> |
| | <i>Coach & Mentor</i> |
| | <i>Conflict Management</i> |
| | <i>Inspirational Leadership</i> |
| <i>Teamwork</i> | |

5.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the analysis and discussion of collected data. A total of 66 interns completed the self-rating Emotional and Social Competency Inventory when they had just started with internship programme and when they were about to complete the programme. They were also rated by a total of 198 other raters, consisting of one mentor and two peers for each intern. Overall, a total of 264 questionnaires were captured and analysed in Statistical Package for Social Sciences. The demographic distribution was such that 52% of the interns were females and 48% were males. Most of them were between 23 and 27 years old (77%), with National Diploma (53%) mainly in Economics & Management Sciences and Accounting & Finance fields of study. Those with Bachelor degrees (31.8%) and Honours degrees (10.6%) were mostly in Human & Social Sciences.

The internal consistency of the tool, ESCI, as applied to this sample of participants indicated instability with Cronbach's Alpha ranging between .503 and .815 in the first round, and .393 and .748 in the second round.

The interns rated themselves higher in almost all competencies during the first round and in the second round they rated themselves a little lower. This pattern was the same for peers' ratings (who were also interns). Mentors' ratings seemed to be more objective and realistic. They rated the interns lower during the first round and in the second round they rated them higher in almost all competencies. These results somehow show that emotional intelligence competencies improve over time as people get exposed to real work environments (McGrath, 2009; McGurk, 2010).

When paired t-tests were done on the SPSS, mean differences for mentors' ratings between the first and the second round of assessment were tested to be statistically significant compared to those of peers and interns. Overall, competencies that were tested to have statistically significant differences and therefore improved between the first and the second rounds were Organisational Awareness, Adaptability, Influence, Teamwork, Empathy, Emotional Self Awareness, Conflict Management and Inspirational Leadership, with p-values below 0.05, ranging from 0.000 to 0.019 and t-values ranging from 4.808 for Organisational Awareness and 2.366 for Inspirational Leadership. No statistically significant differences were observed in Achievement Orientation, Emotional Self-control, Positive Outlook and Coach & Mentor

Although in the composite emotional intelligence, no differences were revealed between males and females, descriptive analysis showed mean differences in certain competencies. Paired samples t-tests indicated that females had improved significantly better than males in Emotional Self-awareness and males had improved significantly better than females in Inspirational Leadership and Coach & Mentor. The collected and analysed age data did not support the notion of the effect of age differences in the development of emotional intelligence.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In this last chapter, conclusions from data analysis and discussions are made in an attempt to answer the research questions and hypotheses, based on the distribution of participants' demographic characteristics, instrument reliability, descriptive analysis of data and statistical tests for significance in mean differences. Recommendations for future research and limitations of the study are also highlighted.

6.2 Overview

The purpose of this research was to determine the effectiveness of the skills development internship learning programme in the public service in developing the interns' emotional intelligence competencies needed in the world of work. Interns' participating in the internship programme in the public service and placed in one of the government departments were sampled to participate in the study. Their emotional intelligence competencies were assessed at the beginning and towards the end of the programme, using a 360° mixed emotional intelligence model's assessment tool, namely, the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory. This background is meant to provide an understanding of the context of the research scope and design.

From the literature that was reviewed, the theoretical framework of the effects of skills development learning programmes in the development of the emotional intelligence competencies surfaced. Based on the study design, the effectiveness of the training programme was determined by the statistically significant mean differences between the first and the second rounds of assessment. Thus, if mean differences were tested to be statistically significant, then emotional intelligence has improved and therefore the programme is effective.

Because the study followed a quasi-experimental design, findings cannot be generalised to the bigger population of interns in the public service and skills development internship learning programmes. Findings are applicable to this sample of interns only, however the study can be replicated by other researchers.

6.2.1 Demographic distribution

The distribution of interns by gender was balanced and was in line with the gender distribution in the South African economically active population (Statistics South Africa, 2011). Females constituted 52% and males constituted 48% of the sampled interns. Most interns were between 23 and 27 years old with National Diploma mainly in Economic & Management Sciences and in Accounting & Finance. Very few had National Diplomas in Human & Social Sciences and very few had Bachelor and Honours degrees in Economic & Management Sciences.

