EMPLOYABILITY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF THE INDIVIDUAL WITHIN THE SCHOOL-TO-WORK TRANSITION PHASE

by

CHRISTOPHER JOHN BEUKES

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements

for the degree of

MASTER OF COMMERCE

in the subject

INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF M COETZEE

JUNE 2010

DECLARATION

I, CHRISTOPHER JOHN BEUKES, student number 34593470, declare that this dissertation entitled, "**Employability and emotional Intelligence of the individual within the school-to-work transition phase**", is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

_____

CHRISTOPHER JOHN BEUKES

15 JUNE 2010

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to:

My lovely wife, each day I love you more. You have supported me all the way through, with no questions asked. I am privileged to have you as my wife.

To my mother and father, growing up with you in my life has made all the difference. Through your love, I am not scared to take on the world and fight for what is right. Words cannot begin to describe how much you mean to me.

I also need to acknowledge my sister and *brother,* you two are a beacon of light and a solid foundation on which I can depend. Thank you for all your patience through these years of studies. I know I have missed out on much, but I have done this in order to help many more. I love you two very dearly.

Professor Melinde Coetzee has been the pillar of support through this study. It is inspiring to be in such close contact with such a focused individual. I regard you as one of South Africa's greatest resources when it comes to career guidance and development. I look forward to many years of effective collaboration.

Lastly, I would like to thank Bahia for your assistance and support. You add a professional and dynamic aspect to the Industrial Psychology department at the University of South Africa. I appreciate the work that you do.

SUMMARY

EMPLOYABILITY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF THE INDIVIDUAL WITHIN THE SCHOOL-TO-WORK TRANSITION PHASE
by
CHRISTOPHER JOHN BEUKES

SUPERVISOR	:	Prof M Coetzee
DEPARTMENT	:	Industrial and Organisational Psychology
DEGREE	:	MCom (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)

Youth employability in South Africa has become an important focus for career counsellors. This study investigated the relationship between the employability (as measured by the Southern African Employability Inventory) and emotional intelligence (as measured by the Assessing Emotions Scale) of individuals within the school-to-work transition phase. A random sample of 590 Grade 9 and Grade 12 further education and post-school (recently exited) students from a total population of 1349 participated in the study. The research findings indicated that participants' level of employability is significantly related to their emotional intelligence. Recommendations are postulated for the career counselling of individuals in the school-to-work career transition phase.

KEY TERMS

Career preparation, career counselling, employability, emotional intelligence, school-to-work transition, self-regulatory models

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER 1
SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

Chapter 1 discusses the background to and motivation for the research topic; formulates the problem statement and research questions; states the general and specific theoretical and empirical objectives; discusses the paradigm perspective which demarcates the boundaries for the study; describes the research design and methodology, and concludes with an outline of the dissertation.

1.1   BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THIS STUDY

The context of this study is career counselling and guidance of the individual within the school-to-work transition phase with the view to facilitate employability in the contemporary world of work. More specifically, the study focuses on the relationship between the employability and emotional intelligence of the individual within the school-to-work transition phase. Research of this nature could reveal new insights into the employability of youth entering the world of work.

According to a survey conducted by Altman (2007), in South Africa, youth are twice as likely to be unemployed; with 58% of young people aged 15-19 and 50% aged 20-24 unemployed in 2005. More than a million young people leave the education system per annum, and enter an environment which already has very high levels of unemployment, and particularly high rates of youth unemployment (Marock, 2008). By focusing on employability within the careers context, findings could be made which provide new approaches to the career counselling of youth preparing to enter the world of work. It is important that the gap between education and industry begins to be addressed as individuals in the school-to-work transition phase need to "hit the ground running". One reason for this growing need is that the longer one is unemployed or underemployed, the harder it is to reverse the negative psychological effects (Altman, 2007).

Classical theorists such as Erikson (1980) stated that in general it is primarily the inability to settle on a career identity which disturbs young people. Avoiding early labour market difficulties is also particularly important for youth as research indicates that long unemployment experiences at labour force entry may have persistent negative effects on employment probabilities and wages later in life (Neumark, 2007). It is therefore important that individuals

develop and gain access to skills and resources in order to combat the otherwise high chance of long-term unemployment (Altman, 2007). It was discovered that acting with planfulness, whether in the face of discontent or not, decreases the likelihood that one will feel a sense of personal crisis when experiencing the school-to-work transition (Duberley, Mallon & Cohen, 2006).

The responsibility to develop an individual's employability should be assumed by the key stakeholders, namely, the Department of Education (DoE), Department of Labour (DoL), youth development organisations such as the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA), profit-driven organisations, industrial psychologists, career counsellors, and individuals themselves. Whitfield (1988) states that individuals' competencies must go beyond the acquisition of occupational information and job search and interview skills. Competencies expected of individuals and especially youth entering the world of work must be those that will allow them to adjust, mature and succeed in the world of work and allow them to satisfy multiple roles they will have throughout their careers.

Industrial and career psychologists have become interested in the work readiness and employability of the individual in the school-to-work transition phase due to the global scarcity of skills and the "war for talent". Career counselling services that help facilitate the employability of the individual in the early career phase has therefore gained greater prominence. Kidd (1998) suggests that if individuals are to develop skills in career management, they need to have access to career counselling and guidance throughout their lives. What many individuals need is access to support, information, and advice as and when their needs arise (Kidd, Jackson & Hirsh, 2003). Results from a study conducted by Wittekind, Raeder and Grote (2010) reveal that support for career and skills development was a significant predictor of perceived employability. By preparing individuals to manage their own employability, industrial and career psychologists can empower individuals to take ownership over their own lifelong career development, while assuming a supporting role (Beukes, 2009; Cramer, Herr & Niles, 2004).

From an organisational perspective, changing organisational structures, emerging career patterns and the gradual erosion of job security have led to an increasing emphasis on employability as a basis for contemporary employment relationships (Clarke, 2008). Changes which have had implications for the workforce include the introduction and dissemination of new communication media technology along with the need for employees to be flexible and adaptive, as the current workforce grapples with a shift from the job-for-life approach to the regular option

of short-term contracts (Cord & Clements, 2010). The emphasis on individuality, no job for life, and individual career management leads to the question of what characteristics of organisational culture will support and encourage individual career ownership and employability (Estienne, 1997). Park (2009) argues that even though the individual's self-direction and responsibility are critical in the modern career context, several studies have suggested that employers are still responsible for providing continuous learning opportunities and the resources needed by employees to manage their own careers.

Kidd et al. (2003) explain that in a context of greater career mobility, most employees need help in managing their careers. Although numerous major organisations promote a self-development approach to career management and provide formal career management interventions such as mentoring and development centres', access to this form of help is, for many, limited. Organisations that value and encourage employability should have two main characteristics; the first is that the culture must not only create a climate of challenge for employees, but also motivate and empower them towards achievement as well as providing them with a sense of belonging in an age when downsizing and restructuring are the norm (Estienne, 1997). The second characteristic of an organisational culture which encourages employability would be that it values and significantly rewards learning as a vehicle for change. Lifelong learning then becomes a life skill and one whose mastery enhances career progression and the organisation's effectiveness (Estienne, 1997; Yorke, 2004).

For individuals within the school-to-work transition phase, where due to the changes and challenges currently faced by job-seekers, practicing techniques for lifelong learning early on in a burgeoning individuals' lifetime could be the best investment for managing a smooth school-to-work transition (Cord & Clements, 2010). The growing concern about employability necessitates that individuals take greater agency in their career decisions and development (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). Individuals are seen as needing to become more self-reliant in managing their own careers (Kidd, 1998). In order for this to be achieved, individuals within the school-to-work transition phase need the knowledge, skills and abilities which will assist them in maximising and managing their employability.

Pool and Sewell (2007, p. 280) define employability as "having a set of skills, knowledge, understanding and personal attributes that make a person more likely to choose and secure occupations in which they can be satisfied and successful". Coetzee (2008) suggests that in the

context of the 21st century people are regarded as competency traders and their employability depends on their knowledge, transferable skills, experience and unique attributes. Employability therefore refers not only to people's ability to gain access to the workplace, to adjust to the workplace, and to be productive in the workplace, but also to their continuous ability to fulfil, acquire, or create work through the optimal use of both occupation-related and career meta-competencies (Coetzee, 2008). Career meta-competencies refer to skills and abilities such as behavioural adaptability, identity awareness, sense of purpose, self-esteem and emotional intelligence, which enable people to be self-directed learners and proactive agents in the management of their careers. These career meta-competencies then facilitate the acquisition of other, more specific competencies or skills which promote both people's general employability and occupational expertise (Coetzee, 2008).

According to the literature, there are several definitions of emotional intelligence and what the concept encompasses. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004) view emotional intelligence as the set of abilities that account for how people's emotional perceptions and understanding vary in their accuracy. Mayer et al. (2004) propose that emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive and express emotions, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others. According to Mayer and Caruso (2002), the terms (emotion and intelligence) have specific, generally agreed upon scientific meanings that indicate the possible ways they can be used together. Emotions such as happiness, sadness, anger, and fear refer to feelings that signal information about relationships. For example, happiness signals harmonious relationships, whereas fear signals being threatened. Intelligence refers to the capacity to carry out abstract reasoning, recognise patterns, and compare and contrast.

Until recently, theories of occupational choice and career development were largely driven by the assumption of rationality in behaviour at work. However, in several areas of career theory it is possible to detect moves toward an acknowledgment of the powerful role of emotional experience and expression in career development (Kidd, 1998). According to Meijers (2002), these outdated theories view emotions, such as anxiety and uncertainty, as obstacles for career learning and career identity construction. Meijers (2002) proposes a different perspective of identity construction where emotions may be necessary for real changes in identity. Individuals who can think about emotions accurately and clearly may often be better able to anticipate, cope with, and effectively manage change (Mayer & Caruso, 2002). In order for individuals within the

school-to-work transition to achieve their true employability potential, they will need to have well developed emotional intelligence (Pool and Sewell, 2007).

From the aforementioned literature, it seems reasonable to assume that the development of employability and emotional intelligence can assist an individual in making a successful transition from school-to-work. By investigating the relationship between these two concepts, industrial psychologists can further understand the dynamics involved in assisting individuals in making a successful school-to-work transition. It is for this reason that the present study has been conducted.

1.2   PROBLEM STATEMENT

Against this background, it is apparent that exploring the employability and emotional intelligence of individuals in the school-to-work transition phase has become important in the contemporary world of work. Due to significant changes in industry, there is a need to reassess the dynamics of a successful school-to-work transition. The problem seems to be that there is a paucity regarding research within the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence, especially in the South African context.

More specifically, a review of the current literature on employability and emotional intelligence indicates the following research problems:

(1) Theoretical models do not explain the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence.
(2) Industrial psychologists and career counsellors appear to lack knowledge about the theoretical and empirical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence, and particularly whether individuals' level of emotional intelligence influence their employability.
(3) The nature of the empirical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence and the implication for industrial and organisational psychology and career counselling practices are unknown, particularly in a South African context, and thus require further investigation.

It appears that research on the relationship dynamics between employability and emotional intelligence within the contemporary context of careers will make an important contribution to the discipline of industrial and organisational psychology, particularly with regard to career counselling practices for the young adult in the school-to work transition phase. The empirical results may generate new knowledge that may help to stimulate further research on employability in the South African work context. This may also lead to the possible emergence of a new genre of career counselling practices aimed at facilitating individuals' employability.

The following research questions are formulated in terms of the literature review and empirical study.

1.2.1   General research question

The general research question that requires further investigation is:

What is the theoretical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence and do individuals from various grade and gender groups differ with regard to these variables?

1.2.2   Research questions with regard to the literature review and empirical study

In terms of the literature study, the following specific research questions will be addressed:

Research question 1:   How are the constructs employability and emotional intelligence conceptualised in the literature?

Research question 2:   What is the theoretical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence?

Research question 3:   What are the implications of the theoretical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence for career counselling and guidance practices in a South African work context?

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions will be addressed:

Research question 1: Does an empirical relationship exist between employability and emotional intelligence as manifested within a sample of South African respondents within the school-to-work transition phase of their careers?

Research question 2:   Do individuals from different grade and gender groups differ significantly with regard to their level of employability and emotional intelligence as manifested in a sample of South African respondents within the school-to-work transition phase of their careers?

Research question 3: What recommendations can be formulated for the practice of industrial and organisational psychology and career guidance practices, and suggesting further research strategies based on the findings of this study?

1.3   AIMS

The following aims are formulated:

1.3.1   General aim of the research

The general aim of the research is to explore the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence, and to determine whether individuals from different grade and gender groups differ significantly regarding these variables.

1.3.2   Specific aims of the research

The following specific aims are formulated for the literature review and the empirical study:

1.3.2.1 Literature review

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims are:

Research aim 1: To conceptualise employability and emotional intelligence from a theoretical perspective.

Research aim 2: To conceptualise the theoretical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence.

Research aim 3: To conceptualise the implications of the theoretical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence for career counselling and guidance practices in the South African work context.

1.3.2.2 Empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the specific aims are to:

Research aim 1:   Investigate the empirical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence as manifested within a sample of South African respondents within the school-to-work transition phase of their careers.

Research aim 2:   Determine whether individuals from different grade and gender groups differ significantly with regard to their level of employability and emotional intelligence as manifested in a sample of South African respondents within the school-to-work transition phase of their careers.

Research aim 3:   Formulate recommendations for the practice of industrial and organisational psychology and career guidance, and suggest further research strategies based on the findings of this study.

1.4   PARADIGMATIC AND DISCIPLINARY CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

It is important to position the proposed study within the particular paradigmatic and disciplinary (or meta-theoretical) context to which it belongs. This will highlight the specific approach to be followed in the interpretation of the research process within the social sciences. For the purpose of this research the term paradigm is used in the classical meta-theoretical or philosophical sense to denote an implicit or explicit view of reality (Morgan, 1980). The paradigm perspective is referred to as the intellectual climate or variety of meta-theoretical values or beliefs and assumptions underlying the theories and models that form the definitive context of this study. Their origin is mainly philosophical and is neither testable nor meant to be tested (Mouton &

Marais, 1996). This study would reside within a human existential paradigm. The empirical study would reside within the functionalist paradigm. The applicable meta-theoretical concepts which form part of this research are emotional intelligence and employability.

1.4.1   The relevant paradigms

Thematically, the literature survey will include theories related to the constructs of employability and emotional intelligence which will be presented from the humanistic-existential paradigm. The empirical study will be presented from the functionalistic paradigm.

1.4.1.1 Humanistic-existential paradigm

Humanistic-existential psychology can be distinguished from the other two traditional theoretical paradigms of psychodynamic and cognitive-behavioural forces, in that it is about understanding an individual's life experiences and the ways in which one constructs meaning of their world. It is about placing a high value on the unique ways in which an individual develops their own view of situations (Ivey, Ivey & Simek-Morgan, 2007).

The following assumptions of the humanistic-existential paradigm are made (Cilliers, 2000; Garrison, 2001):

(1)   Individuals are seen as more than the sum of their parts and can be studies as a whole.
(2)   Individuals are principally good and should be seen as dignified beings.
(3)   People exist in a human context and form the basis of human identity.
(4)   Individuals act in self-awareness, where they have ongoing growth whilst realising their own true potential.
(5)   People have the freedom and responsibility to make choices and live purposefully.

1.4.1.2 Functionalistic paradigm

The empirical study will be investigated within the functionalistic paradigm. The functionalistic paradigm is regulative and pragmatic in orientation and it tries to understand behaviour in a way which generates useful empirical knowledge (Cilliers, 2000).

The following are additional basic assumptions of the functionalistic paradigm, according to Morgan (1980):

(1) Society has a concrete, real existence, and a systemic character oriented to produce an ordered and regulated state of affairs.

(2) It encourages an approach to social theory that focuses upon understanding the role of human beings in society.

(3) Behaviour is always seen as being contextually bound in a real world of concrete and tangible social relationships.

1.4.2 The market of intellectual resources

The market of intellectual resources refers to the collection of beliefs which has a direct bearing upon the epistemic status of scientific statements. Two major types that can be differentiated, namely theoretical beliefs about the nature and structure of phenomena and methodological beliefs concerning the nature and structure of research process (Mouton & Marais, 1996). For the purposes of this study the meta-theoretical statements, theoretical models, conceptual descriptions about employability and emotional intelligence and a central hypothesis are presented.

1.4.2.1 Meta-theoretical statements

Any meta-theoretical statement or world view may include different schools of thought, which are described as different ways of approaching and studying a shared reality or world view (Morgan, 1980). The discipline of industrial and organisational psychology relies on various domains of applied psychology that are used to integrate practices and research (Venter & Barkhuizen, 2005).

More specifically, the focus in the literature survey is on employability and emotional intelligence. In terms of the empirical study, the focus is on psychometrics and statistical analysis. Meta-theoretical statements are presented on the following: industrial and organisational psychology; personnel psychology, career psychology and psychometrics.

a)   Industrial and organisational psychology

Industrial and organisational psychology is an applied branch of psychology focusing on people's attitudes, behaviour, cognition, and emotions at work. More specifically, it is the science of collecting, analysing, and using data to help organisations make better decisions about the selection, utilisation, and management of workers. Non-academic industrial psychologists may work for private consulting companies, large private companies, or government agencies (including the military). Regardless of the setting, the industrial psychologist most frequently operates in an advisory capacity, conducting research that leads to the implementation of a new human resource technology or organisational strategy, or evaluating the impact of an ongoing one (Kraiger, 2004).

b)   Personnel psychology

According to Watkins (2001), personnel psychology pertains to the quest for productivity and employee satisfaction through assessment and selection procedures, job evaluation, performance appraisal, ergonomics, and career planning methodologies. Throughout this study various career planning methodologies will discussed.

c)   Career psychology

Career psychology is concerned with the interplay between individuals and environments and attempts to describe the nature of the patterns of positions held and resultant experiences during an individual's lifespan. This sub discipline focuses on providing models and explanations for organisational career-related activities such as: the origin and measurement of individual aptitudes, personality, interests and career orientations, motives and values, how individual, social, chance and environmental factors shape educational and training experiences, employee employability, career embeddedness and mobility, experiences of career well-being, job and career satisfaction, career agency, early work history, occupational choice, organisational/job choice and career movements after organisational entry, work/family issues, career plateaus and retirement planning. Knowledge of organisational practices related to personnel psychology and organisational psychology assist in understanding specific career issues and challenges faced by certain groups such as the disabled, women and ethnic minorities (Coetzee, Bergh & Schreuder, 2010).

d)   Psychometrics

Psychometrics refers to the development and utilisation of various types of assessment instruments to measure, predict, interpret, and communicate distinguishing characteristics of individuals for a variety of work-related purposes such as selection (hiring, promotion, placement), successful work performance and development (career planning, skill and competency building, rehabilitation, employee counselling). The psychological assessment of individuals may help the organisation achieve person-environment fit and person-job/career fit within the specific organisational context (department or work group) (Bergh, 2009; SIOP, 1999).

1.4.2.2 Theoretical models

The literature survey on employability will be presented from the career psychology perspective and the models of Fugate (2006), Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden, (2006) and Beukes (2009) will be discussed. The literature survey on emotional intelligence will be presented from a social-cognitive affective learning perspective, and the models of Mayer and Salovey (1990), and Bar-On (2005) will be discussed.

1.4.2.3 Conceptual descriptions

The following conceptual descriptions serve as a point of departure for discussion in this research:

a)   Employability

Employability is described as the application and continuous development of a range of supportive competencies and attributes through a series of reiterative developmental stages that enhance the individual's opportunities for accessing and sustaining employment opportunities (Beukes, 2009).

b)   Emotional intelligence

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2004) describe emotional intelligence as the set of abilities that account for how people's emotional perceptions and understanding vary in their accuracy. Mayer et al. (2004, p. 199) propose that emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive and express emotions, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others.

c)   Career counselling and guidance

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESC, 2002) explains that the career counselling of youth consists of four elements: (a) helping individuals to gain greater self-awareness in areas such as interests, values, abilities, and personality style, (b) connecting individuals to resources so that they can become more knowledgeable about jobs and occupations, (c) engaging individuals in the decision-making process in order that they can choose a career path that is well suited to their own interests, values, abilities and personality style, and (d) assisting individuals to be active managers of their career paths (including managing career transitions and balancing various life roles) as well as becoming lifelong learners in the sense of professional development over the lifespan. This international definition of career counselling will be applied within the South African context.

d)   School-to-work transition phase

According to Super (1957), the school-to-work transition phase occurs when individuals begin to search for a job. Neumark (2007) proposes that the school-to-work transition phase, as reflected in both research and policy discussions, encompasses two segments of the life cycle of youth. The first is the segment during which the students make decisions that shape the links between their schooling and their future career including both content of their education and its duration. The second is the segment in which young people leave school and begin to work in the types of jobs that begin to mark the course of their future careers.

1.4.2.4 The central hypothesis

The central hypothesis for this is:
A relationship exists between employability and emotional intelligence. Furthermore, individuals from various different gender and ethnic groups differ significantly in terms of their employability and emotional intelligence.

1.5   RESEARCH DESIGN

A quantitative survey will be conducted to achieve the aims of the study. Survey research, also called sample surveys, is generally quantitative in nature (Mouton & Marais, 1996) and investigates the frequency and relationships between psychological and sociological variables, while tapping into constructs such as attitudes, beliefs, preferences, prejudices and opinions (Salkind, 2006). Surveys endeavour to provide a broad overview of a representative sample of a large population (Mouton & Marais, 1996) and the researcher consequently uses data from a sample of individuals to make various inferences about the wider population (Kelley, Clark, Brown & Sitzia, 2003). The survey approach is a research strategy in which the same information is collected about all the cases in a sample (Aldridge & Levine, 2001) and in a standardised manner, usually by means of questionnaires or interviews (Kelley *et. al.*, 2003). The ultimate objective of survey research is to add to theory development (Malhotra & Grovera, 1998).

1.5.1   Research variables

The dependent variable in this study is employability and the independent variable is emotional intelligence. The research will focus on determining whether a significant empirical relationship exists between these two variables.

1.5.2   Research approach

A quantitative exploratory research approach will be utilised for the purpose of this study. A quantitative approach was appropriate for this study, as it aided the accomplishment of the aims of the study in allowing for the conversion of concepts into operational definitions in order to obtain numerical results, which are reported in statistical language (Fouché & Delport, 2005).

Moreover, the approach utilised allowed for the conceptualisation of constructs in accordance with specific measuring instruments, and the utilisation of such instruments in the measurement of the constructs in a controlled and systematic manner (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The approach was also chosen as it adds to the reliability of the study, as a quantitative design follows a fixed procedure and can therefore be replicated. The proposed study will make use of quantitative, primary data as the qualities needed to become employable will be converted to a numerical form to allow for statistical analyses.

Exploratory research is used to conduct preliminary investigations regarding relatively unknown topics (Terre Blanche & Durheim, 2002). Exploratory research is usually designed to gain insight and comprehension regarding a particular phenomenon. Exploratory research often relies on secondary research such as reviewing available literature and/or data. This research is exploratory in that it compares various theoretical perspectives on employability and emotional intelligence. Exploratory research also aims to formulate penetrating questions about the variables of concern to a particular study, and to generate hypotheses for further investigation (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). In this regard, exploratory research allows the research to investigate a new interest and helps to satisfy the researcher's curiosity and wish to understand something better (Saunders, *et al.*, 2000). Exploratory research also helps determine the best research design, data collection method, and selection of subjects by means of a survey (Babbie, 2005; Struwig & Stead, 2001). The proposed study aims to understand the relationship between the constructs employability and emotional intelligence. Although the primary aim of the study is to investigate the relationship between the constructs employability and emotional intelligence, the first step will be to develop an instrument to measure the construct employability in the South African context, and to determine whether the instrument does indeed measure the construct. The second step will be to apply statistical procedures to assess the relationship between the constructs employability and emotional intelligence.

This research can also be categorised as basic (or pure research) research (Salkind, 2006) as it attempts to acquire "knowledge for its own sake" (Saunders, *et al.*, 2000). Social science is about discovery and adopting a sense of curiosity, scepticism, and open-mindedness which act as the driving forces behind pure scientific inquiry (Passer *et al.,* 2009). The proposed study will follow a basic research approach as the study is exploratory and the main consumer as such will be the academic and the practice community of industrial and organisational psychology .

The proposed study is also empirical and non-experimental in nature as primary data, that is, new data that the researcher collects him - or herself (as opposed to secondary or existing data), will be collected and analysed (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Moreover, research hypotheses about the relationship between the variables of concern to the present study will be formulated. It is important to note that non-experimental research does not aim to determine the causal relationship that occurs between variables (Salkind, 2006). The aim is rather to examine the direction and strength of the relationship between two or more variables without any planned interventions (Welman *et al.,* 2005).

Exploratory and descriptive research is often cross-sectional (Babbie & Mouton, 2001) as it tends to examine group cohorts in terms of one or more variables (Welman *et al.,* 2005) at a single point in time (Saunders, *et al.*, 2000). The proposed study can therefore also be categorised as cross-sectional as it involves measurement of cohorts (different age, race, gender groups) at a defined single time. As the research process is not drawn out, cross-sectional research can be relatively inexpensive, allowing also for a relatively high response rate. Due to the fact that the research process is not drawn out, the results and conclusions drawn can be published in a relatively short time. As in the case of all types of research, measurement problems can also occur at the time of testing which may influence the internal validity of the results (Welman *et al.,* 2005). Extraneous variables such as immediate historical events or socio-economic and socio-cultural background and issues may influence test responses. Instrumentation (such as unreliability of the measuring instruments) may also influence the validity of results (Breakwell, Hammond & Fife-Shaw, 1995; Welman, 2005). In terms of the present study, these potential limitations will be considered in the research design, the research process, and the interpretation of the data. Care will also be taken to use instruments that have proven reliability.

1.5.3   The research process

Research in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology is a scientific process of inquiry guided by certain principles and beliefs. The researcher approaches the research from a particular paradigmatic perspective, and its meta-theoretical beliefs, assumptions, and values which allow the researcher to interact with the research domain in a fruitful manner and which enable him or her to produce scientifically valid research (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The meta-theoretical context informs the research process in the formulation of the research problem, the

generation of hypotheses, the choice of the research design, the collection of the data, the statistical analyses and interpretation of the data and results, and the formulation of the conclusions (Riggio, 2009). In the case of the present study, the meta-theoretical context relates to the employability and emotional intelligence of individuals in the school-to-work transition phase of their careers. Approaching the research process from a particular paradigmatic stance enables the researcher to step back from any personal feelings or biases to study a specific phenomenon or issue from a scientifically objective stance (Riggio, 2009).

1.5.4 Validity and Reliability

1.5.4.1 Validity

Validity addresses the issue of whether the measurements taken by the researcher accurately and completely represent what he or she hoped to measure (Landy & Conte, 2004). The validity of the literature review will be ensured by using literature that is relevant to the research topic, problem statement and aims. Every attempt has been made to search for and make use of the most recent literature sources, although a number of classical and contemporary mainstream research may be referred to because of their relevance to the conceptualisation of the constructs that are relevant to this research.

In terms of the empirical study, instrument validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure, given the context of its application (Brink, 2005). The focus is not necessarily on scores and items, but rather the behavioural inferences made from the instrument which need to be appropriate, meaningful and useful (Gregory, 2007). Ensuring instrument validity of a measure leads to greater confidence in what the results signify (Struwig & Stead, 2001). Since the employability measure will be newly developed, there is no previous research regarding its validity. Validity in the proposed study will be ensured in terms of the following procedures:

a) Face validity

Face validity is a non-statistical assessment of the validity of an instrument, and is based on the researcher's general impression of how appropriate the items of an instrument appear to be in relation to the construct that is assessed. Face validity is therefore much less useful in terms of adding to the validity of a test than its content validity (Barnard, 2010). However, face validity is

useful in terms of determining the clarity of content and readability of the instrument (Brink, 2005). In the proposed study, the instrument will be structured in such a way so as to accurately measure the construct employability. The instrument will be subjected to intuitive judgments made by experts in the field, such as recruitment managers, business owners, career counsellors, educators and the youth themselves to assess clarity of content and readability of the instrument.

b)   Content validity

Content validity considers whether or not the items on a given test accurately reflect the theoretical domain of the latent construct it claims to measure (Gregory, 2007; Struwig & Stead, 2001).   As a non-statistical type of validity, content validity refers to a specific procedure in constructing an instrument (Barnard, 2010; Foxcfroft & Roodt, 2005). Items need to effectively act as a representative sample of all possible items that could have been derived from the construct (Gregory, 2007). Usually subject matter experts are used to evaluate the items in a test in order to determine its content validity (Barnard, 2010; Brink, 2005). In terms of the present study, the employability instrument will be subjected to intuitive judgments made by experts in the field, such as academics, recruitment managers, business owners, career counsellors, educators and the youth themselves to assess the content validity of the instrument.

c)   Criterion-related validity

Criterion validity refers to the ability to draw accurate inferences from test scores of one instrument (for example, employability) to a related behavioural criterion of interest (for example, emotional intelligence) (Gregory, 2007). Criterion validity entails therefore multiple measurements because one instrument is compared to another instrument that appears to be similar, or is known to be valid (Brink, 2005; Struwig & Stead, 2001).   As the present study relates only to the early phases of instrument development, establishing the criterion validity of the employability measure will not be addressed in the study.

d)   Construct validity

The construct validity of a measure is concerned with the theoretical relationship of a variable (for example, a score on some scale) to other variables. Construct validity refers to the extent to

which the measuring instrument actually measures the construct it was designed to measure (Struwig & Stead, 2001). In psychology a *construct* is a theoretical, intangible trait or characteristic in which individuals differ from one another (Barnard, 2010). In the context of the present study, the construct of employability is of relevance. A construct needs to be both operationalised and syntactically defined in order to measure it effectively (Gregory, 2007). The operationalisation of the construct involves developing a series of measurable behaviours and attributes that are hypothesised to correspond to the latent construct.

A wide variety of research techniques have been devised to ascertain the construct validity of an assessment measure. In terms of the present study, exploratory factor analyses will be conducted to assess test homogeneity, that is, whether the employability instrument measures a single construct (Barnard, 2010). Exploratory factor analyses provide evidence that test items in effect relate to the construct being measured. Factor analysis aims to determine a smaller set of variables or dimensions around which the items in a test would cluster. With factor analysis the factors measured by the test are isolated and the underlying structure of the test is determined. These factors are then used to describe the subscales of the test (Barnard, 2010). Factor analyses allow the researcher to examine the relationships between the items on the measure to see how they relate to both the construct and other items on the scale. Exploratory factor analyses facilitate the derivation of clearer structure evidence by statistically illustrating how items load on a particular factor (Owen, 1995). Confirmatory factor analysis is then employed to establish quality of model fit (Strasheim, 2008). Due to the exploratory nature of the present study, only exploratory factor analysis techniques will be employed.

Convergent and discriminant validity

Another way to ascertain the correlation between what is actually measured by a test and the theoretical construct it purports to measure is to compare scores on our test with known and reliable measures of the same construct. For example if a researcher has a newly developed test of employability, he or she would like to know whether this test correlates with another known test of employability. If the new test is a valid assessment of employability, then the scores on the test should *converge* (correlate or be similar to) with constructs measured in this other known measure of employability. In technical terms, there should be a high correlation between the scores from the new test of employability and the scores derived from existing measures of employability. These correlation coefficients are referred to as *convergent validity*

coefficients because they reflect the degree to which these scores converge (or come together) in assessing a common concept (Barnard, 2010; Muchinsky, 2006).

In a similar vein, scores on the employability test should *diverge* (or be separate) from the constructs assessed in for example a measure of emotional intelligence, because emotional intelligence is an unrelated construct to employability. Thus, low correlations should occur between employability tests scores and emotional intelligence test scores. These correlation coefficients are referred to as *divergent validity coefficients* because they reflect the degree to which these scores diverge from each other in assessing unrelated constructs (Barnard, 2010; Muchinsky, 2006). Due to the exploratory nature of the present study, only discriminant validity will be assessed.

1.5.4.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency or stability of a measuring instrument. A test can only yield consistent results over time if the test itself and the testing situation is standardised. Standardised testing implies that the conditions of the test situation should be kept consistent (similar) for everyone being assessed as well as during different assessment situations. Test instructions, test items and materials as well as conditions external to the testing situation should be controlled and consistency maintained (Barnard, 2010).

Reliability in the literature review will be addressed by using existing literature sources, theories and models that are available to researchers (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001). Reliability of the empirical study will be ensured through the use of a representative sample. In this research disturbance variables will be minimised through the sampling procedure and by including instruments of which their reliability has been proven through previous research. Assessing the inter consistency reliability of the measuring instruments applied in this research will be of concern. Internal consistency reliability assesses how consistently the items of a test measure a single construct; affected by the number of items in the test and the correlations among the test items. A common statistic used to estimate internal consistency reliability is Cronbach's Alpha (Landy & Conte, 2004, p. 65). The Cronbach alpha can be viewed as the average of the reliability coefficients that would result if all possible split-half analyses were performed.. High internal consistency within a scale leads to strong test-retest reliability (Tredoux & durrheim, 2005). According to Anastasi (1976), a desirable reliability coefficient would fall in the range of

0.80 to 0.90. Nunnaly and Bernstein (1994) use 0.70 as a directive, whilst Bartholomew, Antonia, and Marcia (2000) argue that between 0.80 and 0.60 is acceptable.

1.5.5 Unit of study

The unit of analysis is the major entity (the "what" or "whom") that is being studied (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). For the purposes of the proposed study, the unit of analysis will be youths within the school-to-work transition phase of their careers and the point of focus (the means by which they will be characterised) will be their orientations, that is, their attributes relating to employability and emotional intelligence

1.6   RESEARCH METHOD

The research method is divided into two phases which address the literature review and the empirical study respectively.

Phase one: Literature review

Step 1:   Conceptualise employability from a theoretical perspective.
Step 2:   Conceptualise emotional intelligence from a theoretical perspective.
Step 3:   Conceptualise the theoretical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence.

Phase two: Empirical study

The empirical study comprises nine steps:

Step 1:   Determination and description of the sample

A random sample of grade 9, grade 12 and recently exited individuals will be selected. These individuals will be selected from five schools and will include both historically disadvantaged and advantaged schools. This will be achieved by selecting one school to represent each of the five quintiles used by the Department of Education to classify schools in terms of poverty levels. In terms of ethical considerations, permission will be obtained from the Department of Education

and from the Head masters from the five participating schools. For the recently exited sample, a volunteer organisation will be selected as new volunteers begin the programme the year after their high school graduation. This organisation places these individuals in local communities and school in order to assist and mentor the youth. These individuals are selected on the merit that they have completed their matric. A registered psychometrist will be present during testing and participants will sign a form stating their consent to use the data for research purposes only.

Step 2:   Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

A biographical questionnaire containing data regarding age, gender and ethnicity will be used in addition to the quantitative instruments used to measure the variables. The instruments that will be used are the Southern African Employability Inventory (Beukes, 2009) and the Assessing Emotions Scale (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden and Dornheim, 1998)).

a)   *Southern African Employability Inventory (SAEI)*

As no South African instrument exists for measuring the construct of employability, the instrument will be developed by the researcher for the purpose of the study. Care will be taken around issues of reliability and validity by conducting exploratory factor analysis before performing further statistical analyses and interpreting the results. The SAEI consists of five subscales: basic skills, goal driven behaviour, creative learning skills, communication and business acumen.

b)   *Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)*

The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) of Schutte et al. (1998) will be used to measure each respondent's emotional intelligence. The AES consists of four subscales: perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilisation of emotions. The AES has not been standardised for South African populations, therefore scale reliability tests will have to be conducted.

Step 3:   Administration of the psychometric battery

The data will be collected in pre-arranged group administration sessions. Respondents will be required to complete a paper-and pencil version of the two measuring instruments. Individuals will be invited via the schools' communications channels to participate in a session that will take approximately 45 minutes for the data to be collected.

Step 4:   Scoring of the psychometric battery

The responses of subjects to each of the items of the two questionnaires will be captured into an electronic spreadsheet format. All data will be analysed through statistical analysis, using the SPSS statistical package (Field, 2000).

Step 5:   Formulation of research hypotheses

The research hypotheses will be formulated in order to achieve the objectives of the study.

Step 6:   Statistical processing of the data

The statistical procedures will be conducted in four stages:

Stage 1:   Exploratory factor analysis of the Southern African Employability Inventory

Stage 2:   Descriptive statistics which include Cronbach alphas, means and standard deviations.

Stage 3:   Correlational statistics to determine the direction and strength of the relationship between the two variables.

Stage 4:   Inferential statistics which include multiple regression to explore the proportion of variance in the dependent variable (employability) that is explained by the independent variable (emotional intelligence), and t-tests and ANOVAS to explore significant differences in the mean scores of the grade and gender in terms of the two variables.

Step 7:   Reporting and interpreting the results

Results will be presented in tables, diagrams and graphs. The discussion of the findings will be presented in a systematic framework, ensuring that the interpretation of the findings is conveyed in a clear and articulate manner.

Step 8:   Integration of the research findings

The results of the empirical research will be integrated into the findings of the literature review.

Step 9:   Formulation of research conclusions, limitations, and recommendations

The final step relates to conclusions based on the results and their integration with the theory. The limitations of the research will be discussed, and recommendations for future research will be made in terms of career counselling and guidance practices in the work context.

PHASE 1: LITERATURE REVIEW

Step 1: Employability

Step 2: Emotional intelligence

Step 3: Theoretical integration

PHASE 2: EMPIRICAL STUDY

Step 1: Determination and description of the sample

Step 2: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

Step 3: Administration of the psychometric battery

Step 6: Statistical processing of the data

Step 5: Formulation of research hypotheses

Step 4: Scoring of the psychometric battery

Step 7: Reporting and interpreting the results

Step 8: Integration of the research findings

Step 9: Conclusions, limitations, and recommendations

Figure 1.1 **Flow diagram of the research model**

1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The chapters will be presented in the following manner:

Chapter 2: Employability and emotional intelligence

The aim of this chapter is to conceptualise the constructs of employability and emotional intelligence. Firstly, the meta-theoretical and conceptual foundations of employability and emotional intelligence will be discussed. The varying theoretical approaches to employability and emotional intelligence will also be discussed. These two concepts will then be integrated and the influencing varibales will be identified. The chapter will conclude with the implications for career guidance and counselling.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

This chapter will focus on the empirical study of the research methodology used in this study. Firstly, an overview of the study's population and sample will be presented. The measuring instruments will be discussed and the choice of each justified, followed by a description of the data gathering methodologies and processing. The research hypotheses will also be formulated. The chapter will then discuss the statistical results of this study and integrate the empirical research findings with the literature review. The statistical results will be reported in terms of descriptive, explanatory and inferential statistics. The limitations of the study will be explained and the recommendations will be made for the field of Industrial and organisational psychology and Career counselling and guidance practices. Finally the chapter will conclude with a summary and integration of research results.

Chapter 4: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This is the final chapter in which the results are integrated and conclusions reached. The limitations of the study are explained and recommendations are made for the field of Industrial and organisational psychology and career guidance and counselling, both applied and in terms of further research. Finally, the chapter will end with concluding remarks to integrate the research.

1.8   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The background to and motivation for the research, the problem statement, the objectives of the study, paradigm perspectives, research design and research methodology of the study were discussed in this chapter. The motivation for this study is based on the fact that by exploring the relationship that exists among employability and emotional intelligence, it may aid individuals in managing their own employability. Chapter 2 comprises a literature review of the construct of employability and emotional intelligence from the perspective of career psychology and social-cognitive-career theory.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: EMPLOYABILITY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Chapter 2 defines and conceptualises the constructs of employability and emotional intelligence through an integration of existing literature, presenting different models and approaches and discussing their uniqueness and commonalities. The variables influencing these concepts will then be identified. Finally, the practical implications for career counselling and guidance in the work context are discussed.

2.1 META-THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS

The aim of the discussion on the meta-theoretical and conceptual foundations is to establish a broader understanding of the construct employability from a career psychology perspective. The construct emotional intelligence will be discussed from the social-cognitive perspective.

2.1.1 Meta-theoretical foundations

2.1.1.1 Career psychology

The construct employability is studied within the context of career psychology. Career psychology is a specialised sub-field within applied psychology. Savickas (2001), a renowned vocational psychologist views career psychology as a discipline concerned with conducting research on career behaviour among all groups of workers including individuals within the school-to-work transition phase. A major focus of career psychology is the study of career development through an individual's lifespan. Early theories of career development such as Super (1957) focused on a linear process whereby individuals followed predictable stages of development. These age related stages include the exploration phase (18-24 years) where individuals encounter the career development tasks of crystallising, specifying and implementing a career choice. Stead and Watson (1999) explain that the nature of these tasks include gaining appropriate self information, displaying effective decision-making skills, gaining appropriate career information and finally integrating self and career information.

Due to the changes in the world of work, these predictable life stages have been significantly influenced. There has been growing concern about the extent to which youths and youth are

having difficulties making any decisions about their careers. Although many students are highly energized and focused on their career goals, more and more are delaying their education or entry into the workforce because they feel burned out or want additional time to "find themselves" (Feldman, 2002). According to Feldman (2002), in the information age where some youth get so caught up with information gathering, referred to as hyper-vigilance, it appears that they have no psychological energy left to analyse their options in thoughtful ways. They do not adopt strategies for focused information gathering and dissemination.

Savickas (1997) views the school-to-work transition as an adaptive challenge, opposed to a maturational task. According to Savickas (1997) planning, exploring and deciding seem to be an important process dimensions of adaptability. Scholars discuss a shift from the long-term-based career relationships, to transactional, short-term-based ones that evolved between individuals and their employing organisations (Baruch, 2004). The pattern of having one solid job until retirement is no longer compatible with this reality; it is now more common to make changes in the type and place of one's work over one's lifespan (Rafael, 2007). Business firms, not-for-profit, public and private organisations all experience a combination of fast developments in multiple areas; economy, technology, and society in general. These have wide implications for the management of people at work, and in particular the planning and managing of careers (Baruch, 2004).

In response to increasingly dynamic and turbulent environments, organisations have formulated strategies that have included the adoption of non-traditional organisational structures. Consequently, dramatic changes in the career patterns of employee's some organisational levels have occurred. Increasingly, these concerns include consideration of career change, which, within traditional career paradigms, has not been treated as a legitimate career development outcome (Grzeda, 1999). According to Baruch (2004, p. 58), this trend may be portrayed as a transition from what may be labelled a "linear career system" into a "multidirectional career system".

Stead and Watson (2002) recommend that researchers and counsellors in the field of career psychology should periodically question whether their work is meaningful and appropriate to their time and context. Wood (2000) states that the whole subject of a career needs to be reassessed and perhaps redefined. Wood (2000) explains that this is because of significant changes in the world of work due to technological advances transforming the way that

individuals communicate and pursue their careers. Globalisation has also changed perceptions of the boundaries of work. In a rapidly changing world, the nature of work and careers and the contexts in which these occur are continuously developing, thus challenging current career theory and research (Stead & Watson, 2002). Career psychology is now a matter of addressing careers from an international perspective, and being able to respond to the organisational and individual demands. Career psychology now needs to reflect the roles of theory, of research and of intervention (Rafael, 2007).

While becoming a globalised society, it is recommended that countries still retain a focus on their own unique cultures. Stead and Watson (2001) explain that researchers need to utilise and integrate findings from other countries in their own research, they should also focus on career issues pertinent to South Africa such as, unemployment, economic factors, career barriers, school-to-work transition, and the role of culture in career choice. In this way researchers may conduct more research which is relevant and meaningful in the South African context.

2.1.1.2 Social cognitive perspective

This research focuses on the construct of emotional intelligence as an aspect of self from an agentic view of the social cognitive perspective. The social-cognitive perspective views individuals as active agents whereby they influence and are influenced by society. Bandura (2001) explains that the term human agency has been used to describe human behaviour such as intentionality, forethought, self regulation by self-reactive influence, and self-reflectiveness about one's capabilities, quality of functioning, and the meaning and purpose of one's life pursuits. Bandura (2001) explains that in agentic transactions, people are producers as well as products of social systems. From this perspective of human interaction, it seems reasonable that social systems are affected by the emotional aspects of society and individuality, thus possibly allowing for emotional intelligence to play a pivotal role in societal interaction.

Bandura (2001) further explains that to make their way successfully through a complex world full of challenges and hazards, individuals have to make good judgements about their capabilities, anticipate the probable effects of different events and courses of action, size up socio-structural opportunities and constraints, and regulate their behaviour accordingly. Proactive, generative, and reflective capabilities are, therefore, vital for survival and human progress.

Cervone, Shadel and Jencius (2001) explain that personality is understood by reference to basic cognitive and affective structures and processes. These personality variables have social foundations, that is, they develop through experiences with one's sociocultural environment. These variables include cognitive mechanisms that underlie skills and social competencies, knowledge structures through which people interpret or "encode" situations, self-reflective processes through which people develop beliefs about themselves and their relation to the social environment, and self-regulatory processes through which people establish personal goals and standards for performance and motivate themselves to reach desired ends.

Mischel and Ayduk (2002) explain that self-regulatory behaviour depends both on regulatory motivation and regulatory competencies. Regulatory motivation is the outcome of how the individual construes and encodes the situation as well as the values, beliefs, standards, goals, and emotional states that become activated by it. Even in the presence of high regulatory motivation, goal-attainment depends critically on the availability and accessibility of effective self-regulatory competencies. According to Mischel and Shoda (1995), dispositions are continuously activated by their own internal feedback system through chronic activation of cognitions, and affects their interactions within the system. These mental representations include the individual's goals, expectations, beliefs, and affects, as well as self-regulatory standards, competencies, plans, and strategies (Mischel, Shoda & Denton, 2002).

Meijers (2002) explains that in both in social cognitive career theory (Lent, Brown & Hackett, 1994, 1999) and in the career learning theory of Krumboltz (1996), the central idea is that the choice of an occupation or occupational direction is the result of an interaction between career-oriented self efficacy, outcome expectations, and goals. Confidence in efficacy and expectations about the outcomes of actions are both seen as the results of two learning processes. The first process concerns the learning that takes place because of success or failure in a certain area (positive or negative reinforcement).The second process involves 'vicarious learning'. This refers to the imitation of behaviour which is valued positively by the group that one wants to be a part of. Self-confidence, combined with positive expectations for the results of one's actions, generates occupational desires. Based on these desires, career decisions are made and occupations chosen (Meijer's, 2002).

2.1.2 Conceptual foundations

The conceptual foundations of employability and emotional intelligence are outlined below:

2.1.2.1 Career

A career can be defined as a pattern of work experiences comprising the entire life span of a person and which is generally seen with regard to a number of phases or stages reflecting the transition from one stage of life to the next (Weinert, 2001). Similarly, Collin (1998) explains that the term career arises from the interaction of individuals with organisations and society. This interaction, as Savickas (2009) proposes, is no longer merely just a sequence of jobs but is now a story that working people build about themselves. The issue, as Greenhaus (2003) explains, is that an individual who has, for example, shifted from teaching to public relations, to real estate sales is still often thought to have merely pursued a series of jobs or perhaps three different careers. While there seems to be ambiguous views of what constitutes a career, Savickas (2009) states that the new look of careers is temporary, contingent, casual, contract, freelance, part-time, external, atypical, self employed, external. Two of the commonalities emerging from these terms are, firstly that the responsibility to manage a career now falls on the individual. Secondly, all these terms describe a climate of constant change.

Hall (1996) postulates that the career of the 21st century will be protean. The protean career is driven by the person, not the organisation, and will be reinvented by the person from time to time, as the person and the environment change. According to Hall (1996), the term protean is derived from the Greek god Proteus (who could change shape at will). There appears to be a growing trend towards a career of constant change where, as Cascio (2003) points out, individuals in high-technology jobs are often proud of the fact that they have held two jobs in the past three years as a badge of honour, an indication that they are on the cutting edge of their fields. Clarke (2008) explains that ideally, to succeed in the new career structures, such as protean or boundaryless careers, individuals will either possess a proactive personality or be able to adopt proactive behaviours to sustain their employability.

While pressures for constant change and proactive behaviours beckon, Collin (1998) warns that individuals sometimes do not embrace this high pressure lifestyle. Findings from a recent study conducted by Dreis, Hofmans, Pepermans and Rypens, (2009) indicated that the majority of

employees continue to desire more traditional career types. The term "career" can therefore be defined as the sequence of interaction of individuals with society, education and organisations throughout their lifespan. It is necessary, however, to emphasise that the majority of the responsibility now rests on the individual for their own career progression, which requires sustained employability (Beukes, 2009; Herr et al., 2004).

2.1.2.2 Career development

According to Baer, Flexer, Luft and Simmons (2008) an individual's career development is a lifetime process that encompasses the growth and change process of childhood, the formal career education at school, and the maturational processes that continue throughout a person's working adulthood and into retirement. Schreuder and Coetzee (2006) explain that a career consists of different stages and the individual is confronted with different issues during each of these stages. According to Stevens (1990), the common pattern of multiple careers during individuals' adult years requires that they evaluate, make personal decisions and implement career transition actions at several points during their lifetime.

Super (1957) identified five stages - growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline that were thought to capture individuals' work related experiences from the years of childhood to retirement. Miller and Form (1951) and Hall and Nougaim (1968) also identified five career stages, and Schein (1978) proposed a sequence of nine stages of career development. However, Savikas (2009) warns that current career development theories and techniques face a crisis in that their fundamental assumption of predictability based on stability and stages is debatable and, more importantly, may no longer be functional.

Models of career development have identified age ranges in which individuals typically encounter the tasks associated with each stage of career development. Moreover, the models appear to have assumed that individuals pursue a continuous linear career within one occupation, in perhaps one or two organisations, and without major disruptions or redirections. Similarly, Stevens (1990) states that life stages are typically depicted as an orderly succession of expected events as if they will happen on cue for all of us. However, Greenhaus (2001) cautions that despite many of the outmoded assumptions of age-related theories of development, it is important not to disregard the effects of age and psychological life tasks associated with the

particular life stage. Individuals and their career development needs change in important ways as they get older.

Stevens (1990) states that each career has a lifecycle which has four discrete stages: exploration, advancement, maintenance and decline. Flexer, Baer, Luft and Simmons (2008) state that although these four stages are specific to employment, a broad definition of career development incorporates all life areas. Flexer et al. (2008) propose that there should be an inclusion of the influences from other life roles and responsibilities that ultimately lead to a satisfactory quality of life. They conclude that the four stages support a comprehensive view of career development and transition planning. While there are four discrete stages of development, they do not necessarily only take place once in an individual's life, but could take place on numerous occasions through career changes, such as changing jobs (Flexer et al., 2008).

According to Stead and Watson (1999), the following developmental tasks are still appropriate during each life stage, although the nature of these tasks will change. They involve gaining appropriate self-information, displaying effective decision making skills, gaining appropriate career information, integrating self and career information and planning a career. However, it is suggested that these stages are now happening more and more frequently. Greenhaus (2001) therefore proposes that the career of the 21st century is not measured by chronological age and life stages, but by continuous learning and identity changes. Greenhaus (2001) proposes that this is more of an accurate view rather than thinking of a career that constitutes a series of developmental stages, as we might expect from the work of the 20th century.

2.1.2.3 Career decision making

Rosenthal and Pilot (1988) explain that career decisions need to be made throughout the lifespan because a career has a major bearing on individuals' lifestyle. It determines earnings, job security, friends, and acquaintances, the amount of leisure time and residence. Greenhaus (2003) explains that many career-related behaviours explicitly or implicitly involve a career decision: to pursue a particular job, to increase or decrease involvement in work, or to change occupational fields. Although each situation is different, they all involve action in the face of alternatives. Stevens (1990) states that there are two main perspectives in career decisions and career choice. The first is the one with the longest history and may be termed the matching of people with the content of jobs, also known as the trait and factor theory. Alternatively, Stevens

(1990) explains that career theories based on what can be termed a sociological perspective maintain that career choice and subsequent career progress is a social process.

Nature of schooling, family socio-economic background, influence of family members and close friends, and the expectations that evolve from these interactions are seen as the prime determinants of occupational choice, level of attainment and what prompts a person to make a career change or career path re-alignment. With all these factors involved in career decision making the young adult should not delay making a career decision. Feldman (2002) cautions the longer youth are undecided about their career goals, the longer they may stay underemployed. The longer they stay underemployed the less desirable they may be as candidates for higher skilled jobs.

Career indecision is especially challenging for youth in the school-to-work-transition as youth generally have not had enough work experience to develop their career identity. The young adult's self concept undergoes turbulent times as they are faced with multiple demands to perform and become an independent citizen. The young adult should get into the mindset of becoming proactive with their career decisions. Greenhaus (2003) points out that due to the emergence of shorter and more frequent career cycles, an individual will be required to make a greater number of significant career decisions over the course of their lives. Organisations can assist youth preparing to enter the world of work in understanding the decisions that need to be made, and provide those individuals with the skills necessary to make well informed decisions. It therefore seems reasonable to suggest that organisations should not ignore the fact that individuals need to develop and maintain their employability. They should embrace the process as a strategy for employee empowerment and motivation development.

2.1.2.4 Career identity

Fugate and Kinicki (2008, p. 9) describe career identity as "one's self-definition in the career context." Chope and Johnson (2008, p. 47) define career identity in a more scientific manner where they state that "career identity reflects the degree to which individuals define themselves in terms of a particular organisation, job, profession, or industry". Chope and Johnson (2008) further explain that career identity is characterised by a genuine interest in what one does, how well it is done, and the impressions of others. Erikson (1980) cautions that in general, it is primarily the inability to settle on a career identity which causes high levels of stress in young

people. Neumark (2007) emphasises that avoiding early labour market difficulties is also particularly important for youth as the literature indicates that long unemployment experiences at labour force entry may have persistent negative effects on employment probabilities and wages later in life. It is for this reason that McArdle, Waters, Briscoe and Hall (2007) explain that in periods of career transition, such as school to work, the ability to harness one's career identity as a guide when establishing goals and making decisions may be crucial in identifying career opportunities.

The creation of an identity that serves the purpose of engaging in meaningful work is arguably the most essential ingredient for everyone seeking employment. Career identity is an especially important element for those who need to meet the challenges of today's workplace (Chope and Johnson, 2008). Erikson (1980) declares that it is therefore pertinent that the individual develops a strong sense of occupational identity through an in-depth understanding of their strengths and areas for growth in relation to the requirements of the labour market. The individuals' sense of career identity should continuously be reviewed and developed.

According to Hall (1996), rather than thinking of a career as comprising a lifelong series of developmental stages, as might be expected from the work of 20th century developmental psychologists such as Daniel Levinson and Donald Super, the 21st century career should be viewed as a series of short learning stages. Individuals have to make frequent changes and adjustments, while forming goals and implementing plans in the vocational aspects of their lives (Chen, 2004). It is therefore suggested that individuals within the school-to-work transition phase prioritise the continuous development of their career identities. From an organisational perspective, it is recommended that programmes be developed which help orientate youth into these complexities and assist these individuals in developing strategies for self renewal.

2.1.2.5 Career maturity

Through a review of the literature, Pieterse (2005) concludes that the generally accepted definition of "career maturity" is the readiness and competency of an individual to make critical career decisions. Pieterse (2005) states that these decisions are based on attitudes, on self-knowledge, knowledge of the world of educational opportunities and of the job market, and sufficient knowledge of career decision making processes. It has been identified that career maturity is a developmental construct that can be enhanced through structured programme

interventions (Stead & Watson, 1998). Structured programme interventions should be initiated within the school environment in order to prepare the individual for the transition from school-to-work. It is suggested that the preparation of individuals for the world of work through the education system should progress to effective organisational orientation programs. These orientation programmes should not only pertain to the organisation's goals but also to challenges regarding the development of a career identity in the early adulthood phase.

Collin's (1998) found that by comparing the developmental tasks confronting an individual with those that would be expected at that individual's age, the individual's "career maturity" can be identified. Some of these developmental tasks were mentioned by Super (1957) when describing the career development tasks of young individuals. These tasks include, firstly, that the individual must increase their orientation to career choice. Secondly, they must have access to and apply themselves to increasing amounts of career information, and more comprehensive and detailed planning. These tasks in turn would lead to the increasing consistence of vocational preferences through the crystallisation of traits relevant to career choice and consequently, increasing wisdom of career preferences. Career counsellors in organisations can find ways to assist youth in developing their career maturity through the process of self reflection and career related information.

2.1.2.6 Career success

The most essential distinction that is made between various measures of career success is that between subjective and objective measures (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Dreis, Hofmans, Pepermans & Rypens, 2009). Research interest in both objective (e.g., salary, promotions, hierarchical status) and subjective career success (e.g., subjective evaluation of one's career) has been high for many years. Dreis et al. (2009) explain that the concept of career success has different meanings for different people. Heslin (2003) states that objective career success reflects verifiable attainments in areas such as work performance (e.g., publications), pay, position, and promotions, whereas subjective career success is typically measured relative to self-referent criteria, such as a person's career goals and aspirations.

Hall (1996) proposes that success in the 21st century era is no longer viewed as getting to the top of the corporate pyramid, but is now defined by psychological success unique to that individual. Hall (1996) continues to explain that the ultimate goal of the career is psychological

success, the feeling of pride and personal accomplishment that comes from achieving ones most important goals in life, be they achievement, family happiness, inner peace or something else. On a practical note, career coaches, counsellors, managers, and ultimately individuals engaged in a career may benefit from recognising the vast array of referent points (objective and subjective) they can adopt to evaluate their careers, thereby exerting a greater degree control over their experience of career failure and success (Heslin, 2003).

2.1.2.7 School-to-work transition

According to Super (1957) the school-to-work transition phase occurs when individuals begin to search for a job where they must demonstrate that their abilities, skills and knowledge are worthy of remuneration. In a study of fifteen advanced countries in 1994, the school-to-work transition started at an average age of 17 and finished at age 23, lasting for an average of six years (Ryan, 2001). No age averages could be found for individuals within developing countries. Neumark (2007) proposes that the school-to-work transition phase, as reflected in both research and policy discussions, encompasses two segments of the life cycle of youth. The first is the segment during which the students make decisions that shape the links between their schooling and their future career, including both content of their education and its duration.

Neumark (2007) describes the second as the segment in which young people leave school and begin to work in the types of jobs that begin to mark the course of their future careers. The field of Industrial and organisational psychology is especially interested in the second segment. Career counsellors or industrial psychologists working in the organisation context endeavour to assist the young adult entering the workplace to adjust to the working environment. According to Spill and Tracy (1986), numerous programmes have demonstrated that the young adult needs a combination of basic education, remediation, training, career information, labour market information, job search skills, and good work experience to make a successful school-to-work transition.

2.1.2.8 Career adaptability

Individuals need to be adaptable in order to manage whatever new challenges the labour market presents. Savickas (1997) explains that the root of the word adaptation is apt, meaning quick to learn or understand. He defines career adaptability as the readiness to cope with the predictable

tasks of preparing for and participating in the work role and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by changes in work and working decisions. According to Fugate, Kinicki and Ashforth (2004), the ever-growing dynamism of the world today requires individuals to be increasingly fluid and adaptable. This is particularly true of the rapidly changing career landscape.

Savickas (2009) notes that individuals born between 1957-1964 have an average of 10 jobs from age 18-38. More conservatively Cascio (2003) states that individuals should be prepared for job changes as often as every 2.7 years for individuals between the age of 25- to 34-years-old. Due to individuals having to change jobs so often, it would be beneficial for them to become more flexible and adaptable in order to keep up with the changes.

Fugate (2006) emphasises that personal adaptability is increasingly important to both employees and employers in today's dynamic work environment. Individual characteristics that predispose people to be more proactively adaptable are clearly beneficial, as individuals are now required to negotiate a never-ending series of workplace changes and transitions. Savickas (1997) conceptualises adaptability as planful attitudes which can be learned, thereby allowing individuals to increase their adaptability. By learning planful attitudes, an individual within the school-to-work transition phase can plan and map out their goals, which could possibly enable them to more effectively address and achieve those goals of gaining, keeping and developing their employment opportunities.

According to Savickas (1997), some characteristics of adaptive individuals are thinking about and planning for their future, anticipating change and reacting when they see it coming and know how to achieve realistic goals. Ebberwein, Krieshok, Prosser and Ulven (2004) postulate that career adaptability consists of both an attitude that helps in coping with adjusting to the changes in ones' work life and the actions necessary to plan for and choose work that will meet one's individual needs. Zunker (2002) states that workers in the information age must become lifelong learners who embrace flexibility rather than stability. According to Hirschi (2009), a number of prospective longitudinal studies have suggested that youth who are more adaptable in terms of decision making, planning and exploration are more successful in mastering vocational transitions.