6.2.2 Reliability

As applied to this sample of interns the internal consistency of the instrument showed instability. Cronbach's Alpha values were indicated as ranging between 0.393 and 0.815 for both rounds. The instability may have resulted from low to negative item inter-correlations on reversed items. When these items were deleted during the analysis, the reliability coefficient improved. Therefore, not all items of the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory seemed to assess emotional intelligence competencies as expected.

6.2.3 Descriptive results

Mentors' assessments seemed to reflect objectivity and seemed to be better realistic compared to self and peer assessments. During the first assessment, at the beginning of the programme, learners had not yet been exposed to the dynamics of the world of work and could not demonstrate the capabilities to deal with workplace dynamics. Mentors rated them lower. However towards the end of the programme, when they had been exposed to the world of work for some time, and demonstrated the capabilities to deal with workplace dynamics, mentors rated them objectively and realistically. These results are supported by literature and other studies which showed that emotional intelligence competencies develop over time, as people get exposed to real, practical work environments (Bar-On, 2006; Hein, 2003; McGrath, 2009; McGurk, 2010; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Wolff (2005).

6.2.4 Statistical significance in observed mean differences

Overall, the composite emotional intelligence seem to have improved after participating in the internship programme for both males and females. The interns' emotional intelligence

showed significant improvement in most competencies. Organisational Awareness, Adaptability, Influence, Teamwork, Empathy, Emotional Self-Awareness, Conflict Management and Inspirational Leadership showed improvement with p-values below 0.05. No significant improvements were observed in Achievement Orientation, Emotional Self-control, Positive Outlook and Coach & Mentor. These results confirm what literature on national skills development and the development of emotional intelligence has suggested, that at the completion of skills development learning programmes, learners show an improvement in soft skills (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Department of Labour, 2005; Goleman et al., 2002; Nyathi et al., 2008; South African Qualifications Authority, 2001).

6.2.5 Gender and age differences in the development emotional intelligence competencies

Literature indicated that with regard to overall emotional intelligence, no gender differences have been revealed between males and females. However, statistically significant gender differences do exist for a few of the competencies (Bar-On, 2006). In this study, there are gender differences in certain competencies. Paired samples t-tests showed that females have developed higher than males in Emotional Self-Awareness while males have developed higher than females in Inspirational Leadership and Coach & Mentor. These findings are partially supported by findings of the study by Cavallo and Brienza (2002), reported in Wolff (2005).

Goleman's (2005) notion that older individuals should have higher levels of emotional intelligence than younger individuals was not supported by the results. Therefore no conclusive findings could be made on the effect of age in the development of emotional intelligence competencies. However, the age interval groups only represent the range of ages between 19 and 35. The use of 4 age intervals in the questionnaire (19 to 23, 24 to 27, 28 to 31, and 32 to 35) limited the variability and usefulness of this variable as it reduced the information to the ordinal level of measurement.

6.2.6 Research questions and hypotheses

a) Are skills development internship learning programmes in the public service effective in developing the interns' emotional intelligence competencies? that is, do interns' emotional intelligence competencies improve after participating in internship learning programme?

Statistically significant improvements in Organisational Awareness, Adaptability, Influence, Teamwork, Empathy, Emotional Self-Awareness; Conflict Management and Inspirational Leadership were observed in the interns' emotional intelligence competencies after participating in internship learning programme. Therefore it could be concluded that for this sample of interns, the skills development internship learning programme was effective in developing the interns' emotional intelligence competencies.

Ho: Internship learning programme in the public service does not develop learners' emotional intelligence competencies.

H1: Internship learning programme in the public service develops learners' emotional intelligence competencies

Analysis showed that there were statistically significant mean differences with p-values below 0.05 in most of the emotional intelligence competencies. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and conclusion was that the internship learning programme in the public service is effective in developing learners' emotional intelligence competencies.

b) Are there demographic differences in terms of gender and age, in the development of emotional intelligence competencies of learners?

In the composite emotional intelligence, no differences were shown between males and females. However, there seems to be gender differences in the development of certain emotional intelligence competencies. Females seemed to have developed significantly higher than males in Emotional Self-awareness and males seemed to have developed significantly higher than females in Inspirational Leadership and Coach & Mentor than females.