2.1.2.9 Emotion

Mayer and Salovey (1990, p. 186) view emotions as organised responses, crossing the boundaries of many psychological subsystems, including the physiological, cognitive, motivational, and experiential systems. Emotions typically arise in response to an event, either internal or external, that has a positively or negatively valenced meaning for the individual. Emotions can be distinguished from the closely related concept of mood in that emotions are shorted and generally more intense. Emotions are defined as an integrated feeling state involving physiological changes, motor-preparedness, cognitions about action, and inner experiences that emerges from an appraisal of the self or situation (Mayer, Roberts and Barsade, 2008, p. 508). For example, as a person becomes happy, she may experience lower blood pressure and greater motor readiness to approach others; she also may smile, think happy thoughts, and feel good inside. These emotional reactions emerge in response to perceived or actual alterations in the person's environment. Mayer and Salovey (1990) view the organised response of emotions as adaptive and as something that can potentially lead to a transformation of personal and social interaction into enriching experience.

2.1.2.10 Emotional intelligence

Mayer et al. (2008, p. 1) define intelligence as "a mental ability (or set of mental abilities) that permit the recognition, learning, memory for, and capacity to reason about a particular form of information, such as verbal information". According to Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008), intelligences are abilities to understand and problem-solve about information that involve reasoning about abstract relationships (fluid intelligence), storing material in an organised fashion in memory (crystallised intelligence), learning targeted material, inputting material through sensory and perceptual channels and processing information quickly.

Mayer et al. (2008) view intelligence as a general descriptive term referring to a hierarchy of mental abilities. At the lowest level of this hierarchy are basic, discrete, mental abilities. These include, for example, understanding how objects are rotated in space. At a middle level of the hierarchy are broader, cohesive groups of abilities. According to Mayer et al. (2008), these abilities include verbal-comprehension intelligence - a group of abilities focused on understanding and reasoning about verbal information, and, as a second example, perceptual-organisational intelligence - a group of abilities focused on recognising, comparing, and

understanding perceptual patterns. At the highest level of the hierarchy, general intelligence, or *g*, involves abstract reasoning across all such domains.

Mayer et al. (2008) view emotional intelligence (EI) as the ability to understand and to problem-solve challenges such as managing emotional responses, understanding emotions and emotional meanings, appraising emotions from situations, using emotions for reasoning, identifying emotions in faces, voices, postures and other content. Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, and Hansenne (2009) state that the construct of emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the individual differences in the perception, processing, regulation, and utilisation of emotional information. These differences have been shown to have a significant impact on important life outcomes (e.g., mental and physical health, work performance and social relationships). According to Mayer DiPaolo and Salovey (1990), EI involved the accurate appraisal and expression of emotions in oneself and others and the regulation of emotion in the way that enhances living. Mayer et al. (1990, p. 772) define emotional intelligence as "a subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide ones thinking and actions".

Through an intensive literature review of EI covering a roughly 18-year span from 1990 – 2007, Mayer et al. (2008) have found that EI concerns the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought. According to Nelis et al. (2009) the construct of EI refers to individual differences in the perception, processing, regulation, and utilisation of emotional information. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) describe EI as the set of abilities that account for how people's emotional perceptions and understanding vary in their accuracy. More recently, Mayer et al. (2008) explain that some individuals have a greater capacity than others to carry out sophisticated information processing about emotions and emotion-relevant stimuli, and to use this information as a guide to thinking and behaviour.

Most EI models share a common core of basic concepts (Nelis et al., 2009). Emotional intelligence, at the most general level, refers to the abilities to recognise and regulate emotions in ourselves and in others. This most parsimonious definition suggests four major EI domains: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. For the purposes of this study EI has been defined as "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/ or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the

ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer and Salovey,1997, p. 10). This definition applies to this study because it encompasses the major aspects of EI and provides the most accurate definition based on the literature.

2.1.2.11 Employability

Hillage and Pollard (1998) suggest that employability is about work and the ability to be employed. It involves the ability to gain initial employment, maintain employment and obtain new employment. Clarke (2008) views these abilities as encompassing many of the pro-active, self-management attitudes and behaviours commonly associated with self employment. Hillage and Pollard (1998) caution that the term employability is used in a variety of contexts with a range of meanings, and can lack clarity and precision as an operational concept. McQuaid, Green and Danson (2005) propose that some researchers and policy-makers adopt a narrowly defined supply-side focus, while others adopt a broader perspective on employability. According to McQuaid at al. (2005), the broader view focuses upon individuals' employability in terms of their capability to move into new employment within the labour market (such as moving from unemployment into a sustainable job or moving from one job into another). The broad approach incorporates factors such as job search and labour demand conditions, which affect whether a person can actually find or change employment, as well as the set of employability skills and attributes that are the focus of the narrow supply-side concepts of employability.

Rigopoulou and Kehagias (2008) propose that the current perspectives towards employability are narrow in terms of their goals, in the sense that they focus on the student as an employee-to-be, giving emphasis to those skills that will make the student more competitive when applying for a job, without considering that these skills will not necessarily contribute to his/her success and happiness in life.

Hillage and Pollard (1998, p. 2) provide their description of employability as;

- The ability to gain initial employment*;* hence the interest in ensuring that 'key skills', careers advice and an understanding about the world of work are embedded in the education system. Brolin and Loyd (2004) state that the training of this type of knowledge and skills should continue throughout the entire grade R-12 system for all students that aim to make work (paid or unpaid) a meaningful part of their total lifestyle.

- The ability to maintain employment and make 'transitions' between jobs and roles within the same organisation to meet new job requirements. Spill (1988) explains that skills of job holding and advancing include initiative, problem solving and adaptability. Some further skills later included by Spill (2002) are teamwork, flexibility and multitasking.

- The ability to obtain new employment if required. That is, to be independent in the labour market by being willing and able to manage their own employment transitions between and within organisations. Clarke and Patrickson (2008) emphasise the need for individuals to take responsibility for their own employability rather than relying on the organisation to direct and maintain their careers.

2.1.2.12 Employability competencies

The following discussion is an integration of the various approaches to employability skills from various countries. Due to international consensus towards the major employability competencies, it seems logical that these views be included. Spill (2002) proposes employability skills as listening, speaking, use of basic computer tools, problem solving, organising and planning, adaptability, and teamwork. According to Krieg et al. (1995), the skills and attitudes such as tenacity, the willingness to work, and a high school certificate are no longer sufficient to unlock career opportunities for youth. Brolin and Loyd (2004) found that customer service, interpersonal and communication skills, and general computing skills emerged as the requirements most frequently sought by employers. Overall, requirements from the generic skills area were most important to employers, but the findings of Brolin and Loyd (2004) also demonstrate that professional skills are still valued.

A report released by the UK Commision for Employment and Skills (UKCES, 2009) describes employability skills as those skills almost everyone needs to do in almost any job. These skills must be present to enable an individual to use the more specific knowledge and skills that have been listed as: a positive approach, using numbers effectively, using language effectively, using information technology (IT) effectively, self-management, thinking and solving problems, working together and communicating, and an understanding the business.

In a substantial study of senior managers in the UK, who cumulatively employ over one million individuals, Clark (1997) found that 86% of these managers rank a positive attitude and employability skills at the top of their demands. The employability skills were identified as: self

management, teamwork, business and customer awareness, problem solving, communication and literacy, numeracy and application of information technology.

The Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ACCI, 2002) describes employability as the skills required to gain employment or establish an enterprise, but also to progress within an enterprise or expand employment capability, so as to achieve ones potential and contribute successfully to enterprise strategic directions. It should be noted that this definition is broad and encapsulates self-employment as well as the need for on-going skills development as an individual. The ACCI (2002) continues to explain that the key skills are communication, team work, problem solving, initiative and enterprise, planning and organising, self management, learning and technology. Table 2.1 below provides integration of the commonalities of the employability competencies discussed above.

Table 2.1

Summary of employability competencies

Spill (2002)	Krieg,Brown & Ballard (1995)	UKCES (2009)	Clarke (1997)	ACCI (2002)
Listening Speaking	Communication skills	Communicating	Communication	Communication
Computer skills	Computing skills	Using IT	Information technology	Technology
Teamwork	Interpersonal	Working together	Teamwork	Teamwork
Problem solving		Thinking and solving	Problem solving	Problem solving
	Customer service	Understanding the business	Business and customer understanding	
		Self-management	Self-management	Self-management
Organising & Planning				Organising & Planning
		Using language effectively	Using language effectively	

Zhiwen and van der Heijden (2008), propose that the enhancement of employability skills should be an integrated activity that is undertaken in close collaboration between different stakeholders One of these stakeholders, namely, industrial psychologists who specialise in career guidance, can play a crucial role in assisting an individual to understand, develop and direct their employability skills. Since employability is a core focus of this study, the related theoretical models will now be discussed.

2.2   THEORETICAL MODELS: EMPLOYABILITY

The following three theoretical models of relevance to the study are:

Fugate`s (2004) dispositional approach; van der Heijde and van der Heijden's (2006) competency model approach, and Beukes' (2009) self-regulatory model approach to employability.

Fugate`s (2004) dispositional approach to employability views employability as a disposition that captures relevant individual characteristics. The competence based approach by Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) views employability as a set of competencies which enable an individual to be employed. The self-regulatory model of employability (Beukes, 2009) provides a practical operationalisation of employability by integrating employability skills into a series of reiterative stages which could enable individuals to understand the process involved in managing their own careers.

2.2.1   Dispositional approach to employability

Fugate, Kinicki and Ashforth (2004) use a dispositional approach to employability and view employability as a multidimensional constellation of individual characteristics that predispose employees to (pro) actively adapt to their work and career environments. Fugate (2006) views employability as a disposition that captures individual characteristics that foster adaptive behaviours and positive employment outcomes, and it more accurately describes the action oriented, proactive, and adaptive qualities that employers now widely espouse and seek. Fugate (2006) builds his case by explaining that conceptualising employability as a disposition seems appropriate, given the high level of uncertainty inherent in today's career landscape. According to social psychology, highly uncertain environments can be characterised as "weak situations,"

and thus one can expect individual characteristics to be primary determinants of behaviour (Fugate, 2006).

Fugate et al. (2004) suggest three dimensions of employability, namely, career identity, personal adaptability and social and human capital. Fugate (2006) explains that the construct of dispositional employability subsumes the commonalities between the three component dimensions, and thus represents the conceptual and empirical overlap between the dimensions that contribute to proactive adaptability at work. In an attempt to further represent the active and adaptable nature of employability, Fugate (2006), developed his model to include: openness to changes at work, work and career resilience, work and career proactivity, career motivation, social and human capital, and career identity. These dispositions are of relevance to the study as they provide insight into the construct of employability. Figure 2.1 below depicts these dispositions and how they overlap to makeup the construct of employability
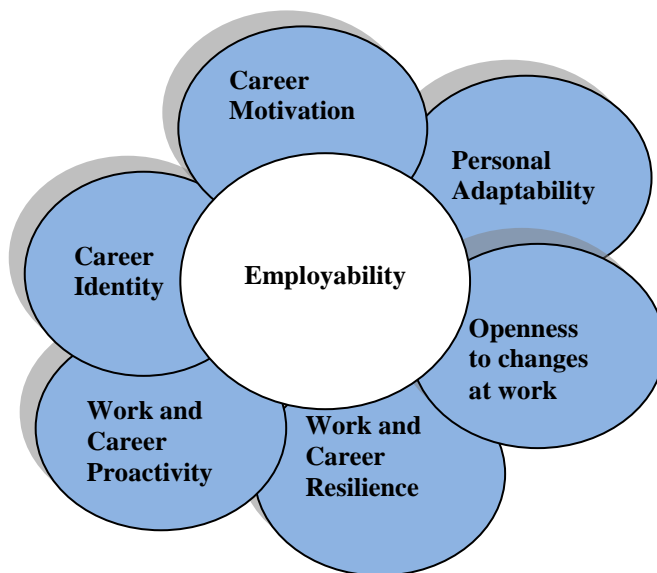
Figure 2.1. **Dispositional model of employability. (Fugate, 2006, p. 3)**

2.2.1.1 Openness to changes at work

According to Fugate and Kinicki (2008), individuals who are open to changes at work are receptive and willing to change, and/or feel that changes are generally positive once they occur.

Openness to changes at work supports flexibility in uncertain situations and facilitates continuous learning. Fugate and Kinicki (2008) state that openness is fundamental to dispositional employability as it supports continuous learning and enables one to identify and realise career opportunities, thereby enhancing individuals' personal adaptability.

2.2.1.2 Work and career resilience

According to Fugate and Kinicki (2008), individuals with work and career resilience possess some combination of the following attributes: optimism about their career opportunities and work, a feeling that they have control over the destiny of their careers, and/ or a feeling that they are able to make genuinely valuable contributions at work. Career resilient individuals tend to have high self-evaluations and be optimistic in terms of their work and careers. Fugate (2006) proposes that work and career resilience fosters the identification and realisation of career opportunities (employability) in turbulent environments. According to Fugate and Kinicki (2008), work and career resilience is a part of an individual's work identity and is reflective of their dispositional employability.

2.2.1.3 Work and career proactivity

According to Fugate and Kinicki (2008), individuals with high levels of dispositional employability often proactively acquire information about the environment. Work and career proactivity is also similar to proactive coping. Importantly, however, proactive coping occurs when specific challenges or stressors are not necessarily known or expected - preparation is thus done on a rather general level (Fugate, 2006). Work and career proactivity is a hallmark of adaptability at work and is similar to proactive coping. Proactive coping consists of individual efforts to identify potential stressors and to acquire the skills and resources necessary to deal with stressors should they occur. One benefit of proactivity is that it may serve as a form of market feedback by informing the individual of the value of his/her current skill set and experience in the eyes of the market. Thus, work and career proactivity has important implications for identifying and realising opportunities.

2.2.1.4 Career motivation

According to Fugate and Kinicki (2008), individuals with high levels of career motivation tend to make specific career plans and strategies. Career motivated people are inclined to take control of their own career management and set work/career-related goals. Career motivation relates to career goals, planning, and an orientation towards learning. As such, career motivation draws on the concepts of motivation control and learning goal orientation. Career motivation provides many benefits to workers, including enhanced drive for work related endeavours, persisting during periods of boredom or frustration, and exerting a sustained effort in the face of challenges. Individuals with a high level of career motivation also are interested in mastering new skills and approach new situations as opportunities. As a result, career motivation is a critical determinant of continuous learning - a critical aspect of employability (Fugate, 2006).

2.2.1.5 Social and human capital

Social and human capital is regarded as important elements of employability. Social capital consists of the resources available in social networks that can advance a person's interests. Individual's ability to identify and realize career opportunities is greatly influenced by such capital (Fugate, 2006). The size and diversity of an individual's social networks are directly related to the amount of information and influence available. Similarly, employability is influenced by human capital. Human capital refers to a host of more traditional factors that influence a person's career advancement, such as age and education, work experience and training, job performance and organisation tenure. Conjointly, investments in these types of capital contribute to employability

2.2.1.6 Career identity

Fugate (2006) explains that career identity provides direction for future opportunities and behaviours, while at the same time organises past experiences. It coheres the plethora of career related elements both for the self and others. As such, career identity assembles past, current, and future career experiences and aspirations into an understandable whole, and it also acts as the cognitive glue that integrates the other dimensions of employability. Moreover, the career identity dimension gives employability particular relevance for career development, in that career identities help fashion career trajectories in the absence of traditional career tracks.

2.2.1.7 Evidence to support the dispositional model

McArdle, Waters, Briscoe and Hall (2007) were the first to empirically test Fugate et al.'s (2004) dispositional model of employability. The results of their longitudinal study provides broad support for the model, and demonstrates the significant role employability plays in relation to self-esteem, job search, and reemployment. The findings of the study provide both theoretical and practical tools to help understand and assist individuals during unemployment. McArdle et al. (2007) state that the significant relationships between employability, self-esteem, job search and employment identified in their research demonstrate the applicability of a dispositional construct of employability to individuals outside organisational boundaries i.e. the unemployed.

The research findings of McArdle et al. (2007) support Fugate et al.'s (2004) contention that employability can be determined by more than one's employment status, and that it has utility across varied career contexts. This study further indicates that employability can significantly impact one's mental wellbeing during unemployment as the self-esteem of individuals higher on employability is less likely to suffer during unemployment, than those who have low employability. Fugate (2006) continues to explain that individuals with high employability periodically assess their value in the marketplace, comparing their skills and experience with current job opportunities and requirements.

2.2.2 Competence based approach to employability

Van der Heijden (2002) defines employability as the capability of being employed in a job. According to Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) employability at the employee level is advantageous for both present performance on the job as well as career outcomes (long-term performance, implying the process of *adaption and learning.* Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) indicate that besides adaptive behaviour, employability may contain personal elements such as personality, attitudes, and ability.

Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) therefore propose a competence-based approach to employability derived from an expansion of the resource-based view of organisations. According to the resource-based view of organisations, competences are one category of possible resources that enable these organisations to reach performance and (sustained) competitiveness. The competence-based model of Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) comprise five competencies namely; occupational expertise, anticipation and optimisation, personal flexibility, corporate sense and balance.

Anticipation and optimisation and personal flexibility are the two flexibility dimensions. Discernible as one more proactive, creative variant, and as one more passive, adaptive variant. Corporate sense represents the increased importance of social competence, and finally, *balance* represents the capacity to unify and fine-tune the different employability elements or aspects. Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) state that the proposed employability dimensions touch upon job-related matters as well as aspects of career development. Taking into account both employers' and employees' interests, a dual orientation, that is to say, an orientation towards the development of human potential, and an orientation towards the development of the work process is adopted. The dimensions represent individual competences that form the basis of behaviour that is related to both employer and employee outcomes.
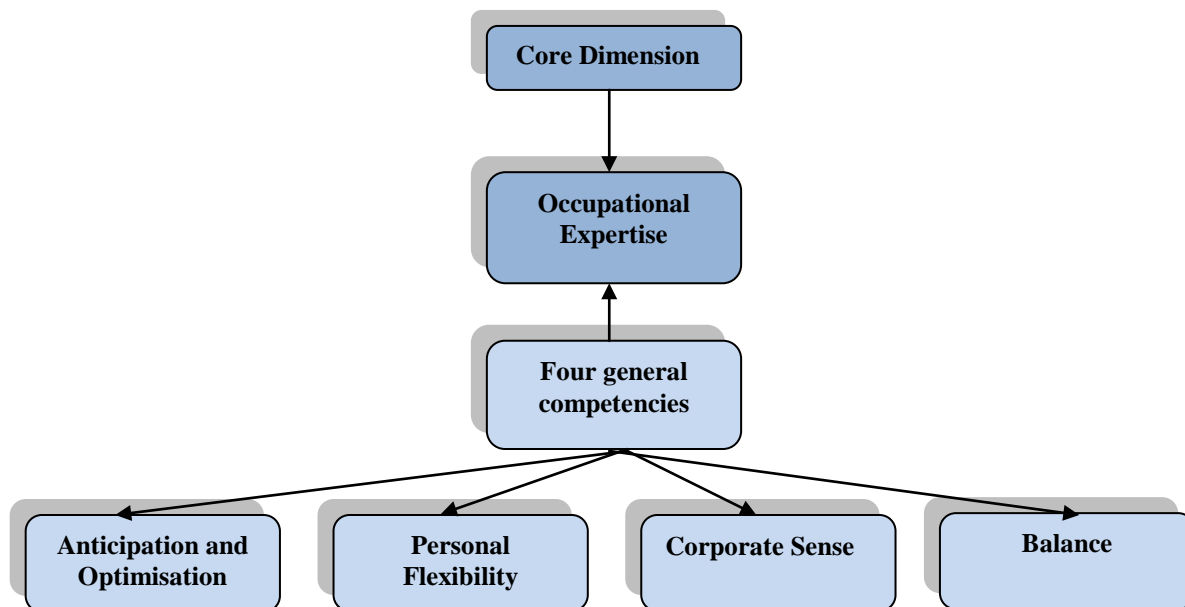
Figure 2.2. **Competence based employability model (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006, p. 453)**

2.2.2.1 Occupational expertise

Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) are of the view that occupational expertise is essential to (prospective) employees in order to find a qualified job and to be able to retain that job. Aside from a high degree of knowledge and skills related to a particular professional

domain, experts need to be perceived and labelled as high performers and professional (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006).

The second and third dimensions of employability concern adapting to changes and developments, both on a job content level as well as on other levels such as the career as a whole, that are relevant in the light of performance outcomes. Future changes that might be influential to the work context of employees are for instance mass unemployment and reorganisations. Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) distinguish two different types of adaptation. The first one being a self-initiating proactive variant that is mentioned anticipation and optimisation, and one more passive, reactive variant entitled personal flexibility. Both these adaptation dimension variants coexist and are functional for the professional worker in enhancing his or her employability.

2.2.2.2 Anticipation and optimisation

Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) state that anticipation and optimisation does not concern adaptation in a pure and simple straightforward sense, but concerns preparing for future changes in a personal and creative manner, and thereby striving for the best possible career results. In present-day knowledge-intensive markets, employees do have an opportunity to partly fulfil labour requirements by creating the future themselves, instead of just performed fixed tasks. Employees are expected to continuously improve themselves, in order to keep their market value as high as possible.

On an occupational level, further development is needed in order to be able to anticipate and adapt to future occupational changes. Employee development becomes optimised when practiced continuously. Continuous professional development (CPD) and life-long learning are often mentioned in relation to employability. The anticipation and optimisation of future career management and development will lead to more positive career outcomes for the employee. Career management will be optimised when fine-tuning is reached between personal preferences and market developments (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006).

2.2.2.3 Personal flexibility

Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) explain that personal flexibility does not only concern flexibility at the content level of a job. They emphasise that because of abundant changes in organisations and their environments, like mergers and reorganisations, there is a need for employees that easily cope with and bounce back from disappointments. As the temporal and spatial structures of organisations change, more variation in working time and place emerge. Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) suggest that it is not difficult to understand that organisations profit from flexible employees, hiring temporary workers provides organisations with the security not to lose too much for personnel costs in times of decline.

2.2.2.4 Corporate sense

According to Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006), corporate sense refers to the expertise derived from participation and performance in different work groups like the department, the organisation, working teams, the occupational community, and other networks. The number of possible groupings employees belongs to has increased significantly over the last decades. Besides departmental and organisational collaboration, employees might participate in project networks, occupational networks, industry networks and virtual networks, to mention but a few. In knowledge-intensive markets, stimulating innovation is necessary to work in groups and teams in order to survive. Innovation could, amongst others, be stimulated by means of group interaction (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006).

2.2.2.5 Balance

Balance implies compromising opposite employers' interests, as well as opposite interests that employees have themselves, and comprising oppositions between employers and employees' interests. Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) further mention that nowadays working life is characterised by strongly competing demands, partly caused by an increase in organisational employee demands that are not easily balanced. According to Van der Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006), organisations often refer to employability as the 'deployment' of their personnel, which terminology implies pawns without initiative, that can be moved around like chess pieces, whilst at the same time employability refers to highly self-reliant and self-managing employees. Organisations ask for highly committed, and at the same time flexible employees (Van der

Heijde and Van der Heijden, 2006). Enhancing workers' competences throughout their life-span, and adjusting their workplaces and tasks will offer these workers significant potential within the labour market (Van der Heijden, de Lange, Demerouti & Van der Heijde, 2009).

2.2.3   Self-regulatory model of employability

The employability model of Beukes (2009) promotes a self-regulatory approach to employability by focusing on the individual as the active agent in developing, and sustaining his or her employability through a reiterative series of development stages. Beukes (2009, p. 9) defines employability as "the application and continuous development of a range of supportive competencies and attributes through a series of reiterative developmental stages that enhance the individual's opportunities for accessing and sustaining employment opportunities".

The self-regulatory employability model is a career-oriented model aimed at guiding individuals in managing themselves through the process of continuous learning and reintegration into their ever changing contexts (Beukes, 2009). The notion of career-oriented employability models that emphasise human flexibility, adaptability, and life-long learning is also supported by Savickas (2009).   According to Spill (2002), workers must possess the ability to learn and to retool, continually throughout a career. Similarly Van der Heijden (2002) expresses the need to acknowledge the competencies associated with the personal learning and development process itself.

Beukes' (2009) notion of employability is similar to Pool and Sewell's (2007) view on the construct of employability. Pool and Sewell (2007) provide a general description of employability from an individual's perspective while also including the benefits to the wider environment. According to Pool and Sewell (2007), employability is a set of skills, knowledge, understanding and personal attributes that make a person more likely to choose and secure occupations in which they can be satisfied and successful, to the benefit of themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy. These skills, knowledge, understanding and personal attributes need to be regulatory and channelled in a direction which will best lead to maintaining suitable employment opportunities (Beukes, 2009).

The series of reiterative stages proposed by Beukes (2009) allow individuals to effectively channel their employability competencies in accessing and sustaining employment in a highly

competitive and turbulent labour market. These stages involve the following five sets of development tasks: audit and alignment; career goal clarity; formal and informal learning; self-presentation; and competency trade-off. Each of these five development stages are supported by a set of competencies such as; basic skills (audit and alignment); goal driven behaviour (career goal clarity), creative learning skills (formal and informal learning); communication skills (self-presentation) and business acumen (competency trade-off). As illustrated in figure 2.3, by effectively channelling these supportive competencies, individuals accomplish certain outcomes that lead to the likelihood of them choosing and securing occupations in which they can be satisfied and successful, to the benefit of themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy.
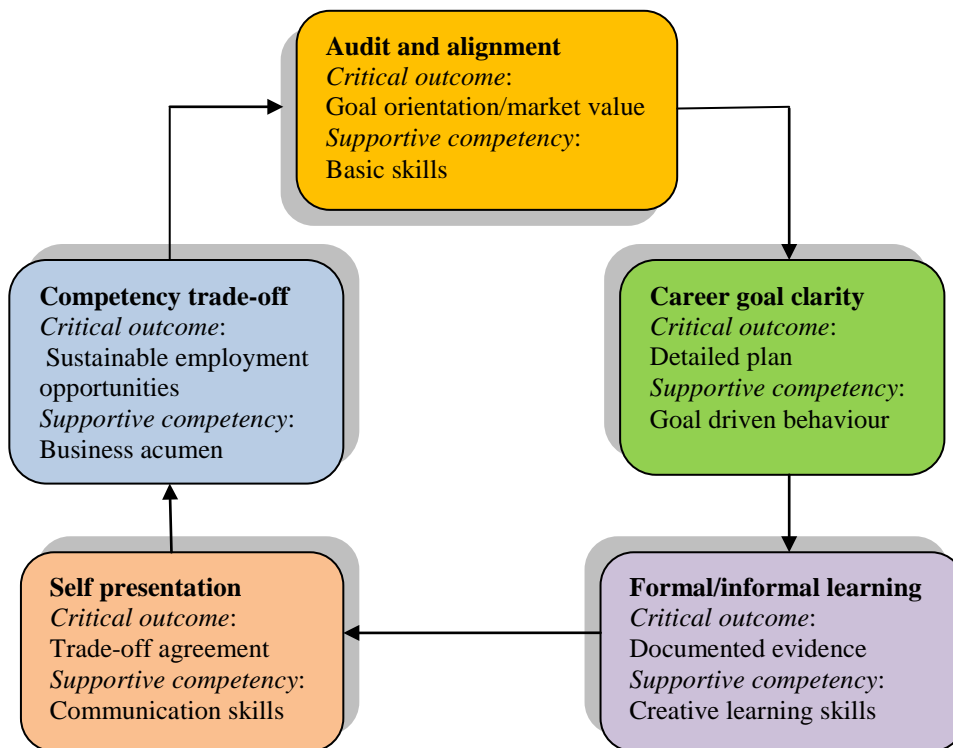
Figure 2.3. **Model of self-regulatory employability (Beukes, 2009)**

The five developmental stages in the self-regulatory model serve the purpose of assisting the individual in the school-to-work-transition phase and beyond in gaining effective and quicker entrance into the employment market.

2.2.3.1 Stage 1: Audit and alignment

The audit and alignment stage involves the process where individuals conduct an audit on their competencies in relation to labour demands and employment opportunities. The two critical outcomes for this stage are firstly the individuals' insight into their market value, and secondly, goal orientation. Goal orientation has been described as the purposes for attempting a goal (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2000).

Individuals should embark on the process to understand their competencies, but also to find out where those competencies are in demand. Through this process an individual should develop a goal orientation. Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2000, p. 473) define goal orientation as "an individual's general orientation (or schema or theory) for approaching the task, doing the task, and evaluating their performance on the task". The process of achieving a goal orientation seems similar to the narrative approach to career counselling where the young adult needs to identify a pattern in their lives, form a sense of identity, and develop general goals for their future (Gibbons & Thomas, 2009).

In order for individuals in the school-to-work-transition phase to successfully align themselves, they need to discover relevant information about themselves and the labour market. The individual should gain insight into themselves regarding their interests, skills and competencies, but also, what the influencing factors are in their lives. Spill (2002) notes some of the labour market information as world of work awareness, labour market knowledge, and occupational information. The information required must be accurate and accessible (McQuaid, Green, & Danson, 2005). Information gathering about individuals (internal) and their career prospects (external) has been linked to increased job search intensity and job search effectiveness (Fugate, 2006).

The audit and alignment stage is supported by a set of basic skills which enhance the alignment process. These skills include the generally accepted employability skills such as literacy (in order to read up on their own competencies and the demands of the labour market), numeracy (in order to do the necessary calculations to determine their market value), computer skills (to enhance the job search process), planning (to effectively structure the audit and alignment process), organising (the data into relevant information) and problem solving to overcome barriers to successful alignment (Clarke, 1997; Spill, 2002; Zinzer, 2003).

According to Beukes (2009), individuals who have successfully developed these sets of supporting skills and are able to channel them appropriately will have a greater capacity to realistically assess their competency value and find real purpose by aligning that value to current competency demand. Zunker (2002) suggests that because of the very nature of society, individuals must periodically revaluate their circumstances to achieve a more productive life and career.

2.2.3.2 Stage 2: Career goal clarity

The career goal clarity stage involves the process of setting specific career goals in order to achieve the main alignment purposes (Beukes, 2009). The goal setting process should enable an individual to effectively capture and assess their progress in a more scientific and quantifiable manner. According to Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2000), goal theories suggest that goals are cognitive representations of what individuals are trying to attain and that these goals can guide and direct achievement behaviour.

It has been suggested that goal-setting increases behaviour change, presumably through increasing motivation (the desire to act in a particular way). Kajs and McCollum (2007) explain that in school and at work, motivation is a key element for success of an individual. Goal-setting is therefore viewed as a critical step in self-regulatory employability. It is generally accepted that the development of effective goals should follow a basic framework. This framework has been termed with the acronym "SMARTER" (Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic, Time-based, Ethical and Recorded).

Schreuder and Coetzee (2006) state that effective career self-management requires flexible career goals, due to the unpredictability which is characteristic of today's career landscape. Career goals should be congruent, which means that the attainment of one goal should not preclude the attainment of another. Career goals should be formulated in terms of long and short term goals. The short term goals should be congruent with the long term goals in the sense that they should identify education, training and experience needed to attain long term goals. Lastly, Schreuder and Coetzee (2006) propose that individuals are most likely to follow career goals that are in line with their perceptions, and preferences. Through the process of self exploration

(identifying personal qualities, values and needs) goal acceptability can be achieved, which will promote career commitment.

Goal driven behaviour is the supporting competency of the career goal clarity stage. Beukes (2009) proposes that goal driven behaviour involves the habit of recording, attempting, assessing and adjusting goals in such a way as to be enable their achievement. Pintrich (2000) states that a key assumption of all models of self-regulation is that some goal, standard or criterion exists that can serve as a gauge against which to assess development and then guide the regulatory processes. By knowing how to effectively reach their goals, individuals can then progress to further goals. This cycle of goal achievement could assist individuals in meeting the challenges of the labour market. The critical outcome of this stage is that the individual develops a detailed plan for effective action.

2.2.3.3 Stage 3: Formal and informal learning

The formal and informal learning stage involves the lifelong learning that needs to take place in order for individuals to effectively achieve their developed goals and purposes. This learning is usually done in a formal manner, but it appears that informal learning can also provide an individual with sufficient advantage. Werquin (2008) importantly notes that there seems to be strong agreement that a lot of learning takes place outside the formal education and training system, and that by making these other forms of education credible, will enable making lifelong learning for all a reality.

According to Demirel (2009), the necessity to cope with the rapid changes in science and technology in the 21st century and the necessity to adjust to the prerequisites of the knowledge economy has brought about the need for lifelong learning. Zunker (2002) explains that in the 21st century, changes require workers to develop skills and competencies that differ substantially from the knowledge and abilities required by the 20th century. Cascio (2003) explains that this will require a personal commitment to lifelong learning, coupled with a willingness to reinvent oneself as often as is necessary, in order to keep up with evolving changes in the world of work.

The formal and informal learning stage integrates the concept of lifelong learning, and directs that learning to achieving the desired career goals and purposes. This requires creativity in order to effectively align further development with employment opportunities, which can often change.

It therefore seems necessary that this stage be supported by the competency of creative learning.

Creative learning is using all relevant available resources to learn new competencies. It is based on an understanding of the value of learning and committing to learning new things in order to develop and advance. Creative learning also involves the ability to adapt and find ways of overcoming learning challenges. This includes the ability to utilise teams in compounding the learning which is taking place, as it is common knowledge that teamwork can yield greater learning results than individually. A key outcome of the formal and informal learning stage should be documented evidence, where the individual has proof of their development in relation to employment opportunities. This will assist the individual in the school-to-work-transition in gaining an advantage over their counterparts (Beukes, 2009).

2.2.3.4 Stage 4: Self presentation

The self presentation stage involves the stage in the process where the individual needs to negotiate a trade-off agreement between their competencies and the organisations compensation package. The critical outcome of this stage is mutual agreement on this trade-off. This is achieved by the individual articulating their personal brand (Beukes, 2009). Messmer (2006) explains that efficient communicators can succinctly articulate a balanced career summary in ten minutes or less. Messmer (2006) states that candidates must demonstrate familiarity with and awareness of their skills, as well as those areas which need development. The individual would also need to negotiate the terms of agreement.

Personal branding could possibly provide an advantage to the individual during the presentation process. Rampersad (2008) states that everyone has a personal brand, but most people are not aware of this and do not manage it strategically, consistently, and effectively. Daniel, Sullivan and Cheney (2005) suggest that in personal branding, success is not determined by an individuals' internal sets of skills, motivations, and interests but, rather by how effectively they are arranged, crystallized, and labelled – in other words, branded.

According to Hines (2004), an important benefit of personal branding is to distinguish one's offering from others in a crowded marketplace, where an individuals' personal brand should be authentic; reflect true character; and be built on values, strengths and uniqueness. Rampersad

(2008) warns that personal branding does also have potential negative effects, where an individual could falsely construe a perception of themselves. It is for this reason that Hines (2004) concludes that personal branding should be about bringing forth self-knowledge and self-expression rather than the creation of a cultivated or false self.

In order for a competency trade-off agreement to take place, a clear communication of what the trade-off would entail needs to take place. This can only be done by the individual sharing information about themselves, whether written, verbal or non verbal. In order for an individual to get the most favourable response they would need to know what makes them unique and more suited for the position than the other candidates. This could be accomplished by an individual utilising the competency of communication (Beukes, 2009).

The self presentation stage is supported by the competency of communication. This entails both verbal and non verbal actions. Myers (2006) advocates the importance of communication, in how well an individual can express themselves and be clear about their expectations and their goals. Just as important is the aspect of listening. Messmer (2005) explains that one of the most valuable underrated interviewing skills is the ability to listen. If an individual concentrates too intently on formulating their responses as the interviewer is speaking, they can miss critical information (Myers, 2006).

2.2.3.5 Stage 5: Competency trade-off

The competency trade-off stage involves the actual trade-off between the individuals' competencies and the organisations' remuneration package. This competency trade-off (Coetzee, 2008) allows for the individual to receive the organisation's remuneration package, but also allows for further opportunities to develop one's employability competencies in order to further maintain and develop their careers. Periodically, or when the need arises, an individual can revert back to stage one in order to re-conduct a self audit and realign themselves based on their newly acquired competencies (Beukes, 2009).

This competency trade-off stage is supported by the competency of business acumen. Business acumen is defined as having an understanding of business (Tipton & Krause, 2004). The Oxford dictionary defines "business" as a person's regular occupation or trade. "Acumen" is defined as the ability to make good judgements and take quick decisions. Therefore taken literally, business

acumen can be viewed as the ability to make good judgements and take quick and effective decisions regarding ones regular occupation or trade. Similarly, Hodge and Schachter (2006) describe business acumen as the ability to operate effectively in the business world, to sense and understand the methods and techniques to use, in order to achieve the desired results. Beukes (2009) suggests that business acumen is the clear understanding of what it takes to succeed in business (physically, mentally & financially). It is knowing where the targets are, and knowing how to combine the available resources together to reach those targets.

In summary, the self-regulatory model of employability consists of five stages in a cyclical process, namely:

(1)   audit and alignment
(2)   career goal clarity
(3)   formal and informal learning
(4)   self presentation
(5)   competency trade-off

Through auditing and aligning their competencies, individuals have the opportunity to develop their goal orientation and achieve understanding as to what their market value is based on their competencies and market demands. Once individuals have achieved understanding as to what their purposes and market value are, they can move towards the stage of setting more specific and time bound goals (Beukes, 2009).

Together these specific and time bound goals can lead to detailed and effective strategic plans for an individuals' self and career development. The individual may then select to embark on formal or informal learning, or move straight to the self presentation stage if the individual believes and can prove that they have the necessary competencies for the positions they are applying for. During the self presentation stage the individual needs to negotiate a trade-off agreement where both parties mutually benefit. Once this agreement formally takes place, the actual trade-off begins. Periodically, or when the need arises, an individual can revert back to stage one in order to re-conduct a self audit and realign themselves based on their newly acquired competencies (Beukes, 2009).

The self-regulatory employability model provides a strategy for individual's to manage their employability. By having knowledge of the various stages in the cyclical model of employability, an individual can focus on specific stages and proactively manage those processes. Further to this, the model provides a cyclical process of renewal and development, in order to assist individuals in maintaining their employability (Beukes,2009). Van der Heijden (2002) is also of the same opinion where she states that an individual should manage the development of their own employability competencies. This is done to enable the reflection of the development which is taking place, as documented evidence for maintaining their employment (van der Heijden, 2002). The value of the self-regulatory employability model is that it provides a practical process which individuals can embark upon in order to proactively maintain their employability (Beukes, 2009).

Van der Heijden (2002) states that learning strategies for mastering new expertise and the transferability of these are seen as important in the context of continuing to be a valuable employee. While the self-regulatory employability model includes areas for learning, it also includes areas where skills are audited in order for them to be more effectively transferred. As previously mentioned, the series of reiterative stages allow individuals in the school-to-work transition phase to effectively develop and channel their employability competencies in accessing and sustaining employment in a highly competitive and turbulent labour market (Beukes, 2009).

2.2.4   Integration of employability theoretical models

The employability models discussed in the previous section, namely the dispositional approach (Fugate, 2004), the competence based approach (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006) and the the self-regulatory approach to employability (Beukes, 2009) appears to be complementary. These models share a number of commonalities in the sense that they all view employability from the perspective of the individual, and in particular, the individual's active role in developing their employability. However, the Beukes (2009) self-regulatory model of employability is of specific relevance to the current study as it has primarily been developed for South African individuals in the school-to-work-transition phase. The other reason for the relevance of Beukes' (2009) model is that the supportive competencies can be formally measured by means of the Southern African Employability Inventory (SAEI). Table 2.2 provides a summarised overview of the main elements of each of the three employability models that have been discussed.

Table 2.2

Comparisons of employability models

Model	Dispositional approach (Fugate, 2004)	Competence based approach (Van der Heijde & Van der Heijden, 2006)	Self-regulatory employability model (Beukes, 2009)
Construct definition	A multidimensional constellation of individual characteristics that predispose employees to (pro) actively adapt to their work and career environments.	A competence-based approach to employability implies the ability to obtain a job and to keep employed, within or outside one's current organisation.	The application and continuous development of a range of supportive competencies and attributes through a series of reiterative developmental stages that enhance the individual's opportunities for accessing and sustaining employment opportunities.
Categories/ sub-dimensions	(1) openness to changes at work (2) work and career resilience (3) work and career proactivity (4) career motivation (5) social and human capital (6) career identity	(1) occupational expertise (2) anticipation and optimisation (3) personal flexibility (4) corporate sense (5) balance	Stage 1: audit & alignment (basic skills) Stage 2: career goal clarity (goal driven) Stage 3: formal and informal learning (creative learning) Stage 4: self-presentation (communication) Stage 5: competency trade-off (business acumen)
Characteristics	Adaptability Life-long learning Proactivity Motivation Periodic assessment	Adaptability Life-long learning Proactivity Motivation	Adaptability Life-long learning Proactivity Motivation Periodic assessment
How is employability obtained/ achieved?	Proactive adaptability & flexibility	Proactive adaptability & flexibility	Progressing though reiterative stages of lifelong learning and reflection
What is the usefulness for career guidance in school-to-work transition phase?	Provides information on the characteristics needed for employability	Provides information on the abilities needed for employability	Enhanced self-awareness Can be formally measured/assessed South African relevance measured by the Southern African Employability Inventory (SAEI), developed for the South African scenario) Practical tool for individuals to understand and develop their own employability

2.3 THEORETICAL MODEL: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence can be conceptualised as either an ability (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000; Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999) or a personality trait (Schutte & Malouff, 1999). For the purpose of the present study emotional intelligence is approached from a trait perspective. Trait emotional intelligence refers to individuals' perceptions about the display of their own and others' typical affective or emotion-related characteristics in daily life (Austin, Parker, Petrides & Saklofske, 2008).

2.3.1 Trait and ability theory of emotional intelligence

Mayer and Salovey's (1990) original model of emotional intelligence is relevant to the present study. The model proposes that emotional intelligence consists of a set of conceptually related mental processes: appraising and expressing emotion in the self and others, regulating emotion in the self and others, and using emotions in adaptive ways in solving problems. Verbal and non-verbal appraisal and expression of emotion and using emotions to motivate as part of the utilisation of emotions (emotional information) are subsumed under these mental processes.

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), people differ in the degree to which display their emotional intelligence. Individuals who accurately appraise and express (perceive and respond to) their emotions are likely to be better understood by the people they work with. They also have the potential to better influence people when they are able to perceive the emotions of the people they interact with and to develop empathy (the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself. The regulation of one's own emotions and moods results in positive and negative affective states. Emotionally intelligent individuals are adept at placing themselves in positive affective states, and are able to experience negative affective states that have insignificant destructive consequences. Emotionally intelligent people can induce a positive affect in others that result in a powerful social influence (charisma) (Carmeli, 2003). According to Salovey and Mayer (1990), emotions help individuals in generating multiple future plans, improve their decision making processes due to a better understanding of one's emotional reaction, facilitate creative thinking and enhance persistence regarding challenging tasks.
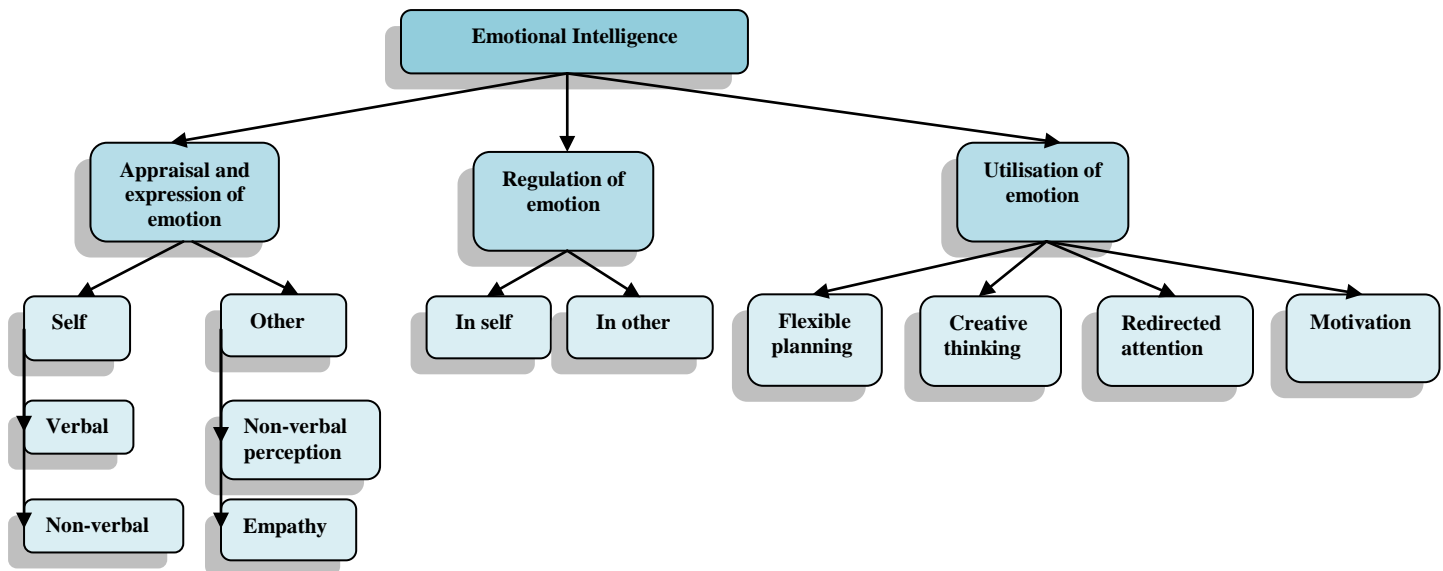
Figure 2.4. **Mayer and Salovey's (1990, p. 190) conceptualisation of emotional intelligence.**

2.3.1.1 Appraisal and expression of emotion

Mayer and Salovey (1990) have suggested that appraising and expressing emotions accurately is a part of emotional intelligence. Mayer and Salovey (1990) explain that this is the case because those who are more accurate can more quickly perceive and respond to their own emotions and better express those emotions to others. Such emotional intelligent individuals can also respond more appropriately to their own feelings because of the accuracy with which they perceive them.

2.3.1.2 Regulation of emotion

According to Mayer and Salovey (1990), self regulation skills enable individual's to gauge accurately the affective responses in others and to choose socially adaptive behaviours in response. Such individual's should be perceived as genuine and warm by others, while individual's lacking in these skills should appear oblivious and boorish (Mayer & Salovey, 1990)

Mayer and Salovey (1990) state that most people regulate emotion in themselves and in others. Emotionally intelligent individuals, however, should be especially adept at this process and do so to meet particular goals. On the positive side, they may enhance their own and others' moods and even manage emotions so as to motivate others charismatically toward a worthwhile end. On the negative side, those whose skills are channelled antisocially may create manipulative scenes or lead to destructive ends (Mayer and Salovey, 1990).

2.3.2   Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence

Bar-On (2005) explains that emotional and social intelligence is composed of a number of intrapersonal and interpersonal competencies, skills and facilitators that combine to determine effective human behaviour and lead to well-being. Bar-On (2005, p. 47) defines emotional-social intelligence as "a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands". During his doctoral studies in South Africa, Bar-On (2005) coined the term "EQ"("emotional quotient"), to describe his approach to assessing the concept he was developing. Bar-on (2005) states that each of these components comprises a number of closely related emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators. The figure 2.5 below depicts Bar-On's (2005) conceptualisation of emotional intelligence.
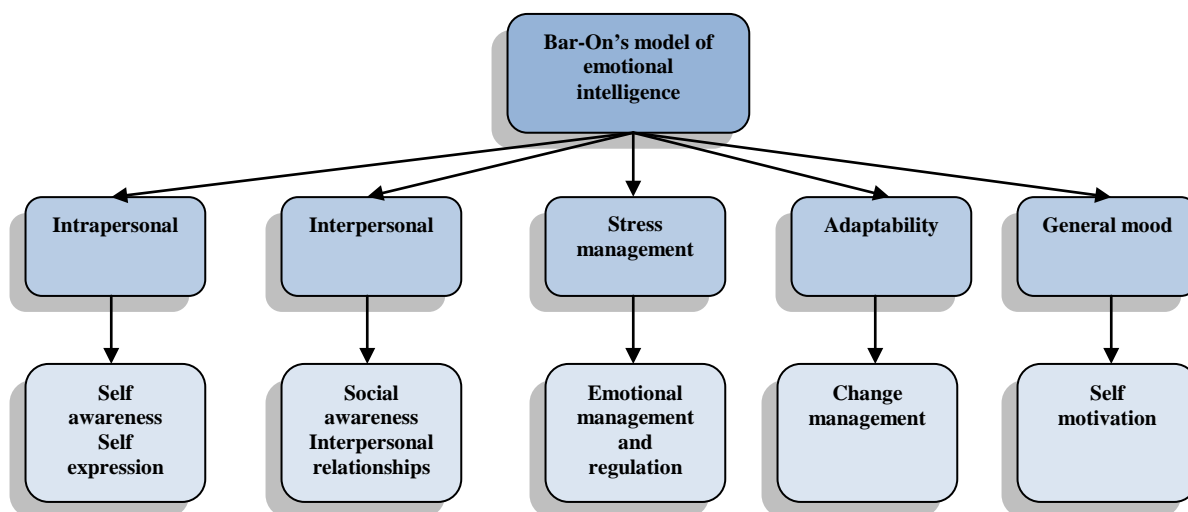
Figure 2.5. **Bar-On's (2005, p. 62) conceptualisation of emotional intelligence**

Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence comprises the following five factors:

(1)   *Intrapersonal* (comprising self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualisation). This includes the ability to accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself, to be aware of and understand ones emotions, to effectively and constructively express ones emotions and oneself, to be self reliant and free if emotional dependence on others, and to strive to achieve personal goals and actualise ones potential.

(2)   *Interpersonal* (comprising empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship). This includes the ability to be aware of and understand how others feel, to identity with ones social group and cooperate with others and to establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others.

(3)   *Stress management* (comprising stress tolerance and impulse control). This includes the ability to effectively and constructively manage emotions and to effectively and constructively control emotions.

(4)   *Adaptability* (comprising reality-testing, flexibility, and problem-solving). This includes the ability to objectively validate ones feelings and thinking with external reality, to adapt and adjust ones feelings and thinking in new situations and to effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature.

(5)   *General Mood* (comprising optimism and happiness). This includes the ability to be positive and look at the brighter side of life and to feel content with oneself, others and life in general (Bar-On, 2005).

2.4   INTEGRATION OF MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The models of emotional intelligence as discussed in the preceding section, namely, Mayer and Salovey (1990) and Bar-On (2005) have various similarities and differences. Both these models view emotional intelligence as the ability to be aware of emotions in oneself and others. These models view emotional intelligence not only as being aware of emotions, but also the ability to regulate emotions. Other commonalities include the role of emotional intelligence in regulating

motivation and also the need for emotional flexibility. Table 2.3 provides a summarised overview of the main elements of each of the two emotional intelligence models.

Table 2.3

Comparisons of employability models

Model	Mayer & Salovey (1990)	Bar-On (2005)
Construct definition	A subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide ones thinking and actions	A cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands.
Categories/ sub-dimensions	(1) Appraisal and expression of emotion (2) Regulation of emotion in self and others (3) Utilisation of emotions	(1) Intrapersonal (2) Interpersonal (3) Stress Management (4) Adaptability (5) General Mood
Characteristics	Emotional self awareness, self regulation, non verbal perception, Verbal appraisals, non verbal appraisals, empathy, flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention and motivation	Emotional self-awareness, empathy, self-regard, assertiveness, independence, self-actualisation, empathy, social responsibility, interpersonal relationship, stress tolerance, impulse control, reality-testing, flexibility, problem-solving, optimism and happiness
What is the usefulness for career guidance in school-to-work transition phase?	Provides individual with understanding of their emotional intelligence for the identification of potential areas for growth	Provides individual with understanding of their emotional intelligence and for the identification of potential areas for growth

2.5   VARIABLES INFLUENCING EMPLOYABILITY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

When determining the possible relationships that exist in this study between employability and emotional intelligence the personal characteristics of age, gender and ethnicity were taken into account. Also of importance are cognitive variables, geographical positioning and socio-economic status.

2.5.1 Age (grade)

The rapid changes in the market environment have resulted in frequent layoffs and job changes for individual workers. Thus, many older employees are now appearing in the role of job applicants (Van Rooy, Alonso & Viswesvaran, 2005). The relationship between age and employability appears to have a negative linear relationship. According to DeArmond, Tye, Chen, Krauss, Rogers and Sintek (2006) older workers tend to be seen as less likely to seek new challenges, less flexible, having less need for variation in their work, and displaying less desire to learn new skills. These commonly held stereotypes have obvious negative effects on the employability of older workers when seeking new employment.

Research has demonstrated that there is a mild but significant increase of emotional intelligence with age (Fariselli, Ghini & Freedman, 2008; Van Rooy, Alonso & Viswesvaran, 2005). Fariselli et al. (2008) hypothesise that as people grow they have more opportunity to learn about emotions and the gradations of emotions, increase emotional vocabulary, and experience more and more varied life situations. Perhaps they accumulate more feedback and integrate this into greater self-awareness.

2.5.2 Gender

Afrassa (2001) found that gender was shown to have a significant effect on employability, where males were more likely to gain employment than females after graduation. Research on gender difference in emotional intelligence has demonstrated that in terms of total EI, men and women do not seem to differ. However, there is evidence that women and men may differ on specific competencies (Singh, 2004).

A study was conducted on the emotional intelligence of a sample of over 77,000 respondents from throughout the world. Findings indicate that while men and women did not differ on the total EI, women did score significantly higher than men on empathy, interpersonal relationships, and social responsibility, while men scored higher than women on self-actualisation, assertiveness, stress tolerance, impulse control, and adaptability (Singh, 2004). In contrast, Mandell and Pherwani (2003) found a significant difference between male and female managers, where the mean score of females was higher than that of males. Mandell and Pherwani (2003) suggest

that females might be better at managing their emotions and the emotions of others, as compared to males.

2.5.3   Ethnicity

In a study conducted by Rothwell, Jewell & Hardie (2009) no significant differences in self perceived employability scores were attributable to ethnicity. Mancinelli, Massimiliano, Piva and Ponti (2010) found that higher levels of education have positive impacts on the advancement of minorities, increasing their likelihood of more satisfying jobs, higher incomes and career prospects. While findings suggest that an individual's employability does not differ among ethnic groups (ceteris paribus), macro-economic policy issues such as black economic empowerment (BEE) certainly influence ethnic demand in industry and thus stimulate ethic differences in employability (Beukes, 2009).

Van Rooy et al. (2005) suggest that a significant relationship exists between ethnicity and emotional intelligence. It was found that minority groups scored higher on general emotional intelligence scores. Van Rooy et al. (2005) thus conclude that because emotional intelligence has been found to be predictive of real-life criteria, and is increasingly being used in the workplace as a predictor, it is imperative that its potential for adverse impact is assessed.

2.5.4   Geographical positions

McQuaid, Green and Danson (2005) have found that geographical position also plays an important role in shaping access to employment and training opportunities. McQuaid (2006) explains that the degree of "skills" and "spatial" mismatch in a local labour market also depends upon the characteristics of the local economy, employers and job seekers. Similarly, Fariselli et al. (2008) state that perhaps the development of emotional intelligence is partly developed through the accumulation of feedback which is integrated into greater self-awareness. Thus, an individual's access to this emotional feedback based on their geographical location could possibly also influence their emotional intelligence development.

2.6 THEORETICAL INTEGRATION

In essence, employability is a person's ability to gain employment, where, a person's ability with any particular type of task would be equal to the sum of that person's general ability plus

considerations unique to that particular task (Dickens, 2008). Similar to Goleman's (1998) findings, the literature review indicated that the construct employability is commonly conceptualised to competencies from three competency clusters: (1) cognitive or intellectual ability, such as systems thinking, (2) self-management or intrapersonal abilities, such as adaptability, and (3) relationship management or interpersonal abilities, such as networking.

More specifically some of these competencies include; basic skills, goal-driven behaviour, creative learning skills, communication and business acumen. These competencies interact with cognitive and emotional abilities, and also each other. Beukes's (2009) model of self-regulatory employability is of relevance to the present study because it not only incorporates all the other employability competencies mentioned in the other theories, but also provides an operational process for the self-management of one's career.

Until recently, theories of occupational choice and career development were largely driven by the assumption of rationality in behaviour at work. However, in several areas of career theory it is possible to detect moves toward an acknowledgment of the powerful role of emotional experience and expression in career development (Kidd, 1998). According to Meijers (2002), these outdated theories view emotions, such as anxiety and uncertainty, as obstacles for career learning and career identity construction. Meijers (2002) proposes a different perspective of identity construction where emotions may be necessary for real changes in identity. Individuals who can think about emotions accurately and clearly may often be better able to anticipate, cope with, and effectively manage change (Mayer & Caruso, 2002). In order for individuals within the school-to-work transition to achieve their true employability potential, they will need to have well developed emotional intelligence (Pool & Sewell, 2007).

According to Mayer and Salovey (1990), emotions help individuals in generating multiple future plans, to improve their decision making processes due to a better understanding of one's emotional reaction, facilitate creative thinking and enhance persistence regarding challenging tasks. Therefore, people who are able to perceive and understand their own emotions should be able to better assess their job skills and interests, set appropriate career objectives, develop realistic career plans and obtain the developmental experiences needed to take advantage of career opportunities (Poon, 2004).

Although the construct is still in a stage of active development, four findings are emerging that provide an early picture of emotional intelligence: (1) emotional intelligence is distinct from, but positively related to, other intelligences, more specifically, it is the intelligence (the ability to grasp abstractions) applied to the life domain of emotions, (2) emotional intelligence is an individual difference, in the sense that some people are more endowed and others are less so, (3) emotional intelligence develops over a person's life span and can be enhanced through training, and (4) emotional intelligence involves particular abilities to reason intelligently about emotions including identifying and perceiving emotion (in oneself and others), as well as the skills to understand and to manage those emotions successfully (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Locke, 2005).

The concept of emotional intelligence implies that people are both rational and emotional beings (Thingujam, 2004). Adaptation and coping abilities in a social context depend on the integrative functioning of rational (cognitive) and emotional (affective) capacities (Fineman, 2000). It is through reason (cognitive reasoning ability) that individuals identify what emotions they are experiencing, discover the beliefs and values that gave rise to it, and decide what action, if any, to take on the face of it (Locke, 2005). Therefore, emotional and cognitive abilities both contribute to the employability of an individual.
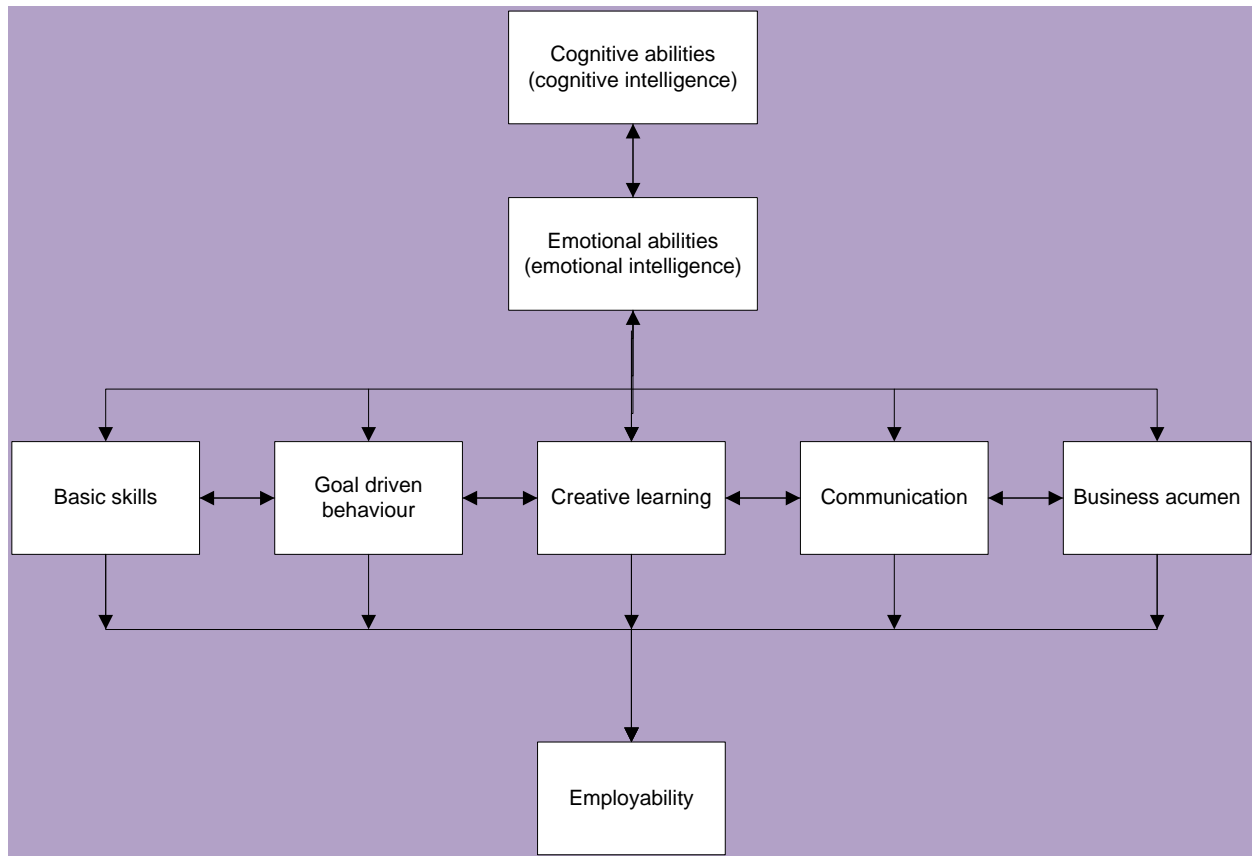
Figure 2.6. **Theoretical relationship between emotional intelligence and employability**

2.7   IMPLICATIONS FOR CAREER GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING

According to Maree and Beck (2004), radical changes in people's lifestyle and career planning as a result of the phenomenal technological advancement and information explosion of the 21st century have challenged current career-counselling practice. Feldman (2002) explains that an individual's background and social demographic status (for example, family characteristics, socioeconomic status, gender, ethnicity), personal characteristics (for example, self esteem, self-awareness, decision making ability), experiences (for example, work, academic experiences and hobbies), and initial skill levels (for example, cognitive abilities, technical skills, interpersonal skills), are important factors in determining one's occupational interests and competencies.