Ho: There are no gender differences in the development of emotional intelligence competencies.

H1: There are gender differences in the development of emotional intelligence competencies.

Males showed no statistically significant differences in Emotional Self-Awareness (with p-value of 0.230 and t-value of 1.224), while females showed no statistically significant differences in Inspirational Leadership (with p-value of 0.129 and t-value of 1.559), and in Coach and Mentor (with p-value of 0.074 and t-value of 1.847). In the composite emotional

intelligence, there were no differences observed in the development of emotional intelligence base on gender. Therefore, the null hypothesis was partially rejected and the conclusion was that although there are no gender differences in the development of the composite emotional intelligence, there are differences in the development of certain emotional intelligence competencies based on gender. Females are more emotionally intelligent in Emotional Self Awareness than males , while males are more emotionally intelligent in Inspirational Leadership and in Coach & Mentor than females.

Ho: Older learners are not more competent in emotional intelligence than younger learners

H1: Older learners are more competent in emotional intelligence than younger learners

The null hypothesis was not supported by the data collected for the study. No conclusive findings can be made on whether older learners are more competent than younger learners Therefore the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

6.3 Limitations of the study

A sample of convenience was used and participation was thus voluntary and this was stated in the letter introducing the study to participants. This reduced the sample size, because not all interns contracted in the department for that year participated. Because of the ultimately smaller sample size, some statistical analysis techniques were not possible to apply. The sample did not contain sufficient cases to allow for proper multivariate analysis.

In addition to voluntary participation, the rules of using the ESCI questionnaire stipulate that if the questionnaire is not completed completely or has more than 25% ‘don’t know’ responses, it should be regarded as invalid and should therefore be excluded (Hay Group, 2011). This rendered 20 participants to be eliminated from the study because they did not have enough raters. Their raters either did not completely complete the questionnaires or chose more that 25% ‘don’t know’ responses and their questionnaires were excluded. This further reduced the sample size. This may also have negatively affected the power of the statistical calculations in the study, that is, it may have limited the application of other statistical techniques in the analysis of the collected data.

Time was the limiting factor in this research. Due to time-consuming processes to acquire permissions from different organisations, data collection was delayed and this ultimately had an impact in the completion of the study.

The majority of participants were between 19-27 years of age. This presented a limitation in applying certain statistical techniques to determine whether age is a factor in the development of the interns' emotional intelligence competencies, that is, whether older learners are more intelligent than younger learners. Due to the sample's underrepresentation of variation in the age variable, the analysis of data using various techniques to determine whether older learners are more emotionally intelligent than younger learners was limited.

The design could not allow for controlling external influences. Quasi-experimental designs do not use random sampling. Using non-random do not reduce threats to external validity and thus limit generalization of the findings (Bradley, K. 2014). As such the generalisability of these findings to the broader population of interns in the public services is susceptible.

6.4 Strengths of the study

Although theoretically the generalisability of these study findings is threatened by the design and especially sampling limitations, they could be generalised to all interns in the public service internship programme, because the study was a practical research, conducted in a real world, evaluating the skills development programme implemented in all public service institutions. However, generalisation could be done on condition that the interns' demographic information is similar and that the interns have not been previously exposed and participated in any internship programme in the public service.

6.5 Lessons learned

Distributing questionnaires to interns to complete at their own free time is not a very effective way of collecting data from learners. A pattern showing that questionnaires were completed without fully understanding the instructions was picked up from questionnaires completed by the interns (self rater group). In future similar studies, a different method will need to be applied, where instructions can be given in a face-to-face set-up that would allow for response to questions of clarity.

When piloting the study, the process should extend to data analysis and interpretation stage. This would determine whether the planned statistical analysis techniques are indeed appropriate for the nature of data collected to answer research questions. This would also determine if the phrasing of questions in the questionnaire will provide appropriate responses.

The demographic questions should be appropriately phrased to provide appropriate responses that would allow for the application of various data analysis techniques. For example the question on age should be “How old are you now?” rather than “Select your age from the given age groups”. If the question prompts for the provision of the first level data, (e.g. a specific age), the second level data (e.g. age groups) can be determined from the first level data.