According to Feldman (2002), these interests and perceived competencies help an individual make an initial occupational choice and formulate career goals. Beukes's (2009) model of self-regulatory employability appears to be of value to career guidance and counselling as it provides a framework to assist individuals in understanding their interests and competencies, and how

they relate to labour demands. The self-regulatory model also provides a process guide for industrial psychologists who specialise in career guidance and counselling to assist their clients in developing an employability management plan, where all aspects in the employability process model could be addressed. Feldman (2002) cautions that where a poor person-job fit exists, that job will likely lead an individual to resign, receive lower performance ratings, be counselled to another job or career or require additional training.

2.8   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter explored the meta-theoretical and conceptual foundations of the constructs employability and emotional intelligence. Furthermore, it sought to provide an overview of the literature pertaining to the theoretical models that predominantly influence the notion of employability and emotional intelligence. Following this the variables influencing employability and emotional intelligence were discussed. The chapter then provided a theoretical integration of the constructs of employability and emotional intelligence and concluded with a discussion on the implications for career guidance and counselling. In chapter 3 the research methodology will be addressed.

CHAPTER 3
EMPIRICAL STUDY

Chapter 3 outlines the empirical investigation with the specific aim of describing the statistical strategies that will be employed to investigate the relationship dynamics between employability and emotional intelligence. Firstly, an overview of the study's population and sample is presented. The measuring instruments will be discussed and the choice of each justified, followed by a description of the data gathering and processing. The formulation of the research hypotheses will be stated, and the chapter will conclude with a chapter summary.

The empirical research phase consists of nine steps as outlined below:

Step 1   Determination and description of the sample

Step 2   Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

Step 3   Administration of the psychometric battery

Step 4   Scoring of the psychometric battery

Step 5   Formulation of research hypotheses

Step 6   Statistical processing of the data

Step 7   Reporting and interpreting the results

Step 8   Integration of the research findings

Step 9   Formulation of research conclusions, limitations, and recommendations

3.1   DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

According to Neuman (1997, p. 201), sampling "is a process of systematically selecting cases for inclusion in a research project". The researcher uses sampling as an aim to select a representation of the population from which the research conclusions will be drawn (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). A sample can be described as a set of cases containing any number of individuals less than the population (Neuman, 1997; Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). The target population of the proposed study is 1349 individuals within the school-to-work transition phase. This target population consists of the total grade numbers for grade 9 and grade 12 in the schools in which assessments were conducted. The total volunteer organisation youth number was also included into this figure as all individuals participated. This target population is deemed appropriate to study as the research focus is on the employability and emotional intelligence of individuals within the school-to-work transition phase of their careers.

There are two main types of sampling, namely, probability and non-probability sampling techniques (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). Using probability sampling techniques, every element in the target population gets a known chance of being selected into the sample. Non-probability sampling does not allow for elements to be selected according to the principle of systematic randomness (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002).

The judgemental sampling approach was selected for the non-probability technique. The reason for this decision was based on an attempt to mirror the current South African schooling structure. Five schools were selected in order for each school to represent a Quintile in the schooling structure. Quintiles are used by the Department of Education to classify schools in terms of the South African national poverty index for schools. Quintile 1, 2 and 3 schools are the least resourced schools and generally found in disadvantaged communities or rural areas. These schools are usually highly subsidised by the government. Quintile 4 and 5 schools are based in more affluent areas within cities around the country of South Africa. Due to finances having a substantial impact on access to quality education, it was decided to select a sample which would not be limited to a specific poverty index level.

The judgemental sampling approach was also selected in an attempt to reflect the whole school-to-work transition age range. The sample comprises of three main groups, namely, grade 9, grade 12 and recently exited. The reason for this judgement was to measure individuals at various developmental stages in the school-to-work transition. Grade 9 marks the end of the compulsory schooling system and is known as the Basic Education and Training band. Grade 12 marks the end of what is known as the Further Education and Training band. At this stage individuals leave school and either go and study further, travel, take a year off, try find a job or take care of their families. In an attempt to also measure individuals who have just left school, a volunteer organisation was selected which includes participants who have completed school the previous year.

3.1.1 Composition of sample groups (grades)

The study aimed to test three different groups: Grade 9, grade 12 and recently exited. The participants comprised a convenience sample of 587 youth (from a total population of 1349) in Grade 9 (32%) and 12 (35%), and post-school (youth who exited school during the previous

year) (33%) from five different secondary schools and a volunteer organisation in the Province of Gauteng, South Africa.

Table 3.1 gives an overview of the initial and final sample size

Table 3.1

Initial and final sample size

Participants	Questionnaires returned and usable	Rate of response %
Grade 9 participants	188	32%
Grade 12 participants	205	35%
Recently exited participants	194	33%
TOTAL SAMPLE SIZE	N= 587	95%

Figure 3.1 provides the sample split between these three groups. The total sample size is 587.
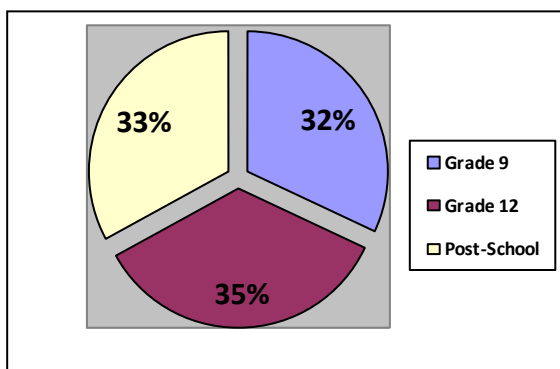
Figure 3.1. **Sample groups (n = 587)**

3.1.2   Composition of age groups in the sample

The participants were youth in their early career development stage with 90% of the sample being between the age of 15 and 18. The mean average age of the sample was 17.

Table 3.2

Age distribution of the sample

Age	N	Percentage of sample
Grade 9 (average of 15 years)	188	32%
Grade 12 (between 17&18)	205	35%
Recently exited (average of 18 years)	194	33%
Total	N= 587	100%
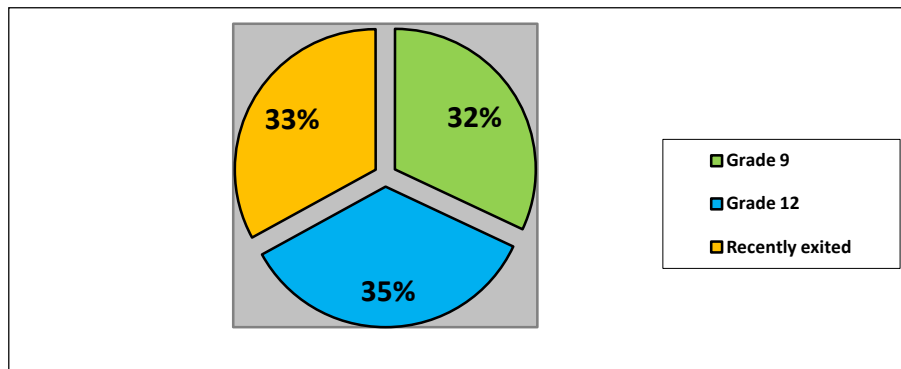
Figure 3.2. **Composition of age distribution (n = 587)**

3.1.3   Composition of ethnic groups in the sample

The majority of the sample is Black (74%). A small percentage is Coloured (8%), Indian/Asian (8%) and White (10%). This seems representative of the South African consensus (2001), where the country's ethnic makeup consisted of Black African 79%, Coloured 8.9%, Indian/Asian 2.5% and White 9.6%. The sample findings are found in table 3.2 below.

Table 3.3

Ethnic distribution of the sample

Ethnicity	N	Percentage of sample
Black	433	74%
Coloured	47	8%
Indian/Asian	47	8%
White	59	10%
Total	*N = 586*	*99.8%*

Figure 3.3 below depicts the various distributions between ethnic groups.
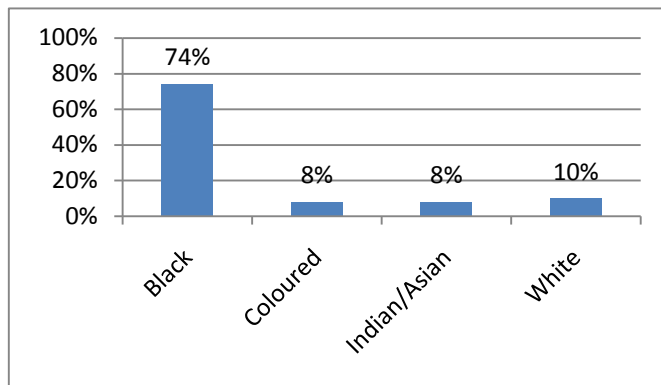
Figure 3.3. **Composition of ethnic distribution (n = 586)**

3.1.4   Composition of gender groups in the sample

Table 3.3 below indicates that the sample is relatively evenly split between males (43%) and females (57%).

Table 3.4

Gender (587)

Gender	N	Percentage of sample
Male	252	43%
Female	335	57%
Total	*N = 587*	*100%*

Figure 3.4 below depicts the gender distribution of the sample
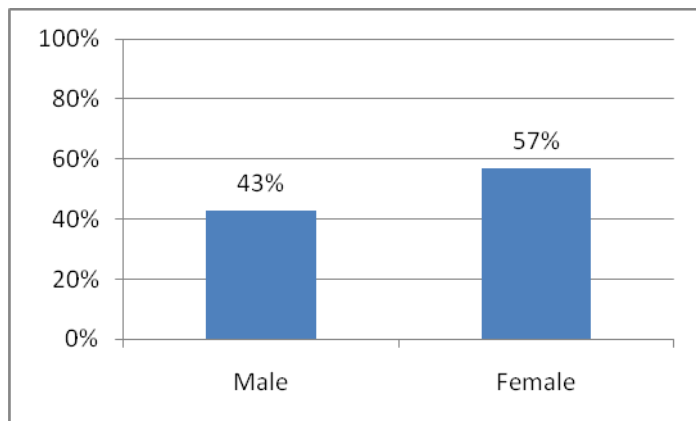
Figure 3.4. *Gender (n = 587)*

In summary, the biographical profile obtained indicates that the main sample characteristics that need to be considered in the interpretation of the empirical results are the following:

The participants are predominantly Black and female youth in the early adulthood phase of their lives (mean age 17).

3.2   CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

The selection of the psychometric battery was guided by the literature review. The following measuring instruments were chosen:

- A biographical questionnaire to ascertain the data regarding grade, ethnicity and gender was used for the purposes of the empirical study.
- Southern African Employability Inventory (SAEI)
- The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

3.2.1 Southern African Employability Inventory (SAEI)

The SAEI (Beukes, 2009) was used to measure each respondent's employability. The SAEI is discussed with reference to the development, rationale, description of sub-scales, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability and motivation for choice.

3.2.1.1 Development of the SAEI

The SAEI was developed by Beukes (2009) and is used as an instrument for measuring the construct of employability in the South African context. The SAEI is based on the self-regulatory employability model of Beukes (2009) discussed in chapter 2. The process used to obtain the items was through a series of focus groups, management meetings, surveys and newspaper article reviews. The process began with management meetings with recruitment and business owners. International findings, newspaper career advertisement skill requirements and other models of employability were analysed and integrated in order to determine their relevance in the South African context.

The integrated skill sets were then listed and surveys were conducted with over one hundred working adults in order for them to rate each skill on a five point rating scale. Along with these ratings participants were also requested to state their perspective as to what the most important skill to get employed was. From these findings a focus group was formed in order to determine what statements could accurately measure the set of chosen skills. From consensus of which statements were to be used, the inventory was developed.

3.2.1.2 Rationale of the SAEI

The purpose of the SAEI (Beukes, 2009) is to assess 5 facets of an individual's employability-related skills and attributes, namely: basic skills, goal-driven behaviour, creative learning, communication skills, and business acumen.

3.2.1.3 Description of the SAEI scales

The SAEI (Beukes, 2009) is a self-rated multi-factorial measure designed for South African youth and adult populations. The SAEI contains 83 items and five subscales: business acumen (17 items), creative learning skills (23 items), goal-driven behaviour (18 items), communication skills (13 items) and basic

skills (9 items). A 5-point Likert-type scale is used for subject responses to each of the 83 items. The purpose of the SAEI items is to stimulate respondents' thoughts about their employability. Table 3.6 indicates the five sub-scales of the SAEI and their corresponding allocated items.

Table 3.5

Sub-scale contents for the SAEI (Beukes, 2009)

Sub-scale	Item number
Business acumen	1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,13,15,16,17,18,19
Creative learning skills	21,22,23,24,25,26,27,28,29,30,31,32,33, 34,35,36,37,38,39,40,41,42,43,68
Goal-driven behaviour	12,14,45,46,47,48,49,50,51,52,53,54, 55,56,57,58,59,60
Communication skills	61,62,63,64,65,66,67,69,70,71,72,73,78
Basic skills	75,76,77,79,80,81,82,83

3.2.1.4 Administration of the SAEI

The SAEI is a self-diagnostic questionnaire, which can be administered individually or in group and takes approximately 15 minutes to answer, although there is no time limit. Respondents are required to answer each statement as honestly and quickly as they can, choosing their best alternative on a five-point Likert scale. Respondents are to avoid extreme ratings, except in areas where the respondent has very strong feelings in one direction or the other.

For each of the 83 items, respondents are required to rate how true that item is for them (in general) by circling a number between 1 and 5. The higher the number, the more that item is true to the respondent. The rating scale is as follows:

- "1" if the statement does not relate to the respondent.
- "2" if the statement does not really relate to the respondent.
- "3" if the respondent does not know if the statement is related to themselves.
- "4" if the statement is kind of related to the respondent
- "5" if the statement is directly related to the respondent.

Two items are formulated in the negative and reverse scored. All the items are added to form the employability score. To reverse the score, the items are renumbered 5 to 1 rather than 1 to 5 (Spector, 1997). Each of the five sub-scales can produce a separate score and the total of all items produces the total score which can range from 83 to 664. Each sub-scale can produce a score which can range from 8 to 120.

3.2.1.5 Interpretation of the SAEI

Each sub-scale (business acumen, creative learning skills, goal-driven behaviour, communication skills and basic skills) is measured separately and reflects participants' perception and feelings on these sub-scales. As a result, analysis can be carried out as to what sub-scales are perceived to be true for the participants and which are not. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the respondent. Sub-scales with the highest mean scores are regarded as respondents' dominant employability sub-scale. High scores on the SAEI represent high levels of overall employability. Such a person is perceived to be more employable than those that score lower on the inventory.

3.2.1.6 Validity and reliability of the SAEI

Results of an Exploratory Factor Analyses conducted by Beukes (2009), and discussed in chapter 4, reveal that the SAEI items satisfy the psychometric criteria of both content and construct validity. The reliability of the SAEI was determined by means of Cronbach-alpha coefficient. The reliability of the 5 constructs measured by the Cronbach-alpha was also confirmed by means of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and the Bartlett test of sphericity (Beukes, 2009). The KMO measure for adequacy was 0.85 indicating that the sample was adequate. The Bartlett test of sphericity yielded a statistical approximate chi-square ($p<0.000$), which also indicated the probability that the correlation matrix had significant correlation amongst the variables (Beukes, 2009).

Reliability (internal consistency) coefficients for the SAEI is 0.91. Each subscale ranges from 0.58 to 0.83 and inter-construct correlations (r) range from 0.02 to 0.60, indicating small to large practical effect size (Beukes, 2009). According to Anastasi (1976) a desirable reliability coefficient would fall in the range of 0.80 to 0.90. Nunnaly and Bernstein (1994) use 0.70 as a directive, whilst Bartholomew, Antonia, and Marcia (2000) argue that between 0.80 and 0.60 is acceptable. The internal consistency reliabilities clearly fall within the range of directives. The lower internal consistency coefficients for some of the SAEI variables could be attributed to the

life stage and inexperience of participants regarding the attributes measured. Since the purpose of this study was not to make individual predictions based on the SAEI, but rather to investigate broad trends and certain relations between variables, the instrument was considered to be psychometrically acceptable for the purpose of this study.

3.2.1.7 Motivation for choice

The SAEI (Beukes, 2009) was utilised in this study because of the psychometric properties of the instrument, which make it a valid and reliable measure of employability. The SAEI was also utilised for the reason that it is a South African measure, and has been developed through consideration of the diverse cultural groupings of South Africa.

3.2.2   Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

The AES (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden & Dornheim, 1998), was used to measure each respondent's emotional intelligence. The AES is discussed with reference to the development, rationale, description of sub-scales, administration, interpretation, validity and reliability and motivation for choice.

3.2.2.1 Development of the AES

The AES was developed by Schutte et al. (1998), and is used as an instrument for measuring the construct of emotional intelligence. The AES attempts to assess characteristic, or trait, emotional intelligence though the assessment of four dimensions. A trait approach to assessing emotional intelligence draws on self or other reports to gather information regarding the display of emotional intelligence characteristics in daily life. Even though some literature presents ability and trait conceptualisations of emotional intelligence as mutually exclusive alternatives (e.g., Mayer, Salovey & Caruso., 2000), both are regarded as being important and complementary dimensions of adaptive emotional functioning (Schutte, 1998).

3.2.2.2 Rationale of the AES

Schutte et al. (1998) suggested that the AES scale might appropriately be used for research purposes and to assist individuals who are motivated to self-reflect on aspects of their emotional

functioning in the context of issues such as career goals or experience of problems that may be related to emotional functioning. The purpose of the AES by Schutte (1998) is to evaluate four dimensions of emotional intelligence. The AES is an existing questionnaire which was used for the present study as it has been proven to be a reliable and valid instrument (Schutte, 1998; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden & Dornheim, 1998; Schutte & Malouff, 1999; Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2007).

3.2.2.3 Description of the AES scales

The AES is a 33-item self-report inventory which uses a five-point Likert-type scale to measure individuals' emotional intelligence traits. The AES consists of four subscales: perception of emotion (10 items), managing own emotions (9 items), managing others' emotions (8 items) and utilisation of emotions (6 items). Table 3.7 indicates the four sub-scales of the AES and their corresponding allocated items.

Table 3.6

Sub-scale contents for the AES (Schutte, 1998)

Sub-scale	Item number
Perception of emotions	5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33
Managing Own Emotions	2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31
Managing Others' Emotions	1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30
Utilisation of Emotion	6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27

3.2.2.4 Administration of the AES

The AES instrument is a self-report questionnaire, which can be administered individually or in group and takes on average 5 minutes to complete the scale. Each of the items asks the respondents about their emotions or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for the respondents, they use a 5-point scale to respond to the statement. By circling the "1" if they strongly disagree that this is like them, the "2" if they somewhat disagree that it is like them, "3" if they neither agree nor disagree that this is like them, the "4" if they somewhat agree that this is like them, and the "5" if they strongly agree that the item is like them.

Total scale scores are calculated by reverse coding items 5, 28 and 33, and then summing all items. Scores can range from 33 to 165.

3.2.2.5 Interpretation of the AES

Each sub-scale (perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilisation of emotions) is measured separately and reflects participants' perception and feelings on these sub-scales. As a result analysis can be conducted as to what sub-scales are perceived to be true for the participants and which are not. The higher the score, the truer the statement is for the respondent. High scores on the AES indicate more characteristic emotional intelligence.

3.2.2.6 Validity and reliability of the AES

Validity studies on the AES justify the various underlying constructs of the four subscales (Chapman & Hayslip, 2006; Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Saklofske, Austin & Minksi, 2003). In terms of reliability (internal consistency) Ciarrochi et al. (2001) report Cronbach alpha coefficients of 0.55 (moderate) to 0.78 (high). Test-retest reliability tests (Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden & Dornheim, 1998) indicate a coefficient score of 0.78 for total scale scores. Validity studies (Bracket & Mayer, 2003; John & Srivastava, 1999; McCrae & Costa, 1999; Schutte et al., 1998) confirm both the convergent and divergent validity of the AES.

Since the AES hasn't been standardised for South African populations, scale reliability tests were conducted for the sample group. In the present study the internal consistency coefficients obtained for each sub-scale were only moderate: perception of emotion (0.65), managing own emotions (0.56), managing others' emotions (0.58) and utilisation of emotions (0.54). As in the case of the SAEI, the somewhat lower internal consistency coefficients of the AES variables could be attributed to the life stage, inexperience and demographic background of the participants regarding the traits measured. In line with directives provided by Nunnally (1978) for measuring broad-based trends, the psychometric properties of the instruments were deemed acceptable for the purpose of this research.

3.2.2.7 Motivation for choice

The AES (Schutte et al., 2007) was chosen because it was developed for youths and adults. It was also utilised in the study because of its psychometric properties which make it a valid and reliable measure of emotional intelligence.

3.3   ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

Permission to conduct the survey was obtained from the Department of Education and head masters of the five schools that participated in the survey. All Grade 9 and 12 learners and those who had recently exited school were invited to voluntarily participate in the study. The participants attended a session organised for the purpose of completing the questionnaires under the supervision of a professionally trained and registered psychometrist. In terms of ethics, the purpose of the survey was explained and the participants were requested to sign a letter of consent stating that their completion of the questionnaires and returning them to the psychometrist, signified their permission to use the results for research purposes only. Given that many respondents were under 18, their parents also signed the consent forms. Anonymity and confidentiality were also guaranteed. The participants also received feedback on the results.

Learner's participation was voluntary, based upon them meeting at the school hall to conduct the assessments. A brief introduction was made and general guidelines explained. The group then began with the SAEI which took about fifteen minutes to complete. The group was then given the AES which took them approximately five minutes to complete. Once data collection was completed the group was dismissed. Anonymity and confidentiality of all learners were retained by sealing the boxes on collection and coding assessments so as not to allow names to be associated with results.

 Within the volunteer organisation, the entire group was brought together and seated in an auditorium, there was seating and writing space for everyone. A brief introduction was given and the group then began with the SAEI which took them about 20 minutes as there were some disruptions due to the group size. The AES was then administered, which took approximately 10 minutes to complete.

3.4   SCORING OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

Responses to each of the instrument measures were initially captured onto a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. The completed questionnaires were scored by an independent statistician. All data was imported and analysed through statistical analysis, using the statistical programme SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) Version 14.0 for the Microsoft Windows platform (SPSS Inc., 2006), to determine the relationship between the variables applicable to this study.

3.5   STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

The process of determining whether a relationship exists between employability and emotional intelligence and whether biographical groups differ significantly regarding the variables of grade, and gender can be described as follows:

(a)   Firstly, an Exploratory Factor Analysis was performed to assess the validity and reliability of the SAEI. Thereafter, the categorical and frequency data (means and standard deviations) as measured by the SAEI and AES was determined for the total sample in order to apply the statistical procedures. Cronbach's apha coefficients were also determined for the AES to determine the reliability of the instrument for the purpose of the study.

(b)   Secondly, correlation tests were conducted to investigate the direction and strength of the relationship between the variables measured by the SAEI and AES. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were applied.

(c)   Thirdly, inferential statistics were performed to enable the researcher to make inferences about the data. Multiple regressions were performed in order to determine the proportion of variance that is explained by the independent variable (emotional intelligence) regarding the scores of the dependent variable (employability).

(d)   Fourthly, inferential statistical analyses were performed to determine whether the grade, ethnicity and gender groups differ significantly in terms of the constructs measured. T-test and ANOVAS were applied for this purpose.

3.5.1   Exploratory factor analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to explore the underlying factor structure of the South African Employability Inventory. The factor analysis extraction method used was Principal Component Analysis. The Promax Rotation method with Kaiser Normalization was applied.

According to Field (2000, p. 443), "much has been written about the necessary sample size for factor analysis resulting in many 'rules-of-thumb'". Field (2000, p. 443) himself, for example, states that a researcher should have at least 10-15 subjects per variable. Habing (2003) postulates that there should be at least 50 observations and at least 5 times as many observations as variables. In the current study there are approximately 7 times more observations as variables.

According to Field (2000, p. 434), strong feelings exist concerning the choice between factor analysis and principal component analysis. Theoretically, factor analysis is more correct, but also more complicated. Practically, however, "the solutions generated from principal component analysis differ little from those derived from factor analysis techniques" (Field, 2000, p. 434).

3.5.1.1 Cronbach alpha coefficient

Rosnow and Rosenthal (1996, p.124) define the Internal-consistency reliability as "the degree of relatedness of the individual items in one factor or scale or construct and explain that the Cronbach alpha is the most commonly used calculation for this type of reliability". The Cronbach alpha has a range of 0-1, where 0 is no internal consistency and 1 is the maximum internal consistency. As a rule of thumb, a proposed psychometric instrument should only be used if an α value of 0.70 or higher is obtained on a substantial sample.

3.5.2   Descriptive statistics

3.5.2.1 Means and standard deviations

The descriptive statistics used to analyse data in this study were frequencies, means and standard deviations. The scores across these factors were created by obtaining an average

across all the items in each of the factors. Using the means scores, instead of total scores, it is possible to obtain a better comparison between the different dimensions. Frequency tables were used to indicate the distribution of biographical variable data and enable the researcher to describe the sample population.

3.5.3 Correlational statistics: Pearson-product correlation coefficient

Correlational statistics seek to use explanatory statistics to investigate the relationships between the various constructs. Pearson product moment correlation is used to identify the direction and strength of the relationships between employability and emotional Intelligence.

Blaikie (2003, p. 109) explains that the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is universally used with interval-level and ratio-level variables. The current study makes use of interval-level data. The correlation coefficient (r) indicates the estimated extent to which the changes in one variable are associated with changes in the other variable on a range of +1.00 to −1.00. A correlation of +1.00 indicates a perfect positive relationship, a correlation of 0.00 indicates no relationship and a correlation of −1.00 indicates a perfect negative relationship. In the case of a positive correlation between two variables, the higher the scores on one variable, the higher the scores tend to be on the other variable. If the correlation is negative, then the higher the score on the one variable, the lower the scores on the other variable tend to be.

In statistics, a result is significant if it is unlikely to have occurred by chance, given that in reality a presumed null hypothesis is true. The current level of significance that will be used is $p \leq 0.05$. All p-values/significance values will be compared to this value. It the p-values are equal or smaller to 0.05, the result will be considered significant.

3.5.4 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics were performed to enable the researcher to make inferences about the data.

3.5.4.1 Multiple regression

In statistics, regression analysis includes any techniques for modelling and analysing several variables, when the focus is on the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more

independent variables. More specifically, regression analysis helps the researcher understand how the typical value of the dependent variable changes when any one of the independent variables is varied, while the other independent variables are held fixed. Most commonly, regression analysis estimates the conditional expectation of the dependent variable given the independent variables - that is, the average value of the dependent variable when the independent variables are held fixed. Less commonly, the focus is on a quintile, or other location parameter of the conditional distribution of the dependent variable given the independent variables. In all cases, the estimation target is a function of the independent variables called the regression function. In regression analysis it is also of interest to characterise the variation of the dependent variable around the regression function, which can be described by a probability distribution (Terre Blanche & Durheim, 2002).

3.5.4.2 Tests of differences between mean scores

a)   t-Test analysis

A t-test is any statistical hypothesis test in which the test statistic follows a Student's *t* distribution if the null hypothesis is true. It is most commonly applied when the test statistic would follow a normal distribution if the value of a scaling term in the test statistic were known. When the scaling term is unknown and is replaced by an estimate based on the data, the test statistic (under certain conditions) follows a Student's t distribution. The t-test provides an exact test for the equality of the means of two normal populations with unknown, but equal, variances (Terre Blanche & Durheim, 2002).

b)   Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical procedure for summarising a classical linear model - a decomposition of sum of squares into a component for each source of variation in the model - along with an associated test (the F-test) of the hypothesis that any given source of variation in the model is zero. When applied to generalised linear models, multilevel models, and other extensions of classical regression, ANOVA can be extended in two different directions. First, the F-test can be used (in an asymptotic or approximate fashion) to compare nested models and test the hypothesis that the simpler of the models is sufficient to explain the data. Second, the

idea of variance decomposition can be interpreted as inference for the variances of batches of parameters (sources of variation) in multilevel regressions (Gelman, 2005).

c)   Post-hoc Duncan test for differences

A post hoc Duncan test indicates which of the groups differ from one another. Tables contain the post-hoc results by showing the mean scores obtained on each factor for each group and the subsets into which the mean scores fall. When the mean scores of groups fall into the same subset, there is no difference between the scores. Significant differences exist between groups where the means scores fall into different subsets (Terre Blanche & Durheim, 2002).

3.5.5   Statistical significance level

The significance level is usually denoted by the Greek symbol α (lowercase alpha). Popular levels of significance are 5% (0.05), 1% (0.01) and 0.1% (0.001). If a test of significance gives a p-value lower than the α-level, the null hypothesis is rejected. Such results are informally referred to as 'statistically significant'. For example, if someone argues that "there's only one chance in a thousand this could have happened by coincidence," a 0.001 level of statistical significance is being implied. The lower the significance level, the stronger the evidence required. Choosing level of significance is an arbitrary task, but for many applications, a level of 5% is chosen, for no better reason than that it is conventional. In some situations it is convenient to express the statistical significance as 1 − α. In general, when interpreting a stated significance, one must be careful to note what precisely is being tested statistically.

3.5.5.1 Statistical significance of multiple regression correlations

Since a number of independent (AES) variables had to be considered, the value of adjusted R^2 was used to interpret the results. In order to counter for the probability of a type I error, it was decided to set the significance value at a 95% confidence interval level ($p < 0.05$). The   *F*-test was used to test whether there was a significant regression between the independent and dependent variables. For the purposes of this study, r-values larger than 0.30 (medium effect) and R^2 values larger than 0.13 (medium effect) (Cohen, 1992) were regarded as practically significant.

3.5.5.2 Statistical significance of analysis of variance

General significance associated with the one-way ANOVA is indicated as the probability associated with the F-statistic. The analysis is only significant and valid if the probability associated with the analysis is less than $p < 0.05$.

3.5.5.3 Type I and Type II errors

In a statistical hypothesis test, there are two types of incorrect conclusions that can be drawn. The hypothesis can be inappropriately rejected (this is called type I error), or can inappropriately retain the hypothesis (this is called type II error). The Greek letter α is used to denote the probability of type I error, and the letter β is used to denote the probability of type II error (Terre Blanche & Durheim, 2002).

3.6 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPHOTHESES

A hypothesis is a proposed explanation for an observable phenomenon. The term derives from the Greek term "hypotithenai" meaning "to put under" or "to suppose." For a hypothesis to be put forward as a scientific hypothesis, the scientific method requires that it can be tested. Scientists generally base scientific hypotheses on previous observations that cannot satisfactorily be explained with the available scientific theories. Even though the words "hypothesis" and "theory" are often used synonymously in common and informal usage, a scientific hypothesis is not the same as a scientific theory. A working hypothesis is a provisionally accepted hypothesis (Terre Blanche & Durheim, 2002).

In the literature review chapters, the central research hypothesis was formulated to determine whether a relationship exists between employability and emotional intelligence. The following research hypotheses are formulated with a view to achieve the empirical objectives of the study and to meet the criteria for the formulation of hypotheses:

HO1: There are no significant relationships between the employability and emotional intelligence variables.

H1: There are significant relationships between the employability and emotional intelligence variables.

HO2: There are no significant differences between the grade and gender groups regarding their employability and emotional intelligence.

H2: There are significant differences between the grade and gender groups regarding their employability and emotional intelligence.

The research hypotheses will be tested by means of descriptive, correlation and inferential statistics.

3.7   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter three began with an overview of the studies population sample. From that a description of the measuring instruments, data collection process, administration of measuring instruments and data analysis was discussed. The chapter concluded with the formulation of the hypothesis related to the study. Chapter 4 covers the data analysis, interpretation and integration of the empirical findings.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH RESULTS

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the statistical results of this study and to integrate the empirical research findings with the literature review. The statistical results will be reported in terms of exploratory factor analysis, descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics.

4.1   EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (EFA)

An EFA was conducted to explore the underlying factor structure of the South African Employability Inventory (SAEI). The factor analysis extraction method used was Principal Component Analysis. The Promax Rotation method with Kaiser Normalization was applied.

Table 4.1

KMO and Barlett's Test

	Cronbach Alpha
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.854
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-Square	11944.283
Significance	0.000

Table 4.1 indicates that the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.85 indicating that the sample was adequate. The Bartlett test of sphericity yielded a statistical approximate chi-square (p<0.000), which also indicate the probability that the correlation matrix had significant correlation amongst the variables.
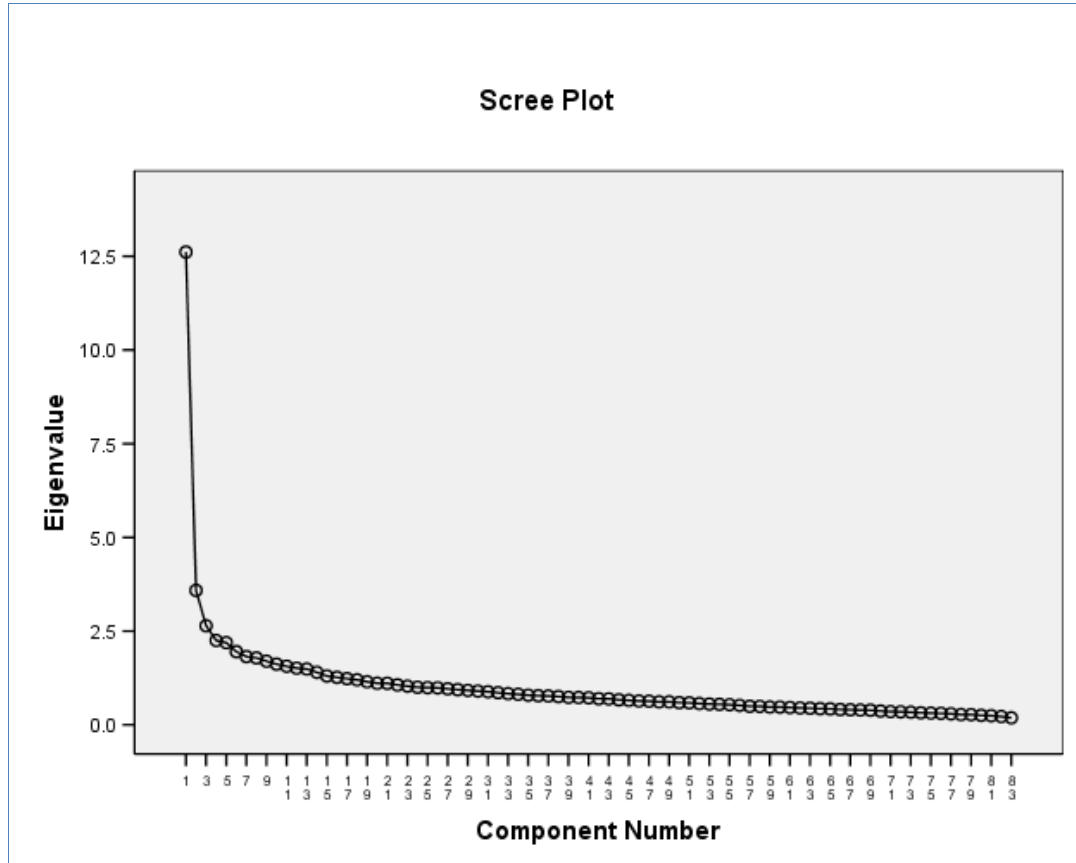
Figure 4.1. **Scree Plot for Principal component analysis on the SAEI**

The Scree plot shows strong support for a single factor. Some rules of thumb have been suggested for determining how many factors should be retained (Field, 2000, p. 436-437; Rietveld & Van Hout, 1993, p. 273-274):

1.   Retain only those factors with an eigenvalue larger than 1

2.   Keep the factors which, in total, account for about 70-80% of the variance;

3.   Make a scree-plot; keep all factors before the breaking point or elbow.

The slope of the graph in figure 4.1 starts evening out after about 4-5 factors.

The variance explained below in table 4.2 (indicating only the information for all factors with Eigen values above 1) indicates that there are 25 factors with Eigen values above 1 thus, making it unclear to interpret the data. It was therefore decided to use the rule of thumb of investigating the scree plot and select factors with Eigen values above 2, in order to decide on the number of factors to use.

Table 4.2

Total variance explained

	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
	Initial Eigen values		
1	12.669	15.264	15.264
2	3.540	4.265	19.529
3	2.625	3.163	22.692
4	2.277	2.744	25.435
5	2.243	2.702	28.137
6	1.972	2.376	30.513
7	1.815	2.186	32.699
8	1.793	2.161	34.860
9	1.720	2.072	36.932
10	1.637	1.972	38.904
11	1.548	1.865	40.769
12	1.498	1.805	42.574
13	1.464	1.764	44.338
14	1.365	1.644	45.982
15	1.287	1.551	47.533
16	1.267	1.527	49.060
17	1.231	1.483	50.543
18	1.221	1.472	52.014
19	1.156	1.393	53.407
20	1.133	1.365	54.772
21	1.118	1.346	56.118
22	1.079	1.300	57.418
23	1.034	1.246	58.664
24	1.011	1.218	59.882
25	1.005	1.210	61.092

Five factors have Eigen values above 2. A five factor solution was therefore extracted and this solution made good theoretical sense. Table 4.3 provides the factor loadings of the individual items on each of the five factors.

Table 4.3

Results from a five factor Principle component analysis

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
	Blue	Purple	Green	Beige	Mustard
I know how machines and technology work together to make business run	.617				
I understand what it takes to succeed in business	.608		-.355		
I know what is expected of me when I start working	.567		-.280		
I know how much money I would get a month from doing what I am good at	.547				
I know where and how I can find work doing what I am very good at	.530				
I know of many companies where I could go and work	.529				
I know what it will take to achieve my goals	.525				
I know what values I have in life when it comes to work	.466				
I understand why different jobs are better for some people than others	.440		-.422		

Item					
I find people to speak to who have knowledge in the jobs I am interested in	.420				
I know what my financial needs will be in life	.414				
I have clear goals for what I want to achieve in my career	.408		.388		
I know what I need to work on to become even better at what I am good at	.393				
I set goals that I am able to measure	.379		.341		
I know why I have very strong interests in some jobs	.322				
I plan and manage time, money and other resources to achieve goals	.322				
I make sure I dress properly for the different occasions	.309				
I make short term choices to get me to long term results	.300				
I am able to use all my skills to get things done	.267				
I am very passionate about what career I will be involved in one day					
I listen very carefully to what someone is saying before I speak		.554			
I always take time to think about things I've done		.553			
I believe that working in a team makes work easier		.521			
I am always trying to learn new skills which will help me to learn easier		.470			

I respect people and know they can work well together even though we are all different		.468			-.257
I can fit into just about any group and work together with them		.454		.328	
I am always willing to keep on learning and find ways to improve myself		.431			
I am always willing to learn something new		.430			
I can easily accept when people tell me what I can do better		.402			
I will keep trying different ways till I find a job		.387			
I keep evidence to prove that I have learnt new skills and gained new experience		.375			
I enjoy doing new things all the time		.374		.264	
I am good at overcoming challenges and asking for help when necessary		.356			
I always look back and see how I sorted out problems		.349	.279		
When I find something new I will learn everything there is to know about it		.343	.269		
I often think about how life will be when I am working		.327	-.263		
I am the type of person who first needs to hear and understand properly before I respond		.325			-.251
I will do whatever it takes to become more employable		.307			
I am never late for anything if I can help it		.302			

Statement				
It doesn't bother me when things don't always go my way		.302		
My maths marks have generally been one of the highest on my report card		-.283		
I am very good with managing my time		.267		
I have no problem adjusting my goals when situations change		.250		
My goals are sometimes beyond my reach but that doesn't scare me				
I make sure I keep a record of my goals somewhere			.634	
I enjoy reading a lot			.556	
I set goals for my learning			.507	
I prefer setting goals which take a while to finish			.481	
I will always carry on studying throughout my whole life			.479	
I make time to see how I am progressing towards my goals			.463	
I set goals that will help me to become good at something			.440	
I enjoy preparing the paperwork that I will need when I go for my interviews			.416	
I work out what resources I need to solve a problem			.396	
I know what I am very good at when it comes to work			.327	

Item				
I tend to arrange my goals from most important to least important			.322		
I set goals because that is the only way to get anywhere in life	.306		.318		
I first look for new and creative ways to solve a problem before starting		.251	.295		
I use all my skills that I have to solve problems			.278		
I get my goals finished in the time I said I would	.260		.270		
I know what work I could do better than anyone else	.261		.263		
I am very good at making speeches or doing presentations		-.275	.330	.623	
I'm very good at organising and presenting information				.600	
I am good at leading or supporting a team to reach its goals				.582	
I am good at answering questions				.578	
I know I can give a lot to a group in my own way				.477	
I don't really like talking to new people				.467	-.264
When my team has problems I look for ways to sort it out		.323		.383	
I can easily adapt myself to any situation		.356	-.263	.361	
My English marks have generally been one of the highest on my report cards			.292	.334	
I can easily assess situations and see problems				.323	

Item					
I am sometimes so eager to make my point that I cut people off while they are talking		.274		-.320	-.270
I would have no problem describing why I wanted to work somewhere	.257			.318	
I know how to write for business and personal reasons				.309	.301
I think about things like what to say in interviews					
I spend a lot of time sending and receiving e-mail					.627
I spend a lot of time surfing the internet and finding new information on search engines					.599
I spend a lot of time doing different things on a computer					.545
I'm very good at persuading people				.394	.414
I don't really need people's advice on what I am doing					-.410
I like setting goals that I can see the end very quickly					.326
I like things done my way		.299			-.311
I don't really worry about getting all the information before I start something				.266	-.292
I have never really cared much for maths because I don't think it matters in the real world					-.290

It occurs that an item might load/correlate with more than one factor. The colour coding in the above table indicates which item fits best on which factor based on a combination of the factor loading and common sense. The items in each factor were carefully considered and named according to what best describes each factor. The following descriptions were given:

Table 4.4

Five factor model with Eigen Values above 2

Statistical identity	Dimension name:	Dimension description:	Items per dimension:
Component 1:	**Basic skills**	Basic skills refer to IT and computer skills, but also to an attitude that recognises the value of maths and listening to advice	75,76,77, 79, 80,81, 82,83
Component 2:	**Goal-driven behaviour**	Students set goals and use their time and resources towards trying to achieve these goals	12,14,45,464 7,48,49,50, 51,52,53,54 55, 56 ,57 58 ,59,60
Component 3:	**Creative learning**	This refers to openness to new idea, finding creative solutions to problems and an inclination towards life-long learning. It also refers to believing in the power of teamwork to achieve solutions.	21,22,23,24, 25,26,27,28, 29,30,31,32, 33,34,3536,3 7,38,3940,41 ,42,4368
Component 4:	**Communication skills**	This factor is about good communication skills, being able to present information and leadership in a team situation	61,62,63, 64,65,66, 67,69,70, 71,72,73,78
Component 5:	**Business acumen**	This refers to an understanding and awareness of business and companies, how the student fits into the workplace through skills and this factor also refers to an awareness of money and finances	1,2,3,4,5,6,7, 8,9,10,11,13, 15,16,1718,1 9

4.2   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic features of the data in this study. They provide simple summaries about the descriptive characteristics of the sample. Together with simple graphics analysis they help to understand the basic characteristics of the sample. Item-reliability and Cronbach coefficient alpha for the SAEI and the AES were conducted in order to establish construct reliability. The item-reliability and Cronbach alpha coefficients for the two measuring instruments will be reported and substantially interpreted. The reporting and interpretation of means and standard deviations were conducted, as these statistics assist in proving context to the research results and findings.

4.2.1   Reporting of item-reliability: Cronbach alpha coefficients

This section provides the item-reliability of the following measurements and subscales: South African Employability Inventory (SAEI) and Assessing Emotions Scale (AES).

4.2.1.1 South African Employability Inventory (SAEI)

Table 4.5 provides the Cronbach alpha values for each of the 5 sub-scales of the SAEI. These scores varied from 0.58 to 0.83 for the total sample (N=587). The total SAEI scale obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.91 which can be considered adequate for the purpose of the current study.

Table 4.5

Reliability analysis for the five factors extracted from the SAEI

Factor Name	*Cronbach Alpha*	*Number of items*
Factor 1: Basic skills	0.58	8
Factor 2: Goal-driven behaviour	0.83	19
Factor 3: Creative learning	0.76	24
Factor 4: Communication skills	0.83	12
Factor 5: Business acumen	0.80	17

Table 4.5 indicates that most of the subscales have adequately high reliabilities. However, Factor 5: Basic skills received an abnormally low result. This could be attributable to a lack of access to technology for many individuals. The item analysis on these dimensions indicates that the reliability cannot be improved by excluding any items.

4.2.1.2 Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

Table 4.6 provides the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the four AES sub-scales. These alpha coefficients varied from 0.54 to 0.80 for the total sample (N=587). The total Cronbach alpha for the AES scale is 0.80, which is considered adequate for the purposes of this study.

Table 4.6

Reliability analysis for the AES

	Cronbach Alpha	*Number of items*
Emotional Intelligence	0.80	33
Perception of Emotion	0.65	11
Managing own Emotions	0.56	9
Managing other Emotions	0.58	8
Utilisation of Emotion	0.54	6

4.2.2   Reporting of means and standard deviations

The means and standard deviations for each of the two measuring instruments (SAEI & AES) were calculated and are reported in the section that follows.

4.2.2.1 South African Employability Inventory (SAEI)

The SAEI is scored by obtaining an average across all the items in each of the factors. A mean score is obtained by summing all individual scores for each sub-scale and then dividing the total for each sub-scale by 5. Each individual sub-scale can range from 1-5, where 1 would be the

minimum score that will result if a participant scored each of the items applicable to the sub-scale as 1. Table 4.6 presents the descriptive information on each of the five factors.

Table 4.7

Descriptive information on the factors of the SAEI   (n = 587)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Basic skills	590	1.00	4.50	2.66	0.69
Goal-driven behaviour	590	2.00	5.00	3.94	0.54
Creative learning	590	2.67	4.96	4.20	0.39
Communication skills	590	1.92	4.92	3.81	0.54
Business acumen	590	2.18	4.94	4.04	0.48

The mean scores ranged from 2.66 to 4.20. The sample of participants obtained the highest mean scores on *creative learning* (m=4.20; SD=0.30) and *business acumen* (m=4.04; SD=0.48) sub-scales, and the *lowest on basic skills (*m=2.66; SD=0.69*).* The standard deviations of the sub-scales are fairly similar, all ranging from 0.39 to 0.69.

4.2.2.2   Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

The SAEI is scored by obtaining an average across all the items in each of the factors. The average score for total emotional intelligence for this sample is 133. The highest any participant scored is 163 and the lowest is 68. The emotional intelligence subscales do not contain the same number of items in each scale, and as the scores are computed by obtaining total scores. This will influence the comparability of the scores.

Table 4.8

Descriptive information on Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emotional Intelligence	590	68	163	133.07	13.29
Perception of Emotion	590	15	55	41.64	5.809
Managing own Emotions	590	18	45	38.27	4.284
Managing other Emotions	590	14	40	32.36	4.266
Utilisation of Emotion	590	13	30	24.75	3.396

Using the means scores, instead of total scores, it is possible to obtain a better comparison between the different dimensions.

Table 4.9

Descriptive information on the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) subscales using mean scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perception of Emotion	590	2.0	5	3.80	0.52
Managing own Emotions	590	2.6	5	4.27	0.45
Managing other Emotions	590	1.8	5	4.05	0.53
Utilisation of Emotion	590	2.2	5	4.14	0.55

The mean scores ranged from 3.80 to 4.27. The sample of participants obtained the highest mean scores on the managing own emotions (m=4.47; SD= 0.44) subscale and utilisation of emotion (m=4.14; SD=0.55) subscale, and the lowest scores on the perception of emotion (m=3.80; SD=0.52) subscale. The standard deviations in the sub-scales are very similar, all ranging from 0.45 to 0.55.

4.2.3   Interpretation of means and standard deviations

This section interprets the results reported in Tables 4.7 to 4.9.

4.2.3.1 South African Employability Inventory (SAEI)

The high scores obtained for the creative learning variable suggests that participants perceive themselves to have well-developed skills in teamwork, adaptability, reflection and adjustment. The high scores obtained for business acumen suggest that the participants perceived themselves as having good knowledge as to what the labour market is expecting, and knowing what it takes to succeed in business. High reliability coefficients were also obtained for the creative learning and business acumen. The low mean scores obtained for the basic skills variable suggest that participants may not have sufficient access to technology such as computers and internet.

4.2.3.2 Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)

The high scores obtained for managing own emotions and utilisation of emotions variables suggest that participants have a positive attitude and actively utilise and manage their emotions to maintain a positive perspective. Based on the low reliability coefficients obtained for the managing own emotions and utilisation of emotions sub-scales, these findings should be interpreted with caution. The low mean scores obtained for the perception of emotions could either be attributable to participants not knowing what the term "non-verbal messages" mean, or that they are unaware of how to understand emotions in others.

4.3   CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS

Section 1 of this chapter explained the descriptive statistics obtained from the sample, and also explored the validity of the South African Employability Inventory (SAEI). The reliability of both instruments SAEI and AES was established and this section now seeks to use correlational statistics to investigate the relationships between the various constructs. Pearson product moment correlation is used to identify the direction and strength of the relationships between the SAEI and AES variables.

4.3.1   Reporting of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients (SAEI & AES)

According to Cohen, Cohen, West and Alken (2003) a correlation matrix provides a convenient method of summarising the correlations between variables, providing information about the magnitude and direction of relationships. Table 4.10 provides the inter-item matrix between the five SAEI sub-scales.

A significant positive relationship is observed between most of the five SAEI variables ($p \leq 0.001$; medium practical effect size). Only basic skills did not have a significant relationship between certain variables. These variables include creative learning ($r=0.58$) and goal-driven behaviour ($r=0.38$). The correlations with the other factors are very small when using the practical effect size guide provided by Cohen (1988) as all the Pearson r-values are below 0.3.

Table 4.10

Inter-item correlational matrix: SAEI variables

		Business acumen	Creative learning	Goal driven	Communi-cation	Basic skills
Business Acumen	Pearson r	1	.464	.595	.453	.189
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	590	590	590	590	590
Creative learning	Pearson r		1	.565	.400	.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.000	.582
	N		590	590	590	590
Goal-driven behaviour	Pearson r			1	.528	.085
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000	.038
	N				590	590
Communication	Pearson r				1	.211
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000
	N				590	590
Basic skills	Pearson r					1
	Sig. (2-tailed)					
	N					590

4.3.2 Interpretation of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients between SAEI variables

Based on the data displayed in Table 4.10, the results suggest that each subscale measures a unique construct. With the exception of the basic skills subscale, the significant inter-relationships suggest that the various subscales are valid measures of the overall employability construct.

4.3.3 Reporting of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients between AES variables

The correlations between the various variables of the AES are provided in Table 4.11 below. All the dimensions of the SAEI correlate positively with one another ($p \leq 0.05$). The r-values are medium to large in practical significance.

Table 4.11

Inter-item correlation matrix: AES variables

		Perception of Emotion	Managing own Emotions	Managing other Emotions	Utilisation of Emotion
Perception of Emotion	Pearson Correlation	1	.357	.514	.404
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	590	590	590	590
Managing own Emotions	Pearson Correlation	.357	1	.507	.495
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	590	590	590	590
Managing other Emotions	Pearson Correlation	.514	.507	1	.430
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	590	590	590	590
Utilisation of Emotion	Pearson Correlation	.404	.495	.430	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	590	590	590	590

4.3.4 Interpretation of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients between AES variables

Based on the data displayed in Table 4.11, the results suggest that each subscale measures a unique construct. The significant inter-relationships suggest that the various subscales are valid measures of the overall emotional intelligence construct.

Table 4.12

Pearson product-moment correlations (SAEI & AES)

		Basic skills	Goal-driven behaviour	Creative learning	Communication	Business acumen
Emotional Intelligence	Pearson r	.77	.44 *** ++	.48 *** ++	.43*** ++	.49*** ++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.063	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	590	590	590	590	590
Perception of Emotion	Pearson r	0.11** +	0.26*** +	0.29*** +	0.28*** +	0.36*** +
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	590	590	590	590	590
Managing own Emotions	Pearson r	0.01	0.45*** ++	0.54*** +++	0.38*** ++	0.42*** ++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.905	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	590	590	590	590	590
Managing other Emotions	Pearson r	0.02	0.35*** ++	0.43*** ++	0.35*** ++	0.36*** ++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.716	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	590	590	590	590	590
Utilisation of Emotion	Pearson r	0.11** +	0.40*** ++	0.35*** ++	0.35*** ++	0.40*** ++
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	590	590	590	590	590

***$p \leq 0.001$ **$p \leq 0.01$ *$p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed)

+ ++ $r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect size)   ++ $r \geq 0.30 \leq 0.49$ (medium practical effect size)   + $r \leq 0.29$ (small practical effect size)

The correlation matrix indicates that there are significant positive correlations between total emotional intelligence and four of the five factors of employability. The Pearson's r value for emotional intelligence and business acumen, creative learning, goal-driven behaviour and communication are all of a medium size according to Cohen (1988). The p-values for all these SAEI factors are also smaller than 0.05 and they are therefore significant. Basic skills do not correlate with the total assessing emotional intelligence scale as the p-value is 0.06 (above the cut-off value of 0.05). The Pearson's r value is also very small for basic skills and total AES scores (r = 0.08).

The AES dimensions correlate positively and significantly with four of the five SAEI factors. The fifth factor, basic skills, correlates significantly with utilisation of emotions (p≤0.01) and perception of emotions (p≤0.01), yet the Pearson r- value is very small (r=0.11 and r=0.11 respectively). This indicates a very small practical effect. Perception of emotions indicate medium to small Pearson r-values with the five SAEI factors. The other AES dimensions indicate medium to large correlations with the SAEI dimensions.

No significant relationships are observed between the AES variables, managing own emotions and managing others' emotions and the SAEI basic skills variable.

4.3.5   Interpretation of Pearson-product moment correlation coefficients: SAEI and AES

The significant positive relationship found between SAEI and AES suggests that the higher a respondent scores on emotional intelligence the higher they will score on the following four employability dimensions: business acumen, creative learning, goal-driven behaviour and communication. The lack of correlation with basic skills might be because there is a general lack of IT training/availability. Many items in the basic skills sub-scales covered aspects of having access to computers and internet. It is generally accepted that many school do not have active computer centres for computer training for their learners, and particularly schools in disadvantaged communities.

4.4   INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Inferential statistics are concerned with using samples to infer something about populations. Firstly, multiple regression analyses were performed in order to further investigate the relationship between only those variables that related significantly. Thereafter, t-tests and

ANOVAs were performed to examine whether the biographical groups (grade and gender) differ significantly on their mean scores with regard to the variables of concern to this study.

4.4.1   Multiple regression

4.4.1.1 Reporting of regression analyses (SAEI & AES)

In terms of the SAEI and AES variable Table 4.13 indicates that with the exception of the small percentage of variance explained in the SAEI basic skills variable (R^2 = 1%, small practical effect size) (Cohen, 1988). The other regression models explained medium (R^2 = 19%) to large (R^2 = 28) practical effect percentages of variance in the dependent variables.

Table 4.13 indicates that the AES *perception of emotion* variable contributes significantly to the variance in the SAEI variables basic skills (β = 0.11; p ≤ 0.01) and business acumen (β = 0.18; p ≤ 0.00) variables. The *managing own emotions* variable contributes significantly to the variance in the following SAEI variables: goal driven behaviour (β = 0.26; p ≤ 0.00), creative learning skills (β = 0.39; p ≤ 0.00), communication skills (β = 0.20; p ≤ 0.00) and business acumen (β = 0.24; p ≤ 0.00). The *managing others' emotions* variable contributes significantly to the variance in the following SAEI variables: goal driven behaviour (β = 0.11; p ≤ 0.01), creative learning skills (β = 0.21; p ≤ 0.00) and communication skills (β = 0.18; p ≤ 0.00). The *utilisation of emotion* variable only contributes significantly to the variance in the SAEI business acumen variable (β = 0.20; p ≤ 0.00).

Table 4.13

Multiple regression analyses: SAEI & AES (n=587)

Variable	Unstandardised coefficient		Standardised coefficient	*t*	*p*	*F*	*Adjusted R Square*	*R*
	b	SE b	ß					
Basic skills (Constant)	2.11	0.21		10.25	10.25	7.22	0.01+ **	0.11 ***
Perception of emotion	0.01	0.01	0.11	2.69	0.01			
Goal-driven behaviour (Constant)	1.36	0.20		6.98	0.00	60.16	0.23++ ***	0.49 ***
Managing own emotions	0.03	0.01	0.26	5.84	0.00			
Utilisation of emotion	0.04	0.01	0.22	5.06	0.00			
Managing others' emotions	0.01	0.01	0.11	2.51	0.01			
Creative learning skills (Constant)	2.19	0.13		16.56	0.00	117.77	0.28+++ ***	0.54 ***
Managing own emotions	0.04	0.004	0.39	9.62	0.00			
Managing others' emotions	0.02	0.004	0.21	5.23	0.00			
Communication skills (Constant)	1.46	0.20		7.27	0.00	46.75	0.19++ ***	0.44 ***
Managing own emotions	0.03	0.01	0.20	4.30	0.00			
Managing others' emotions	0.02	0.01	0.18	4.03	0.00			
Utilisation of emotion	0.03	0.01	0.16	3.67	0.00			
Business acumen (Constant)	1.71	0.17		9.90	0.00	62.58	0.24++ ***	0.49 ***
Managing own emotions	0.03	0.01	0.24	5.73	0.00			
Utilisation of emotion	0.03	0.01	0.20	4.67	0.00			
Perception of emotion	0.01	0.003	0.18	4.32	0.00			

***$p \leq 0.001$ **$p \leq 0.01$ *$p \leq 0.05$ + $R^2 \leq 0.12$ (small practical effect size)) ++ $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$ (medium practical effect size)
+ ++$R^2 \geq 0.26$ (large practical effect size)

4.4.1.2 Interpretation of regression analyses (SAEI & AES)

Overall the results suggest that higher levels of trait emotional intelligence (especially managing one's own emotions) lead to greater confidence in displaying employability skills and behaviours. The results also indicate that higher levels of emotional intelligence and employability generally lead to higher levels of satisfaction with the support participants' believe they receive in their career preparation. In more precise terms, the results suggest that the participants who indicated a higher ability to perceive, to understand and assess their own and others' emotions correctly, and use their emotions to achieve their goals were also more likely to report greater confidence in their ability to set clear and measurable goals (goal-driven behaviour), present and communicate their personal unique attributes, and interface with ease with others (communication skills). Carmeli (2003) also reports that emotionally intelligent people can induce a positive affect in others, which results in a powerful social influence (charisma).