It is crucial to officially review the study at the proposal stage and the completion stage. As part of the study plan, it is useful to formally subject the study to at least two study reviewers, one to critically review the design stage of the study while the one reviews the content. This will ensure that the design is appropriate to answer the study questions (e.g. relevance of questions to answer the research questions, the phrasing of questions in the data collection instruments; appropriateness of data analysis techniques, etc.).

6.6 Recommendations

To avoid the exclusion of questionnaires from analysis due to incompleteness, data collection would be much more effective and efficient if questionnaires are administered in a classroom-like setting where all participants complete the questionnaire at the same venue and at the same time. In this way, clear demonstration of how to complete the questionnaire and how the rating scale works could be done and participants could ask questions of clarity. The completeness of the questionnaire can be verified on the spot. Different sessions for different rater groups, particularly self and peers can be arranged at separate times. Only mentors or managers can be given the questionnaires to complete at their own free time.

The study was quasi-experimental in design, and literature suggests that findings of this research design may not be generalised to the bigger population. That is, findings of this study may not be generalised to the bigger population of interns and to other internship programmes offered in other public service departments. (Abdi et al, 2009).

However, the study aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of an internship programme implemented throughout all public service institutions (government departments). The sample of interns enrolled in the sampled department during the year in which research was conducted was representative of the larger population of interns enrolled for internship in the public service. Similarly, the sampled department was representative of all government departments that are implementing the internship programme in the public service. More so, the sampled department is a custodian of skills development in the country. For this reason, it is therefore recommended that findings of this study may be generalised to interns enrolled in internship programme in other government departments. However, the interns' demographic information should be similar and all interns should not have previously participated in any workplace learning programme, particularly internship programme in the public service.

The design allows for other researchers to conduct the same research, test the same hypotheses to different samples and come up with the same or different findings (Abdi et al, 2009). It is also recommended that the same study be done on a larger sample of interns covering a wider spectrum of departments participating in the internship programme in the public service.

In similar future studies, using interns with similar demographic characteristics, it is recommended that clear instructions accompanied by demonstrations on how to rate reversed and negative items in the ESCI need to be given, preferably in a classroom set up, particularly to the learners and their peer raters. This will minimise possible elimination of participants as a results of their raters selecting 'don't know' response in more than 25% of items or leaving some questions unanswered.

It is important for employees to understand their strength and weakness in the workplace for productive alignment to the organisational goals (Bar-On, Parker, & James, 2000). These competencies are not included in the public service guidelines for development through internship programmes. It is therefore recommended that the Department of Public Service and Administration review the Public Service Internship Programme and consider including competencies of self-awareness in the list of basic skills to be developed through internship programmes. The review is important especially because the South African Government is gearing towards expanding the number of internship positions in the public sector.

Time was one of the limiting factors in this study. In undertaking similar studies in future, it is recommended that all required permissions should be acquired at the proposal stage of the research so as to avoid delays. Enough time for data collection should also be given so that assessments can be done at the beginning of the internship programme and at the end of the programme, rather than towards the end of the programme. In this way, findings of the study can be triangulated with the final internal evaluation or assessments of the interns, by the respective department.

6.7 The final word

Data collected using the 360° Emotional and Social Competency Inventory for the study supported the research hypotheses, except on age differences. Overall, the composite emotional intelligence competence seems to have improved significantly after participating in the internship programme. It can therefore be concluded that for this sample of interns, the skills development internship learning programme in the public service was effective in developing the interns' emotional intelligence competencies. Exposure to the real work environments improved the behavioural attributes that are needed in places of work.

Females improved better than males in Emotional Self-Awareness while males improved better than females in Inspirational Leadership and in Coach & Mentor competencies. The collected data did not support the hypothesis that older learners are more emotionally intelligent than younger learners. The underrepresentation of variation in the age variable, limited the analysis of data using various techniques to determine whether older learners are more emotionally intelligent than younger learners.

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Appendix A

Dear Participant

Information and consent

Thank you for participating in this research project

My name is Nomveliso Beatrice Jali- Khaile. I am conducting a research on skills development internship programmes within the public service, for Degree purposes with UNISA. The purpose of this research is to evaluate the effectiveness of internship programmes in developing the emotional and social intelligence competencies of the interns. These are learned capabilities that contribute to work performance. This research has been endorsed by the Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority (PSETA).