The participants' confidence in their ability to engage in continuous creative learning appears to be influenced by their ability to manage their own and others' emotions. Those participants who indicated a higher ability in managing and utilising their own emotions were more likely to report greater confidence in their ability to achieve their goals and succeed in the business world (business acumen). The ability to perceive or correctly assess or recognise one's own emotions appear to have influenced the participants' confidence in applying basic skills in seeking new information and learning new skills to achieve their goals. These findings support Salovey and Mayer's (1990) view that emotions help individuals to generate multiple future plans, improve their decision-making processes (because of a better understanding of one's emotional reaction), facilitate creative thinking and enhance persistence in challenging tasks.

These findings seem to corroborate those in a previous study (Brown & Stys, 2004) which indicated emotional intelligence to be predictive of career decision-making self-efficacy, and vocational exploration and commitment. Brown and Stys (2004) found that greater confidence in one's ability to successfully complete career-related tasks is associated with higher ability to perceive emotions, to use emotions to assist in thought, to understand emotions, and to regulate emotions in the self and others in order to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

4.4.2   Test for significant mean differences (SAEI & AES)

4.4.2.1 Comparison of grade groups on SAEI and AES

Table 4.14 indicates that participants from the three sample groups (Grade 9, Grade 12 and recently exited) differ significantly regarding the creative learning, goal-driven behaviour and basic skills variables.

 In terms of the AES, the three sample groups differ significantly regarding only the managing emotions variable.

Table 4.14
Comparing the mean scores of grade groups on SAEI: Analysis of variance

	F	*Sig.*
Business Acumen	0.90	0.409
Creative learning	5.35	0.000
Goal-driven behaviour	5.62	0.004
Communication skills	0.47	0.628
Basic Skills	3.56	0.029

Table 4.15
Comparing the mean scores of grade groups on AES: Analysis of variance

	F	*Sig.*
Emotional Intelligence	0.26	0.770
Perception of Emotion	.031	0.969
Managing own Emotions	3.423	0.033
Managing other Emotions	.156	0.856
Utilisation of Emotion	.855	0.426

A post hoc test indicates which of the three groups differ from one another. Tables 4.16 to 4.18 below contain the post-hoc results by demonstrating the mean scores obtained on each factor for each group and the subsets into which the mean scores fall. When the mean scores of groups fall into the same subset, there is no difference between the scores. Significant differences exist between groups where the means scores fall into different subsets.

Table 4.16

Post hoc Duncan results for differences between grade groups on creative learning

Grade	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Grade 12	206	4.1406	
Grade 9	190	4.1429	
Recently Exited	191		4.3289
Sig.		.953	1.000

Table 4.17

Post hoc Duncan results for differences between grade groups on goal-driven behaviour

Grade	N	Subset for alpha = 0.05	
		1	2
Grade 12	206	3.8534	
Grade 9	191	3.9285	3.9285
Recently Exited	190		4.0344
Sig.		.168	.052

Table 4.18

Post hoc Duncan results for differences between grade groups on Basic skills

		Subset for alpha = 0.05	
Grade	N	1	2
Recently Exited	191	2.5992	
Grade 12	206	2.6111	
Grade 9	190		2.7677
Sig.		.865	1.000

Table 4.19

Post hoc Duncan results for differences between grade groups on Managing your own emotions

		Subset for alpha = .05	
Grade	N	1	2
Grade 9	190	4.2028	
Grade 12	206		4.2973
Recently Exited	191		4.3142
Sig.		1.000	.709

4.4.2.2 Comparison of gender groups on SAEI and AES

To compare the scores of males and females, a T-test for independent means was performed. The results are presented in the Table 4.20 and Table 4.21.

Table 4.20

Comparing the mean scores of gender groups on SAEI: T-test for independent means

	t	Sig.
Business acumen	1.14	0.256
Creative learning	-1.38	0.168
Goal driven behaviour	-1.20	0.231
Communication skills	0.34	0.734
Basic Skills	2.80	0.005

The mean scores of males and females on Basic skills are presented in Table 4.21

Table 4.21

Descriptive information for gender on basic skills

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Basic Skills	Male	251	2.7506	.65515	.04135
	Female	336	2.5894	.71457	.03898

Table 4.21 indicates that the males scored significantly higher than their female counterparts.

Table 4.22

Comparing the mean scores of gender groups on AES: T-test for independent means

	F	Sig.
Emotional Intelligence	-0.33	0.743
Perception of Emotion	.002	0.998
Managing own Emotions	921	0.357
Managing other Emotions	-1.745	0.082
Utilisation of Emotion	.227	0.820

Table 4.22 indicates that there is no significant difference between males and females in terms of the AES variables (p-values all larger than 0.05).

4.4.2.3 Interpretation of differences between groups

Grade 9 learners, (the youngest students) scored the highest on Basic skills (mean score of 2.77). Grade 12 and Recently exited learners score similarly on Basic Skills (mean scores of 2.59 and 2.61). It seems that younger learners are more technologically advanced compared to their older counterparts. In terms of Goal-driven behaviour and Creative learning, recently exited learners scored the highest (mean scores of 4.03 and 4.32). This suggests that the older group perceive themselves as being more goal-driven and having a stronger focus on lifelong learning. The Grade 9 students obtained a significantly lower score for being able to manage their own emotions (m-4.2 vs m=4.49 and m=4.31). This suggests that younger learners are less developed with regards to managing their own emotions. Grade 12 and Recently Exited students don't indicate any significant difference from each other.

There appears to only be a significant difference between males and females in terms of Basic skills ($p \leq 0.01$). Findings indicate that males scored significantly higher than their female counterparts. This indicates that males are more technologically orientated than females. With regards to the AES, there is no significant difference between males and females in terms of the AES variables (p-values all larger than 0.05). This is similar to Singh's (2004) findings which also indicated that males and females did not differ on emotional intelligence. No significant differences were found between the subscales of emotional intelligence.

4.5   INTEGRATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

The empirical objective of the study was to firstly investigate the empirical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence as manifested within a sample of South African respondents, within the school-to-work transition phase of their careers.

The second objective was to determine whether individuals from different grades and gender groups differ significantly with regard to their level of employability and emotional intelligence, as manifested in a sample of South African respondents within the school-to-work transition phase of their careers.

Overall the sample was predominantly represented by black and female youths in the early adulthood life stage, and more specifically the school-to-work transition phase of their careers

(mean age 17). Two biographical characteristics of the sample were taken into consideration in the interpretation of the findings.

4.5.1   Relationship between employability and emotional intelligence

Figure 4.2 provides an overview of the key relationships observed between the SAEI employability variables and the AES emotional intelligence variables.
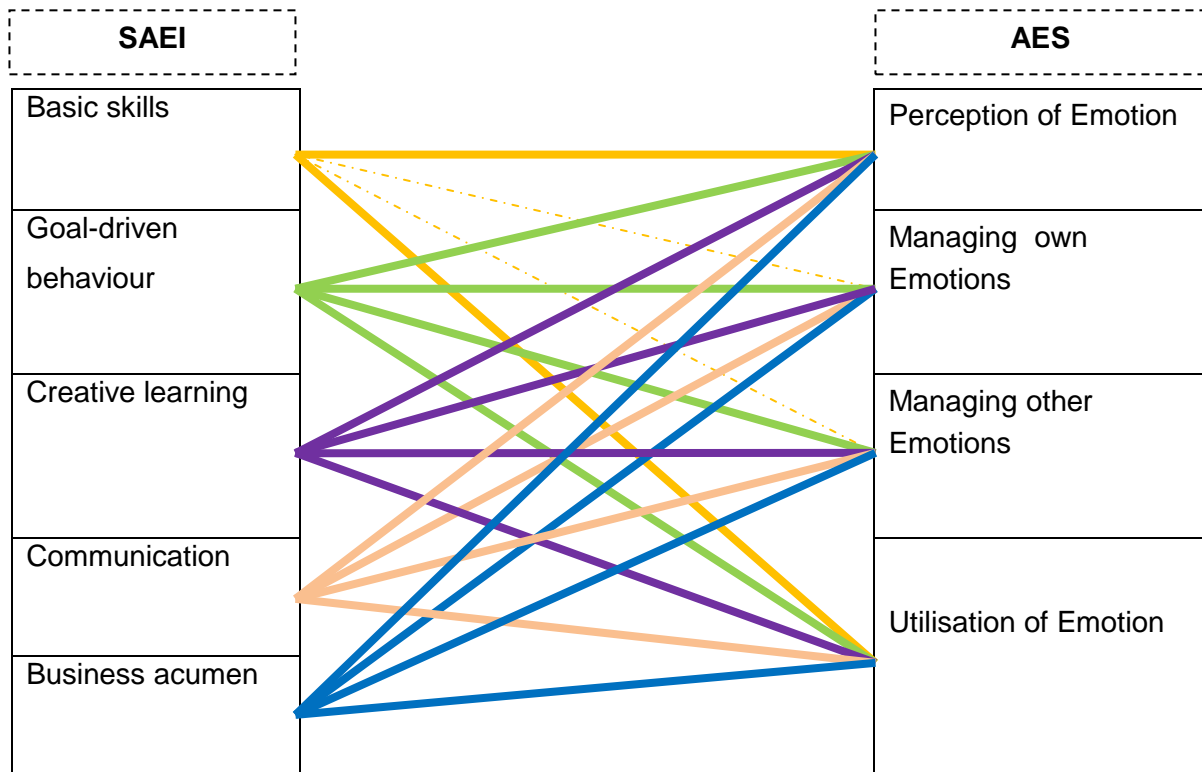
***Figure 4.2*. Key significant associations between employability and emotional intelligence**

Large effect (———)	➢ Positive correlation exists between all the subscales except for basic skills and managing own emotions and managing emotions of others
Small effect (·—·—·—·)	➢ Positive correlation exists between basic skills and managing own emotions and managing emotions of others

Overall the results suggest that higher levels of trait emotional intelligence (especially managing one's own emotions) lead to greater confidence in displaying employability skills and behaviours.

The findings appear to corroborate those from research by Pool and Sewell (2007), where in order for individuals to achieve their true employability potential, they will need to have well developed emotional intelligence.

4.5.2 Significant differences between grade and gender groups

The results indicate that the different grade groups did not differ significantly regarding their employability. The Grade 9 group did however differ significantly regarding the emotional intelligence subscale of "managing their own emotions", where they scored the lowest. The males and female participants only differed significantly regarding basic skills, where males scored significantly higher than females.

4.6   DECISIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Based on the results, the following decisions are made regarding the research hypotheses:

Table 4.23

Summary of decisions on research hypotheses (green highlight means accepted)

HYPOTHESES	DECISION
HO1: There are no significant relationships between the employability and emotional intelligence variables.	Rejected
H1: There are significant relationships between the employability and emotional intelligence variables.	Accepted
HO2: There are no significant differences between the grade and gender groups regarding their employability and emotional intelligence.	Partially accepted
H2: There are significant differences between the grade and gender groups regarding their employability and emotional intelligence.	Partially rejected

In summary, table 4.23 above illustrates the null hypothesis (HO1) is rejected in terms of the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence. In terms of the differences between the grade and gender groups, the null hypothesis (H02) is partially accepted.

4.7   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics that are of relevance to this study were reported and interpreted to enable the researcher to integrate the findings of the literature research with the empirical research findings. The hypotheses were accepted or rejected according to the results of the empirical study.

Chapter 5 will address the final step of the empirical study, namely the formulation of conclusions, limitations and recommendations regarding the research project.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter covers the conclusions of the study, discusses its limitations and makes recommendations for career counselling and guidance practices, including further research.

5.1   CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions were drawn regarding the literature review and the empirical investigation.

5.1.1   Conclusions regarding the literature review

The general aim of this study was to explore the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence and to determine whether individuals from different grade and gender groups differ significantly regarding these variables. The general aim was achieved by addressing and achieving the specific aims of the research.

Conclusions were drawn about each of the specific objectives regarding the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence.

5.1.1.1 The first objective: Conceptualising employability and emotional intelligence and explaining their relationship theoretically

The first objective, namely to conceptualise employability and emotional intelligence and theoretically explain their relationship, was achieved in chapter 2. Regarding the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence, the following conclusions were made.

An integration of findings suggests that communication, basic skills, teamwork skills, problem solving skills, business acumen, enterprise skills, self management skills, organising and planning, and life-long learning skills are some of the main skills which have been discovered to be in greatest demand in the information age. From these findings an operational definition of employability was developed from Beukes' (2009) model of self-regulatory employability. Employability has been defined as the application and continuous development of a range of

supportive competencies and attributes through a series of reiterative developmental stages that enhance the individual's opportunities for accessing and sustaining employment opportunities. These developmental stages being: (1) audit and alignment (2) goal clarity (3) formal and informal learning (4) self presentation and (5) competency trade-off are supported by: (1) basic skills (2) goal-driven behaviour (3) creative learning (4) communication and (5) business acumen respectively. This provided a developmental model whereby an individual's can self-manage their employability.

Emotional intelligence may be viewed as the set of abilities that account for how people's emotional perceptions and understanding vary in their accuracy. This includes the ability to perceive and express emotions, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others (Mayer et al., 2004). The concept of emotional intelligence implies that people are both rational and emotional beings (Thingujam, 2004). Adaptation and coping abilities in a social context depend on the integrative functioning of rational (cognitive) and emotional (affective) capacities (Fineman, 2000). It is through reason (cognitive reasoning ability) that individuals identify what emotions they are experiencing, discover the beliefs and values that gave rise to it, and decide what action, if any, to take on the face of it (Locke, 2005). Therefore, emotional and cognitive abilities both contribute to the employability of an individual. Employability is an outcome of the development of various cognitive and emotional thought processes (Beukes, 2009).

Based on the literature study, it was found that a theoretical relationship existed between different biographical variables (gender and ethnic groups) and emploaybility and emotional intelligence. Gender was shown to have a significant effect on employability, where males were more likely to gain employment than females after graduation. However, no differences between self-perceived employability could be found. Research on gender difference in emotional intelligence have shown that in terms of total EI, men and women do not seem to differ. However, there is evidence that women and men may differ on specific competencies (Singh, 2004). Findings indicate that while men and women did not differ on the total EI, women did score significantly higher than men on empathy, interpersonal relationships, and social responsibility, while men scored higher than women on self-actualisation, assertiveness, stress tolerance, impulse control, and adaptability (Singh, 2004).

In a study conducted by Rothwell, Jewell and Hardie (2009) no significant differences in self perceived employability scores were attributable to ethnicity. While findings suggest that an

individual's employability does not differ among ethnic groups (ceteris paribus), external macro-economic policy issues such as black economic empowerment (BEE) certainly influences ethnic demand in industry and thus stimulates ethic differences in employability (Beukes, 2009). Van Rooy et al. (2005) suggest a significant relationship exists between ethnicity and emotional intelligence. It was found that minority groups (non-whites) scored higher on general emotional intelligence scores. Van Rooy et al. (2005) thus conclude by stating that because emotional intelligence has been found to be predictive of real-life criteria, and is increasingly being used in the workplace as a predictor, it is imperative that its potential for adverse impact is assessed.

5.1.1.2 The second objective: Conceptualising the implications of the theoretical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence for career guidance and counselling.

The second objective, namely to conceptualise the implications of employability and emotional intelligence variables for career guidance and counselling was achieved in chapter 2. The literature review elaborated on how career guidance and counselling could be influenced by the relationship that existed between employability and emotional intelligence.

Feldman (2002) explains that an individual's background and social demographic status (for example, family characteristics, socioeconomic status, gender, ethnicity), personal characteristics (for example, self esteem, self-awareness, decision making ability), experiences (for example, work, academic experiences and hobbies), and initial skill levels (for example, cognitive abilities, technical skills, interpersonal skills), are important factors in determining one's occupational interests and competencies. The ability to perceive and express emotions, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others (Mayer et al., 2004), cannot be separated from the above factors which determine ones occupational interests and competencies. Thus, employability should have a significant relationship with emotional intelligence.

Further to this, the shift towards the information age has brought about the need for employability skills. There is international consensus that the main current employability skills are, communication, basic skills, teamwork skills, problem solving skills, business acumen, enterprise skills, self management skills, organising and planning, and life-long learning skills. Developing a self-regulatory model of employability further enables the individual to accept responsibility and manage their own careers. The career guidance counsellor therefore

becomes a coach and a facilitator in assisting individuals in taking responsibility of their own careers. Further to this, if emotional intelligence has a significant and positive relationship with employability, it then stands to reason that career guidance specialists can develop emotional intelligence interventions that will assist in developing an individual's employability.

5.1.2 Conclusions regarding the empirical study

The study was designed to perform three major tasks, namely:

(1) To investigate the relationship dynamics between employability and emotional intelligence as manifested in a sample of participants within the school-to-work transition phase in South Africa.

(2) To determine whether grade and gender groups differ regarding their employability and emotional intelligence.

(3) To formulate recommendations for the discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, particularly with regard to career guidance and counselling.

Based on the findings, hypothesis H01 was rejected in terms of the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence. Findings for each of the research objectives and the hypotheses that deserve discussion will be presented as empirical study conclusions:

5.1.2.1 The first objective: Investigate the relationship dynamics between employability and emotional intelligence as manifested in a sample of participants within the school-to-work transition phase in the South African work context.

The following two conclusions were reached in this regard:

a) *Conclusion 1: Participants' employability was significantly and positively related to their emotional intelligence.*

Participants who rate higher on goal-driven behaviour, creative learning, communication and business acumen also rated higher on perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others emotions and utilisation of emotions. The findings indicate that emotional intelligence explains individuals' employability skills and behaviour. This is consistent with

findings from Mayer and Caruso (2002), where individuals who can think about emotions accurately and clearly have been found to anticipate, cope with, and effectively manage change, which is crucial in the current world of work which is characterised by change. Therefore, it could be concluded that in order for individuals within the school-to-work transition to achieve their true employability potential, they will need to have well developed emotional intelligence.

b) Conclusion 2: Participants basic skills were not significantly related to managing own emotions and managing emotions of others.

Basic skills do not appear to be related to managing own emotions and managing emotions of others. This could be due to basic skills being related to access to technology and not directly related with emotional development.

5.1.2.2 The second objective: Determine whether grade and gender groups differ regarding their employability and emotional intelligence as manifested in the sample.

The following conclusion was reached in this regard:

Participants from various grade and gender groups do not tend to differ significantly in terms of their employability and emotional intelligence.

There were no significant differences between individual's grades and their employability and emotional intelligence, apart from the Grade 9 group who scored significantly lower on the emotional intelligence subscale of "managing their own emotions. However, the reason the grade 9 group scored significantly lower on the subscale of "managing their emotions" could either be due to their current literacy levels and the wording in those items or it could be attributed to their age and that they still need to develop that skill. Due to the sample being predominantly black, it was not possible to determine any significant differences between ethnicity. Participants did not differ significantly regarding their gender, which is similar to findings by Singh (2004), where men and women did not differ on the total EI. With regards to employability, there were no significant differences between gender and self perceived employability, apart for the male participants being more adept in the utilisation of technology.

5.1.3 Conclusions regarding the central hypothesis

The central hypothesis of this study was formulated to conclude that a relationship exists between employability and emotional intelligence. Furthermore, people from different grade and gender groups differ significantly in terms of their employability and emotional intelligence. The empirical study provided statistically significant evidence to support the central hypothesis regarding the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence, and as such it is therefore accepted.

5.1.4 Conclusions about contributions to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and career guidance and counselling in specific

This research is unique in the sense that it provided insight into the self-regulatory employability model of Beukes (2009) that has been specifically designed for the South African context. The empirical research contributed unique and new knowledge regarding the relationship between self-regulatory employability (as measured by the SAEI) and trait emotional intelligence (as measured by the AES). In this regard the research can be regarded as being original.

The results suggest that self-regulatory employability, as proposed by Beukes (2009), can be significantly enhanced by developing individuals' emotional intelligence. It appears that the social and affective traits associated with high emotional intelligence may be relevant in career counselling and guidance interventions aimed at enhancing individuals' employability. It appears that the development of individuals' emotional intelligence may be regarded as a pre-requisite for encouraging and enabling self-regulatory employability competencies.

Beukes's (2009) model of self-regulatory employability further appears to be of value to career guidance and counselling as it provides an integrated framework to assist individuals in understanding their interests and competencies and how they relate to labour demands. The self-regulatory model also provides a process guide for industrial psychologists who specialise in career guidance and counselling to assist their clients in developing an employability management plan, where all aspects in the employability process model could be addressed.

The implications of emotional intelligence for career guidance and counselling are based on the fundamental assumption that emotional intelligence can be learnt. Career guidance and

counselling specialists should incorporate strategies which facilitate the development of emotional intelligence in order to assist individuals in becoming more employable.

5.2   LIMITATIONS

The limitations for the literature study and empirical investigation are outlined below.

5.2.1   Limitations of literature review

With regards to the literature review, the following limitations were encountered:

The exploratory research with respect to employability and emotional intelligence within the South African context was limited based on the following:

Only two variables (employability and emotional intelligence) were used in the study and therefore it cannot give a holistic indication of factors or variables that may potentially impact the employability potential of individuals.

The study was limited to only two paradigms, namely career psychology and the social-cognitive perspective which focused on the sub-fields of the discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

5.2.2   Limitations of the empirical study

The findings of this study, albeit informative, cannot be generalised to include the wider population because of the small sample and the low reliabilities between the subscales of employability and emotional intelligence.

An ethnic limitation could be due to the under representation of White, Indian/Asian and Coloured respondents. It may also be regarded as a limitation that the AES was standardised according to data that was collected in western society.

For the recently exited group, a volunteer organisation was selected. This could have skewed results as these individuals had been selected by the organisation through specific criteria, thus not allowing for a random sample to be taken from the general population in that group. When

assessing the recently exited group there were some disruptions by participants who had already finished due to the group size.

5.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, conclusions and limitations of this study, recommendations for Industrial and Organisational Psychology and further research in the field are outlined below:

5.3.1   Recommendations regarding career guidance and counselling

The main aim was to identify the implications of the theoretical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence. Based on the research findings and relationships found, the following career guidance strategies can be recommended:

(a) It is recommended that Beukes's (2009) self-regulatory model of employability be utilised as a framework for career development, as it provides a holistic approach and continuing process for career management. The other benefit of utilising this model is that it is based on the employability skills, which enables individuals to simultaneously develop those skills while developing their careers.

(b) Organisations can also benefit from the self-regulatory employability model (Beukes, 2009) when conducting career self-management training interventions in order to support employees in developing self-management behaviours, skills and attitudes. Findings from Raabe, Frese and Beehr (2007) indicate that employees who actively engage in their own career building experience both direct and indirect career satisfaction.

(c) Beukes's (2009) self-regulatory model for employability can also be utilised in assisting youths within the school-to-work transition phase of their careers. Individuals within the school-to-work transition phase need to have a realistic understanding of their career identity and have a reasonably well developed career maturity. The benefit of the self-regulatory employability model is that one of its core focuses is on developing career identity and maturity.

(d) Empirical research has indicated that youths' vocational goals are strong predictors of occupational attainment in adulthood (Schoon & Parsons, 2002). Career self-management can enhance perceptions of control over the career, leading to career satisfaction (King, 2004). The empirical findings indicate a significant relationship exists between employability and emotional intelligence. This suggests that employability interventions should include specific emotional intelligence interventions to develop trait EI.

(e) Organisations and career counsellors can help develop EI by establishing career planning workshops in which career self-management and the emotional intelligence traits required are analysed and developed. Further to this, targeted workshops could be developed based on the skills and traits which generally score low for the group. These relationships are indicated below.
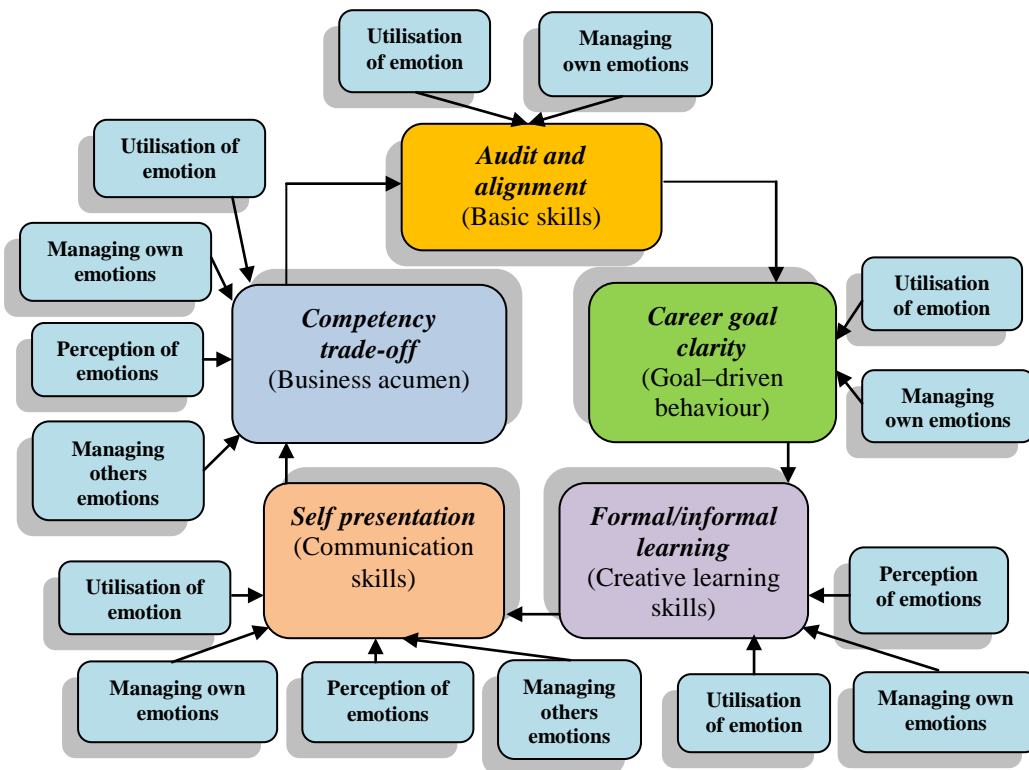

Figure 5.1. Theoretical relationship between Beukes's (2009) self-regulatory employability model and trait emotional intelligence

5.3.2 Recommendations for further research

The recommendations made for future research are intended for populations working within career guidance and counselling. Based on the conclusions and limitations, recommendations for further research in the field of industrial and organisational psychology are outlined below.

To enhance external validity, future research efforts should focus on obtaining a more ethnically representative sample. The future sample should ensure a balanced spread of representation in order to assess ethnic differences between the SAEI and the AES. There is a need for more research on employability within the context of South Africa. Further studies would be helpful for career counselling purposes, as it would assist career counsellors with developing career counselling and guidance frameworks and interventions that will help individuals in developing their employability. The SAEI needs to be further refined in terms of its reliability and validity by conducting confirmatory factor analyses based on different populations.

5.4 INTEGRATION OF RESEARCH

This research explored the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence. Based on the results, it can be suggested that these variables play a critical role in the self-management of an individual's career and are thus relevant for career guidance and counselling. Much of the responsibility for managing careers is shifting from employers to adaptive and proactive employees (King, 2004). Researchers have argued that, in an increasingly chaotic organisational environment, workers will experience a great range and frequency of transitions during their working lives, and will need to take responsibility for charting and navigating their careers (Raabe et al., 2007). This requires a high degree of personal initiative (King, 2004), and career meta-competencies such as employability and emotional intelligence skills and traits discussed in this research.

The literature review indicated that the variables of employability and emotional intelligence are significantly related. The contemporary world of work requires that individuals need to manage and develop their own employability and emotional intelligence. By understanding the process of career self-management and knowing how to integrate employability skills and emotional intelligence into the career development process, this will assist the individual in managing their career development more proactively.

The empirical study explored the statistical relationship between employability and emotional intelligence. Statistically significant evidence was revealed which supports the central hypothesis that a relationship does exist between employability and emotional intelligence.

In conclusion, findings from this study provided some preliminary insights regarding the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence which may prove useful to industrial psychologists and career counsellors. Recommendations have been made for further research, and this study should be seen as a step towards making a positive contribution to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in a South African context.

5.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the conclusions with regard to the study, in terms of both the theoretical and empirical objectives. Possible limitations of the study were discussed with reference to both the theoretical and the empirical study of the study. The recommendations for future research to explore the relationship between employability and emotional intelligence were discussed. Finally, an integration of the research was presented, emphasising the extent to which the study's results provided support for the relationship which exists between the variables of employability and emotional intelligence. Herewith the study is concluded.

REFERENCES

Abele, A. E., & Spurk, D. (2009). The longitudinal impact of self-efficacy and career goals on objective and subjective career success. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 74*, 53–62.

Afrassa, T. M. (2001). *Student level factors that influence the employability of TAFE graduates over time: a partial least-squares analysis*. Adelaide: Office of Vocational Education and Training.

Aldridge, A., & Levine, K. (2001). *Surveying the social world: Principles and practice in survey research*. Buckingham, Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Altman, M. (2007). *Youth labour market challenges in South Africa.* Retrieved on 4 August 2009 from:
http://www.hsrc.ac.za/research/output/outputDocuments/5076_Altman_Youthlabourmarketc hallenges.pdf

Anastasi, A. (1976). *Psychological testing*. New York: McMillan.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Daus, C. S. (2005). Rumors of the death of emotional intelligence in organizational behavior are vastly exaggerated. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 441-452.

Austin, E. J., Parker, J. D. A., Petrides, K. V., & Saklofske, D. H. (2008). Emotional intelligence. In: G. J. Boyle, G. Matthews., & D. H. Saklofske. (Eds.), *Sage handbook of personality theory and assessment*, (pp. 576-596). London: Sage.

Babbie, E. (2005). *The basics of social research*. 3rd ed. Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, M. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Baer, R.B., Flexer, R.W., Luft, P., & Simmons, T.J. (2008). *Transition planning for secondary students with disabilities.* New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.

Bakar, B., & Hanafi, I. (2007*).* Assessing employability skills of technical-vocational students in Malaysia. *Journal of Social Sciences, 3*(4), 202-207.

Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 1-26.

Barnard, H.A. (2010). *Psychological assessment: Predictors of human behaviour.* In M. Coetzee & D. Schreuder (eds.), Personnel Psychology: An applied perspective (pp. 134-167). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Bar-On, R. (2006c). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI). *Psicothema, 18*, 13-5.

Bartholomew, K., Antonia, J. Z., & Marcia, J. E. (2000). Coded semi-structured interviews in psychological research. In: H. T. Resi., & C. M. Judd. (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in social and personality psychology*, (pp. 286-312). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Baruch, Y. (2004). Transforming careers: from linear to multidirectional career paths: Organizational and individual perspectives. *Career Development International, 9*(1), 58-73.

Begnall, N. (2005). *Youth transition in a globalised market place.* New York: Nova science publishers.

Bergh, Z. C., & Theron, A. (2009). *Psychology in the work context.* 3rd ed. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Beukes, C. J. (2010, May). *Self-regulatory employability.* Paper presented at the South African Career Guidance Conference, Pretoria, St George Hotel.

Beukes, C. J. (2009). *The relationship between employability and emotional intelligence.* Unpublished research report, Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa, Pretoria.

Blaikie, N. W. H. (2003). *Analyzing quantitative data*. London: Sage.

Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 29*(9), 1147-1158.

Brandtstadter. J. (2009). Goal pursuit and goal adjustment: Self-regulation and intentional self-development in changing developmental contexts. *Advances in Life Course Research, 14*, 52–62.

Breakwell, G.L., Hammond, S., & Fife-Shaw, C. (Eds) (1995) *Research methods in psychology*. London: Sage.

Brink, H. (2005). *Fundamentals of research methodology for health care professionals.* 2nd ed. Cape Town: Juta & Co.

Brolin, D. E., & Loyd, R. J. (2004). *Career development and transition services: A functional life skills approach.* New Jersey: Pearson.

Brown, S. L., Stys, Y. (2004). A review of the emotional intelligence literature and implications for corrections. *Research Branch Correctional Service of Canada*, 1-76.

Camic, P. M., Rhodes, J. E., & Yardley, L. (2003). *Qualitative research in psychology*. Washington: APA.

Carmeli, A. (2003). The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes, behaviour and outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *18*(8), 788-813.

Cascio, W. F. (2003). Changes in workers, work and organisations. In: W. C. Bornman., Ilgen, D. R., & Klimoski, R. J. (Eds.). *Handbook of psychology volume twelve: Industrial and organisational psychology*, (pp. 401-422). Hoboken (NJ): John Wiley & Sons.

Cascio, W. F., & Aguinis, H. (2005). *Applied Psychology in Human Resources Management.* 6th ed. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Cervone, D., Shadel, W., & Jencius, S. (2001). Social-cognitive theory of personality assessment. *Personality and Social Psychology, 5*(1), 33-51.

Cervone, D., & Shoda, Y. (1999). Beyond traits in the study of personality coherence. *Current Directions on Psychological Science, 8*(1), 27-31.

Chen, C. P. (2004). A new perspective for career psychology. *Australian Journal of Career Development, 13*(2), 17-28.

Child, D. (1990). *The essentials of factor analysis.* 2nd ed. London: Cassell Educational.

Chope, R., & Johnson, R. A. (2008). Career identity in a turbulent world. *Perspectives in Education, 26*(3), 45-55.

Ciarrochi, J., Chan, A.Y.C., & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual Differences, 28,* 539-561.

Ciarrochi, J., Deane, F. P., & Anderson, S. (2002). Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between stress and mental health. *Personality and Individual Differences, 32,* 197-209.

Cilliers, F. V. N. (2000). Team building from a psychodynamic perspective. *Journal of Industrial Psychology, 26*(1), 18-23.

Cinamon, R. G., & Hason, I. (2009). Facing the future: Barriers and resources in work and family plans of at-risk Israeli youth. *Youth and Society, 40*(4), 502-525.

Clarke, M. (2008). Understanding and managing employability in changing career contexts. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 32*(4), 258-284.

Clark, K. K., Brown, V. B., & Sitzia, J. (2003). Good practice in the conduct and reporting of survey research. *International Journal of Quality in Health Care, 15*(3), 261-266.

Clarke, M., & Patrickson, M. (2008). The new covenant of employability. *Employee relations, 30*(2), 121-141.

Coetzee, M. (2008). Psychological career resources of working adults: a South African survey. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 34*(2), 10-20.

Coetzee, M., Bergh, Z. C. & Schreuder, D. (2010). *Subjective work experiences, career orientations, psychological career resources and factors of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction.* Unpublished research report, Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa.

Coetzee, M., Martins, N., Basson, J., & Muller, H. (2006). The relationship between personality preferences, self-esteem and emotional competence. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 32*(2), 64-73.

Coetzee, M., & Roythorne-Jacobs, H. (2007). *Career counselling and guidance in the workplace: A manual for practitioners.* Cape Town: Juta & Co.

Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, D. (2009), Psychological career resources as predictors of working adults' career anchors: an exploratory study, *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology, 35*(1), 1-11.

Cohen, J (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin, 112,* 155–159.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences.* Orlando, CA: Academic Press.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Alken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/ correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences.* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Collin, A. (1998). New challenges in the study of career. *Personnel Review, 27*(5), 412-425.

Conway, J. M., & Huffcut, A. I. (2003). A review and evaluation of exploratory factor analysis practices in organisational research. *Organisational Research Methods, 6*(2),147-168.

Cord, B., & Clements, M. D. (2010). Early organisational involvement (EOI): Creating successful transitions from higher education to the work place. *Development and Learning in Organisations, 24*(3), 5-7.

Herr, E. L., Cramer, S. H. & Niles, S. G. (2004). *Career guidance and counselling through the lifespan: Systematic approaches*. (6th edition). London: Prentice-Hall.

Daniel, L. J., Sullivan, K., & Cheney, G. (2005) 'Marketisation and the recasting of the professional self: The rhetoric and ethics of personal branding. *Management Communication Quarterly, 18*(3), 307–43.

De Armond, S., Tye, M., Chen, P. Y., Krauss, A., Rogers, D. A., & Sintek, E. (2006). Age and gender stereotypes: New challenges in a changing workplace and workforce, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*(9), 2184-2214.

Demirel, M. (2009). Lifelong learning and schools in the twenty-first century. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 1*, 1709-1716.

Department of Employment, Education and Training. (2006). *School-to-work transition strategic plan: 2007-2009.* Northern territory: Employment and training division.

De Vellis, R. F. (1991). *Scale development: Theory and practice*. London, UK: Sage Publications.

Dickens, W. T. (2008).Cognitive ability. In: Durlauf, S. N., & Blume, L. E. (2nd ed.). *The new palgrave dictionary of economics.* Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Douglas, T. H. (1996). Protean careers of the 21st century. *The Academy of Management Executive, 10*(4), 8-15.

Dreis, N., Pepermans, R., Hofmans, J., & Rypens, L. (2009). Development and validation of an objective intra-organisational career success measure for managers. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 30*, 543-560.

Duberley, J., Mallon, M., & Cohen, L. (2006). Exploring career transitions: accounting for structure and agency. *Personnel Review, 35*(3), 281-297.

Ebberwein, C. A., Krieshok, T. S., Ulven, J. C., & Prosser, E. C. (2004). Voices in transition: Lessons on career adaptability. *The Career Development Quarterly, 52*, 292-312.

Editorial. (2009). Goal setting in rehabilitation: an overview of what, why and how. *Clinical Rehabilitation, 23*, 291-295.

Erikson, E. H. (1980). *Identity and the life cycle.* New York: Norton & Co.

Erikson, E.H. (1959). *Psychological issues: identity and the life cycle.* New York: International Universities Press, Inc.

Estienne, M. (1997). An organisational culture compatible with employability. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 29*(6), 194-199.

Fariselli, L., Ghini, M., & Freedman, J. (2008). *Age and emotional intelligence.* White Paper Retrieved on 22 July 2009 from:
http://www.6seconds.org/sei/media/WP_EQ_and_Age.pdf

Feldman, D. C. (2002). *Work careers: a developmental perspective.* San Francisco: Wiley and sons.

Feldman, D. C. (2003). Antecedents and consequences of early career indecision among young adults. *Human Resource Management Review, 13*, 499-531.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS.* 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks (Ca): Sage Publications.

Fineman, S. (2000). Enforcing the environment: regulatory realities. *Business Strategy and the Environment, 9*(1), 62-72.

Fiske, S. T. (2004). *Theories of social psychology: Science and practice.* International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences, 14413-14421.

Flexer, R. W., Baer, R. M., Luft, P., & Simmons, T. J. (2008). *Transition planning for secondary students with disabilities.* New Jersey: Pearson.

Fouché, C.B. & Delport, C.S. (2005). Introduction to the research process. In A.S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C.B. Fouché & C. Delport (Eds.), *Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and human service professionals* (2nd ed., pp. 77-92). Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Foxcroft, C., & Roodt, G. (2001*). An introduction to psychological assessment: in the South African context.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Fugate, M. (2006). Employability in the new millennium. In Greenhaus, J. H., & Callanan, G. A. (Eds.), Encyclopaedia of Career Development. SAGE. Retrieved on 13 March 2009 from:
http://mfugate.cox.smu.edu/Employability%20in%20the%20New%20Millennium--EncyclopediaCareerDevelopment--PostedWeb.pdf

Fugate, M., & Kinicki, A. J. (2008). Dispositional approach to employability: Development of a measure and test of implications for employee reactions to organisational change. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology, 81*(3), 503-527.

Fugate, M., Kinicki, A. J., & Ashforth, B. E. (2004). Employability: A psycho-social construct, its dimensions, and applications. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *65*, 14-38.

Garrison, A. (2001). Restoring the human in humanistic psychology. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 41*(4), 91-104.

Gelman, A. *(2005).* Analysis of variance. In: Durlauf, S. N., & Blume, L. E. (2nd ed.).*The new palgrave dictionary of economics.,* (forthcoming).   Basingstoke (UK): Palgrave Macmillan. Retrieved on 14 August 2009 from:
http://www.stat.columbia.edu/~gelman/research/published/econanova3.pdf

Gibbons, M. M., & Thomas, D. A. (2009). Narrative theory: A career counselling approach for adolescents of divorce. Professional School Counselling, 12(3), 223-241.

Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence.* New York: Bantam.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & KcKee, A. (2001). Primal leadership: The hidden driver of great performance. *Harvard Business Review.*

Greenhaus, J. H. (2003). Career Dynamics. In: W. C. Bornman., D. R. Ilgen., & R. J. Klimoski. (Eds.). *Handbook of psychology volume twelve: Industrial and organisational psychology,* (pp. 519-535). Hoboken (USA): John Wiley & Sons.

Gregory, R.J. (2007). *Psychological testing: History, principles, and applications* (5th ed.*).* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Grzeda, M. M. (1999). Re-conceptualizing career change: a career development perspective. *Career Development International, 4(*6), 305-311.

Habing, B. (2003). Review of the book introduction to nonparametric item response theory. *Journal of the American Statistical Association,98* , 774-775.

Hahn, K. (2007). Students explore their grande passion. *Reclaiming Children and Youth, 16*(1), 7-8.

Hall, D. T. (1996). Protean careers of the 21st century. *The Academy of Management Executive, 10*(4), 8-16.

Hall, D.T., & Nougaim, K.E. (1968). An examination of Maslow's need hierarchy theory in an organizational setting. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 3*, 12-35.

Herr, E. L., Cramer, S. H. & Niles, S. G. (2004). *Career guidance and counselling through the lifespan: Systematic approaches.* (6th edition). London: Prentice-Hall.

Heslin, P. A. (2003). Self and other referent criteria of career success. *Journal of Career Assessment, 11*(3), 262-286.

Hillage, J., & Pollard, E. (1998). *Employability: developing a framework for policy analysis.* London: Department for Education and Employment.

Hines, A. (2004). The personal brand in futures. *Foresight, 6*(1), 60-61.

Hirschi, A. (2009). Career adaptability development in adolescence: Multiple predictors and effect on sense of power and life satisfaction. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 74,* 145-155.

Hodge, R., Schachter, L. (2006). *The mind of the customer*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ivey, A. E., Ivey, M. B., & Simek, M. L. (2007). *Counseling and Psychotherapy: A multicultural perspective.* 6th ed. London: Allyn & Bacon.

John, O. J., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In: L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research*, (pp102-138). New York: Guilford.

Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2000). *Educational Research: Quantitative and qualitative researches.* London: Allyn & Bacon.

Jones, R. A. (1996). *Research methods in the social and behavioural sciences.* Sunderland: Sinauer.

Kajs, L. T., & McCollum, D. L. (2007). A confirmatory factor analytic study of the goal orientation theory of motivation in educational leadership. *Proceedings of the Academy of Educational Leadership, 12*(2), 37-41. Reno: Allied Academies International Conference.

Kelly, K., Clark, B., Brown, V., & Sitzia, J. (2003). Good practice in the conduct and reporting of survey research. *International Journal for Quality Health Care, 15*(3), 261-266.

Kerlinger, F. N. (1986). *Foundations of behavioural research.* New York: Rinehart & Winston.

Kidd, J. M. (1998). Emotion: An absent presence in career theory. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 52*, 275-288.

Kidd, J. M., Jackson, C.,& Hirsh, W. (2003). The outcomes of effective career discussion at work. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 62,* 119-133.

King, Z. (2004). Career self-management: Its nature, causes and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 65*, 112-133.

Kraiger, K. (2004). Industrial and organisational psychology: Science and practice. *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioural Sciences*, 7367-7371.

Krieg, F. J., Brown, P., & Ballard, J. (1995). *Transition: school to work: Models for effective transition planning.* Bethesda: The national association of school psychologists.

Krumboltz, J. D. (1996). A learning theory of career counseling. In: M. L. Savickas & W. B. Walsh (Eds.). *Handbook of career counseling theory and practice,* (pp. 55-80). Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black.

Landy, F.J. & Conte, J.M. (2004). *Work in the 21st century: An introduction to Industrial and Organisational Psychology*. London: McGraw-Hill.

Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G. (1994). Toward a unifying social cognitive theory of career and academic interest, choice, and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 45*, 79-122.

Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G. (1999). A social cognitive view of school-to-work transition. *The Career Development Quarterly, 48*, 297-304.

Leung, L.S., & Bozionelos, N. (2004). Five-factor model traits and the prototypical image of the effective leader. *Employee Relations, 26*(1), 62-71.

Leung, S. A. (2008). The big five career theories. In: J. A. Athanasou., & Esbroeck, R. V. (Eds.). *International handbook of career guidance,* (pp. 115-132). USA: Springer media.

Linnenbrink, E. A., & Pintrich, P. R. (2000). *Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation.* USA: Academic press.

Locke, E. A. (2005). Why emotional intelligence is an invalid concept. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 425-431.

Malhotra, M.K., & Grover, V. (1998). An assessment of survey research in POM: from constructs to theory. *Journal of Operations Management*, *16*, 407-425.

Mancinelli, S., Massimiliano, M., Piva, N., & Ponti, G. (2010). Education, reputation or network: Evidence on migrant workers employability. *The Journal of Socio-Economics, 39*, 64 –71.

Mandell, B., & Pherwani, S. (2003). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style: A gender comparison. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 17*(3), 387-404.

Maree, J.G., & Beck. G. (2004). Using various approaches in career counselling for traditionally disadvantaged (and other) learners: some limitations of a new frontier. *South African Journal of Education, 24*(1), 80–87.

Maree, K., Ebersöhn, L., & Molepo, M. (2006). Administering narrative career counselling in a diverse setting: Trimming the sails to the wind. *South African Journal of Education, 26*(1), 49-60.

Marock (2008). Grappling with youth employability in South Africa. Retrieved on 27th August 2009 from:
http://www.hsrc.ac.za/research/output/outputDocuments/5258_Marock_Grapplingwithyouth.pdf

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (1989). *Designing qualitative research*. London: Sage.

Mayer, J. D., & Caruso, D. (2002). The effective leader: Understating and applying emotional intelligence. *Ivey Business Journal, 1*, 1-5.

Mayer, J.D., Caruso, D., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence, 27*, 267-298.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2008). Emotional intelligence: New ability or eclectic traits. *American Psychologist, 63*(6), 503-517.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2004). Emotional Intelligence: Theory, findings and implications. *Psychological Inquiry, 15*(3), 197-215.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D, R., & Salovey, P. (2002). Relation of an ability measure of emotional intelligence to personality. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 79*(2), 306–320.

Mayer, J. D., Ciarrochi, J., & Forgas, J. (2001). *Emotional intelligence in everyday life: A Scientific Inquiry*. (Eds). Philadelphia: Psychology Press/Taylor & Francis.

Mayer, J. D., DiPaolo, M., & Salovey, P. (1990). Perceiving affective content in ambiguous visual stimuli: A component of emotional intelligence. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 54*(3), 771-781.

Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., & Barsade, S. G. (2008), Human abilities: Emotional intelligence. *Annual Review of Psychology, 59*, 507-36.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1990). *Emotional intelligence.* New York: Baywood Publishing.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In: P. Salovey., & D. Sluyter. (Eds.). *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators*, (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.

McArdle, S., Waters, L., Briscoe, J. P., & Hall, D. T. (2007). Employability during unemployment: Adaptability, career identity and human social capital. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 71*, 247–264.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1999). A five-factor theory of personality.   In: Pervin, L. A., & John, O. P. (Eds.). *Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research*, (pp139-153). New York: Guilford.

McEnrue, M. P., & Groves, K. (2006). Choosing among tests of emotional intelligence: What is the evidence. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *17*(1), 9-42.

McQuaid, R. W. (2006). Job search success and employability in local labour markets. *The Annals of Regional Science, 40*(2), 407-21.

McQuaid, R. W., Green, A., & Danson, M. (2005). Introducing Employability. *Urban Studies, 42*(2), 191-195.

Meijers, F. (2002). Career learning in a changing world: The role of emotions. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, *24*, 149-167.

Messmer, M. (2006). Seven strategies for negotiating success. *Journal of Accountancy, 202*(2), 34-37.

Miller, D. C., & W. H., Form. (1951). *Industrial sociology.* New York: Harper and Row.

Mischel, W., & Ayduk, O. (2002). Self-regulation in a cognitive-affective personality system: Attentional control in the service of the self. *Self and Identity, 1*, 113-120.

Mischel, W., & Shoda, Y. (1995). A cognitive-affective system theory of personality: Reconceptualising situations, dispositions, dynamics, and invariance in personality structure. *Psychological Review, 102*(2), 246-268.

Mischel, W., Shoda, Y., & Denton, R., M. (2002). Situation-behaviour profiles as a locus of consistency in personality. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 11*(2), 50-54.

Morgan, G. (1980). Paradigms, metaphors and puzzle solving in organisational theory. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 25*(4), 605-622.

Mouton, J. & Marais, H.C. (1996). *Basic concepts in the methodology of the social sciences*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Muchinsky, P.M. (2006). *Psychology applied to work*. Belmont, USA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Myers, R. (2006). Interviewing techniques: Tips from the pros. *Journal of Accountancy, 202*(2), 53-56.

Nelis, D., Quoidbach, J., Mikolajczak, M, & Hansenne, M. (2009). Increasing emotional intelligence: How is it possible? *Personality and Individual Differences, 47*, 36–41.

Neuman, W.L. (1997). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (3rd ed.). Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon.

Neumark, D. (2007). *Improving school-to-work transitions.* New York: Russell Sage.

Nunnaly, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Owen, K., & Taljaard, J. J. (1996). *Handbook for the use of psychological and scholastic tests of the HSRC*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Pallant, J. (2005). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows (Version 12)*. 2nd ed. New York, USA: Open University Press.

Park, Y. (2009). An integrative empirical approach to the predictors of self-directed career management. *Career Development International, 14*(7), 636-654.

Passer, M., Smith, R., Holt, N., Bremmer, A., Sutherland, E. & Vliek, M. (2009). *Psychology: the science of mind and behaviour*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Pieterse , A. M. (2005). *The relationship between time perspective and career maturity for grade 11 and 12 learners.* Unpublished master's research report, University of the Free State, Free State.

Pintrich, P. R. (2000). The role of goal orientation in self-regulated learning. In: M. Boekaerts., P. R. Pintrich., & Zeidner, M. (Eds.). *Handbook of self-regulation*, (pp. 451-502). San Diego: Academic.

Pool, L. D., & Sewell, P. (2007). The key to employability: developing a practical model of graduate employability. *Education & Training, 49*(4), 277-289.

Poon, J. M. L. (2004). Career commitment and career success: moderating role of emotion perception. *Career Development International, 9*(4), 374-390.

Raabe, B., Frese, M., & Beehr, T. A. (2007). Action regulation theory and career self-management. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 70,* 297–311.

Rafael, M. J. E. (2007). Career developments and management in 21st century adults: Reading towards harmonisation of global and individual levels. *Journal of Research in Educational Psychology, 5*(1), 75-102.

Rampersad, H. K. (2008). A new blueprint for powerful and authentic personal branding. *Performance Improvement, 47*(6), 34-37. doi: 10.1002/pfi.20007

Ramsay, J. O. (2004). *Psychometrics.* International Encyclopaedia of the Social & Behavioural Sciences, p. 12416-12422.

Ramsay, L. J., Taylor, N., De Bruin., & Meiring D. (2006). *The Big Five Personality Factors at Work: A South African Validation Study.* Manuscript submitted for publication.

Reber, A. S., & Reber, E. (2001). *The Penguin dictionary of Psychology.* 3rd ed. London: Penguin books.

Rietveld, T., & Van Hout, R. (1993). *Statistical techniques for the study of language and language behaviour.* New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Riggio, R.E. (2009). *Introduction to Industrial/Organisational Psychology.* London: Pearson.

Rigopoulou, I., & Kehagias, J. (2008). Personal development planning under the scope of self-brand orientation. *International Journal of Educational Management, 22*(4), 300-313.

Roach, D. W., Troboy, K. L., & Cochran, L. F. (2006). The effects of humour and goal setting on individual brainstorming performance. *Journal of American Academy of Business, 10*(1), 131-137.

Rosenthal, N. H., & Pilot, M. (1988). Information needs for initial and ongoing work transition. *Journal of Career Development, 15(1), 20-30.*

Rosnow, R. L., & Rosenthal, R. (1996). Computing contrasts, effect sizes, and counternulls on other people's published data: General procedures for research consumers. *Psychological Methods, 1*, 331 -340.

Rothwell, A., Jewell, S., & Hardie, M. (2009). Self-perceived employability: Investigating the responses of post-graduate students, *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 75,* 152–161.

Ryan, P. (2001). The school-to-work transition: problems and indicators. In: A. Clermont., C. Pontecorvo., L. Resnick., T. Zittoun., & B. Burge. (Eds.). *Youth, Learning and Society.* Cambridge, UK: CUP.

Salkind, N. J. (2006). *Exploring research*. 6th ed. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson Education International.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2000). *Research methods for business students*. 2nd ed. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Education.

Savickas, M. L. (2008). *A history of the guidance profession*, In J.A., Athanasou., A. Esbroeck (Eds). *International handbook of career guidance*. Springer Media: USA.

Savickas, M. L. (1997). Career adaptability: An integrative construct for life-span, life-space theory. *Career Development Quarterly, 45*, 247-261.

Savickas, M. (2009). *Narrative career counselling: Life story approach*. Informal talk attended on 24th April 2009, University of Johannesburg.

Savickas, M. L. (2001). Envisioning the future of vocational psychology. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 59*, 167-170.

Savickas, M. L. (2001). The next decade in vocational psychology: mission and objectives. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 59*, 284-290.

Savikas, M. L., Nota, L., Rossier, J., Dauwalder, J. P., Duarte, M. E., Guichars, J., Soresi, S., Edbroeck, R. V., & Vianen, A. E. M. (2009). Life designing: A paradigm for career construction in the 21st century. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 75*(3), 239-250.

Schein, E.H. (1978). *Career dynamics: matching individual and organizational needs*. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.

Schoon, I., & Parsons, S. (2002). Teenage aspirations for future careers and occupational outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 60*, 262–288.

Schreuder, A. M. G., Theron, A. (1997). *Careers: An organisational perspective*. Cape Town: Juta & Co.

Schreuder, A. M. G. (2001). The development of industrial psychology at South African universities: A historical overview and future perspective. *Journal of Industrial Psychology, 27*(4), 2-7.

Schreuder, A.M.G., & Coetzee, M. (2006). *Careers: An organisational perspective.* Lansdowne: Juta & Co.

Schutte, N.S., & Malouff, J.M. (1999). *Measuring emotional intelligence and related constructs.* New York: Edwin Mellen Press.

Schutte, N.S., Malouff, J.M. & Bhullar, N. (2007). The Assessing Emotions Scale. In C. Stough, D. Saklofske & J. Parker (Eds.), *The assessment of emotional intelligence.* New York: Springer.

Schutte, N.S., Malouff, J.M., Hall, L.E., Haggerty, D.J., Cooper, J.T., Golden, C.J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 25*, 167-177.

Schweizer, K., & Koch, W. (2003). Perceptual processes and cognitive ability. *Intelligence, 31*, 211–235.

Singh, S. K. (2004). Role of emotional intelligence in organisational learning: An empirical study. *Singapore Management Review, 29*(2), 55-74.

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences.* California: Sage Publications.

Spill, R., & Bhaerman, R. (1988). A dialogue on employability skills: How can they be taught. *Journal of Career Development, 15*(1), 41-53.

Spill, R. (2002). *An introduction to the use of skill standards and certifications in WIA programs.* Washington, DC: National Skill Standards Board.

Stead, G. B. (2004). Culture and career psychology: A social constructionist perspective. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *64*, 389-406.

Stead, G. B., & Watson, M. B. (1999). *Career psychology in the South African context.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Stead, G. B., & Watson, M. B. (2002). Career psychology in South Africa: Moral perspectives on present and future directions. *South African Journal of Psychology, 32*(1), 26-31.

Stead, G. B., & Watson, M. B. (1998). Career research in South Africa: Challenges for the future. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, *52*, 289-299.

Stead, G.B., & Watson, M.B. (2001). Contextual transformation and the career development of black South African youth. In: C. R. Stones. (Eds.). *Socio-political and psychological perspectives on South Africa*, (pp. 173-196). Johannesburg: Nova.

Sternberg R, J. (2006). The rainbow project: Enhancing the SAT through assessments of analytical, practical, and creative skills. *Intelligence*, *34*, 321–350.

Stevens, P. (1990). *Career transitions: The Australian perspective.* Sydney: CWC.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques.* Newbury Park: Sage.

Struwig, F. W., & Stead, G. B. (2001). *Planning, designing and reporting research*. Cape Town: Pearson Education.

Strydom, H., & Venter, L. (2002). Sampling and sampling methods. In: A. S. de Vos. (2nd Ed.). *Research at Grass roots.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Super, D. E. (1957). *The psychology of careers: An introduction to vocational development.* New York: Harper & Row.

Sunil, K., & Rooprai K. Y. (2009). *Role of emotional intelligence in managing stress and anxiety at workplace, 16*(1), 1-11. Unpublished paper, ASBBS Annual Conference, Las Vegas, Retrieved on 13 June 2009 from:
http://asbbs.org/files/2009/PDF/R/Rooprai.pdf

Terre Blanche, M., & Durheim, K. (2002). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences.* Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Thingujam, N. S. (2004). Current trend and future perspective on emotional intelligence. *Psychological Studies, 49*, 155-166.

Thomas, D. A., & Gibbons, M. M. (2009). Narrative theory: A career counselling approach for adolescents of divorce. *Professional School Counselling, 12*(3), 223-231.

Thomsen, S. L. (2009). Explaining the employability gap of short-term and long term unemployed persons. *KYKLOS, 62*(3), 448-478.

Thorndike, E. L., 1920. Intelligence and its use. *Harper's Magazine, 140*, 227–235.

Tipton, H. F., & Krause, M. (2004). *Information security handbook.* Florida: Auerbach.

Tredoux, C. & Durrheim, K. (2002). *Numbers, Hypotheses and Conclusions: A Course in Statistics for the Social Sciences.* Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2002). *Handbook on career counselling: A practical manual for developing, implementing and assessing career counselling services in higher education settings.* Paris: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

Van der Heijden, B. (2002). Prerequisites to guarantee life-long employability. *Personnel Review, 31*(1), 44-61.

Van der Heijden, B. I. J. M., De Lange, A. H., Demerouti, E., & Van der Heijde, C. M. (2009). Age effects on the employability: Career success relationship, *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 74*, 156–164.

Van der Heijde, C.M., & Van der Heijden, B.I.J.M. (2006). A competence-based and multidimensional operationalization and measurement of employability. *Human Resource Management, 45*(3), 449-476.

Van Rooy, D. L., Alonso, A., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Group differences in emotional intelligence scores: theoretical and practical implications, *Personality and Individual Differences, 38*, 689-700.

Venter, A. & Barkhuizen, N. (2005). Rethinking undergraduate curricula: A Delphi study of Human Resource Management and Industrial and Organisational Psychology. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 31*(3), 46-53.

Watkins, M. L. (2001). Industrial Psychology: An identity crisis and future direction. *Journal of Industrial Psychology, 27*(4), 8-13.

Welman, C., Kruger, F. & Mitchel, B. (2005). *Research methodology*. Cape Twon: Oxford University Press.

Westfall, C. (2007). Standing out in a highly competitive job market. *Physician Executive, 33*(1), 32-36.

Werquin, P. (2008). Recognition of non-formal and informal learning in OECD countries. *Lifelong Learning in Europe, 3,* 142-150.

Winslade, J. (2007). Constructing a career narrative through the care of the self. In: J. G. Maree (Ed.). *Shaping the story: A narrative perspective on career counselling,* (pp. 52-62)*.* Pretoria (SA): Van Schaik.

Whitfield, E. A. (1988). Responsibility for career transition preparation. *Journal of Career Development, 15*(1), 13-20.

Wood, M. (2000). The psychology of career theory: a new perspective?. *Career Development International, 5*(6), 273-278.

Weinert, A. B. (2001). *Psychology of career development.* International Encyclopaedia of the Social & Behavioural Sciences, Elsevier Science, 1471-1476.

Wittekind, A., Raeder, S., & Grote. G. (2010). A longitudinal study of determinants of perceived employability. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 31,* 566–586.

Worthington, R. L., & Whittaker, T. A. (2006). Scale development research: A content analysis and recommendations for best practices. *The Counselling Psychologist*, *34*, 806-838.

Yates, L. (2008). *The not-so generic skills: Teaching employability communication skills to adult migrants.* Sydney: NCELTR.

Yorke, M. & Knight, P. T. (2004). *Embedding employability in the curriculum*. York: Higher Education Academy.

Zhiwen, G., & Van der Heijden, B. I. J. M. (2008). Employability enhancement of business graduates in China: Reacting upon challenges of globalisation and labour market demands. *Education & Training, 50*(4), 289-304.

Zinzer, R.(2003).Developing careers and employability skills: a US case study. *Education and Training, 45*(7), 402-410.

Zunker, V. G. (2002). *Career counselling: Applied concepts of life planning.* USA: Thomson training.