I would like to request you to participate and complete a questionnaire where you assess yourself with regard to how you respond emotionally and socially to work situations. The information you provide in this questionnaire will be used for research purposes **only** and will be treated with **high confidentiality**. Your personal information will remain **anonymous** in all correspondence and at all times. The study is by no means meant to judge you in any way, but rather to evaluate whether the way people respond emotionally and socially to different situations, changes positively after receiving training.

Your name and surname is needed to match the assessments as you will be asked to complete a questionnaire at the beginning and during the course of the internship training programme. Please complete the attached Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI) and return it to the researcher (see contact details below). The ESCI is a 360 degrees assessment tool, which means that, over and above you assessing yourself, you will also be assessed by others. Please nominate 3 other people that you interact with on daily basis at work, to rate you, under the following 2 categories: mentor; and peers (colleagues) .The assessor nomination form is also attached.

The completed questionnaires will be kept in a locked cabinet and the final research report will be made available to you should you wish so. Should you have any questions regarding this study please feel free to contact me at:

Tel: 012-308 1874; Cell Num : 072 048 2930; e-mail: Nomveliso@po-dpme.gov.za or beajali@gmail.com

Participation in this study is voluntary. If you are willing to participate, please sign the consent form below.

Your participation in this research is highly appreciated.

Kind regards

Nomveliso B. Jali-Khaile

Appendix B

Informed consent

This is a research on skills development internship programme within public sector. The purpose is to evaluate the effectiveness of internship programmes in developing the emotional and social intelligence competencies of the interns. Emotional and social intelligence competencies are learned capabilities that contribute to work performance. This research is done as part of Masters research of UNISA and has been endorsed by the Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority (PSETA).

I am participating in this research study voluntarily and I fully understand that the information provided by me will be treated with high confidentiality and anonymity. It will be used for this research purposes only.

Name and Surname : _____

Signature : _____

Date : _____

The assessor nomination form:

The Emotional and Social Competency Inventory is a 360 degrees assessment tool, which means that, over and above self- assessment one is also assessed by other people. For this purpose, please nominate 3 other people that you interact with on daily basis at work, to rate you. The nomination should be under the following categories: mentor (supervisor) and 2 peers (colleagues) that you interact with on daily basis at work.

| No | Name and surname of assessor you choose | Relationship/ category | Unit | Telephone Number | E- mail address |
|----|---|------------------------|------|------------------|-----------------|
| 1 | | Mentor / supervisor | | | |
| 2 | | Peer(Co-worker) | | | |
| 3 | | Peer (Co-worker) | | | |

Appendix C

Dear Colleague ()

I am conducting a research on skills development internship programmes within the public service. The purpose of this research is to evaluate the effectiveness of internship programmes in developing the emotional and social intelligence competencies of the interns.

Emotional and social intelligence competencies are learned capabilities that contribute to work performance. This research has been endorsed by the Public Service Sector Education and Training Authority (PSETA), as it may be useful in designing future internship programmes within the public sector.

You have been nominated by -----, the intern in your unit/branch, as a -----to assess his/ her behaviour as you have observed her at work so far. Please complete the attached ESCI questionnaire; this should take you about **20 minutes**. You will be requested to re-assess this person during the course and or at the end of this internship programme. The information you provide in this questionnaire will be treated with high confidentiality and used for research purposes **only**. Please treat the information you provide (including this letter) with high confidentiality.

For further information, please feel free to contact me:

Name : Nomveliso Jali-Khaile

Tel : 012-312 0123

Cell : 072 048 2930

e-mail : Nomveliso@po-dpme.gov.za

Your participation in this research is highly appreciated.

Kind regards

Nomveliso B. Jali-Khaile

Appendix D

Demographic Information

Please make a cross next to the information applicable to you.

Name and Surname :

Gender : Male

: Female

Age : 19-23

24-27

28-31

32-35

Highest education : Post-matric certificate (e.g. N6 certificate etc)

National Diploma

Bachelor degree

Honours degree

Master's degree

Doctoral degree

Field of study : Human & social Sciences

: Economic & Management Sciences

: Science & Engineering

: Accounting & Finance

: Communication

: Information & Technology

Contact details : Tel. Num

: Cell Num

E-mail address :

Unit placed at :

Mentor/ Supervisor's name & contact details: