

**PSYCHOLOGICAL RESOURCES AS PREDICTORS OF POSITIVE COPING BEHAVIOUR
IN THE LEGAL PROFESSION**

by

DESIREE MICHELLE RUDMAN (De VILLIERS)

submitted in accordance with the requirements

for the degree of

MASTERS OF COMMERCE

in the subject

INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: Prof. M Coetzee

15 September 2021

DECLARATION

Name: Desiree Michelle Rudman (de Villiers)

Student number: 45809097

Degree: Master of Commerce: Industrial and Organisational Psychology

Title: Psychological resources as predictors of positive coping behaviour in the legal profession

I declare that the above dissertation 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.

I further declare that I submitted the dissertation to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at Unisa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

The ethics clearance certificate to conduct the research has been attached as Appendix 1.



15 September 2021

Signature

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I want to thank my supervisor, Professor Melinde Coetzee. I have no words to describe my deep gratitude for all the patience, guidance, and encouragement you provided me. Your passion and expertise on the subject matter was evident throughout and I couldn't have asked for a better supervisor to guide me through this process.

I also want to thanks to Andries Masenge, who assisted with the statistical analysis.

To Alexa and Gerry Barnby, thank you for your support with the language editing, formatting and technical layout of the document – it is much appreciated.

UNISA, thank you for providing me with the necessary financial support and academic resources to complete this study.

I also thank all participants of the study, without whom the research would not have been possible.

Last but not least of all, I want to thank my dad, Des, for all the sacrifices you made as a single father and forever highlighting the value and importance of education. Thank you for always being my biggest cheerleader and source of support. I dedicate this dissertation to you.

ABSTRACT/SUMMARY

PSYCHOLOGICAL RESOURCES AS PREDICTORS OF POSITIVE COPING BEHAVIOUR IN THE LEGAL PROFESSION

by

Desiree Michelle (De Villiers) Rudman

SUPERVISOR: Prof M Coetzee

DEPARTMENT: Industrial and Organisational Psychology

DEGREE : MCom in Industrial and Organisational Psychology (98580)

The aim of this research was to determine whether psychological resources predict positive coping behaviours in the legal profession. The literature review gave context to the main constructs of the research, namely psychological capital, emotional intelligence, sociodemographic characteristics and positive coping behaviour, as well as an overview of the wellbeing landscape of the South African legal profession. The study employed a convenience sampling technique of N = 144 attorneys of different ages, genders, race, job tenures and job levels. The moderating effect of the sociodemographic characteristics and the mediating effect of emotional intelligence were examined.

The empirical research involved correlational and inferential statistical analyses to test the research hypotheses. The results suggested a statistically significant relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour, mediated by emotional intelligence, and that some sociodemographic groups displayed greater levels of psychosocial resources and positive coping behaviour than other groups.

The research adds to the existing body of knowledge to assist industrial psychologists and human resource professionals in their efforts to prepare attorneys with the necessary tools to develop psychological resources and positive coping behaviours.

Keywords: psychological capital, positive coping behaviour, wellbeing, emotional intelligence, psychological resources

OPSOMMING

PSIGOLOGIESE HULPBRONNE AS VOORSPELLERS VAN POSITIEWE HANTERINGSGEDRAG IN DIE REGSGROEP

deur

Desiree Michelle (De Villiers) Rudman

STUDIELEIER: Prof M Coetzee

DEPARTEMENT Bedryfs- en Organisasiesielkunde

GRAAD : MCom in Bedryfs- en Organisasiesielkunde (98580)

Die oogmerk van hierdie navorsing was om vas te stel of psigologiese hulpmiddele positiewe hanteringsgedrag in die regsberoep voorspel. 'n Literatuurstudie het konteks aan die belangrikste konstrakte van die navorsing verleen. Hierdie konstrakte is psigiese kapitaal, emosionele intelligensie, sosiaal-demografiese kenmerke en positiewe hanteringsgedrag. Die literatuur het 'n oorsig oor die welstand van regslui in Suid-Afrika gegee. 'n Geskiktheidsteekproefneming van N = 144 prokureurs van albei geslagte en verskillende ouderdomme, rasse, dienstye en posvlakke is in die studie gebruik. Die matigende effek van die sosiaal-demografiese kenmerke en die middellende effek van emosionele intelligensie is ondersoek.

Die empiriese navorsing het korrelatiewe en inferensiële statistiese analyses behels om die navorsingshipoteses te toets. Die uitslag dui op 'n statisties beduidende verband tussen psigiese kapitaal en positiewe hanteringsgedrag deur middel van emosionele intelligensie. Dit toon aan dat sekere sosiaal-demografiese groepe oor meer psigososiale hulpmiddele beskik en meer positiewe hanteringsgedrag vertoon as ander groepe.

Hierdie navorsing brei die bestaande kennisgebied uit, en nywerheidsielkundiges en mensehulpbronberoepslui kan dit aanwend om prokureurs met die ontwikkeling van psigiese hulpmiddele en positiewe hanteringsgedrag te help.

Slutelwoorde: psigiese kapitaal, positiewe hanteringsgedrag, welstand, emosionele intelligensie, psigososiale hulpmiddele.

OKUCASHUNIWE

IZINSIZAKUSEBENZA ZENGGONDO NJENGABABIKELI BOKUZIPHATHA OKUHLE KOKUBHEKANA NESIMO EMSEBENZINI WOMTHETHO

ngu

Desiree Michelle (De Villiers) Rudman

- UMPHATHI: uSolwazi M Coetzee
- UMNYANGO: Ucwangingo lwesayensi lwengqondo yomuntu kwezezimboni
nezinhlangano
- IZIQU: Ukuphothulwa kwezifundo ezibonisa ukusebenza kahle ezigxile
kwezentengiselwano (MCom) ocwangingweni lwesayensi lwengqondo
yomuntu kwezezimboni nezinhlangano (98580)

Inhloso yalolu cwangingo kwakuwukuthola ukuthi izinsizakusebenza zengqondo zibikezela ukuziphatha okuhle kokubhekana nesimo emsebenzini wezomthetho. Ukubuyekezwa kwemibhalo kunikeze umongo ekwakhiweni okuyinhloko kocwangingo, okungukuthi iqoqo lezinsizakusebenza umuntu angazisebenzisa ukusiza ukuthuthukisa ukusebenza kwakhe emsebenzini kanye nempumelelo yakhe, ukuhlakanipha ngokwemizwa, izici zenhlalo yabantu kanye nokuziphatha okuhle kokubhekana nesimo kanye nokubukisisa kwenhlalakahle yomsebenzi wezomthetho waseNingizimu Afrika. Ucwangingo lusebenzise inqubo elula yokwenza isampula yabameli be-N = 144 beminyaka ehlukene, ubulili, ubuhlanga, ukuqashwa, kanye namazinga emisebenzi. Umphumela wokulinganisela wezici zenhlalo yabantu kanye nomphumela wokulamula kobuhlakani obungokwemizwa kuhlolwe.

Ucwangingo lwendlela yokuthola ulwazi ngokubheka ngqo noma ngokungaqondile noma ngobungcweti lubandakanya ukuhlaziywa kwezibalo kokulungiswa okubandakanya iziphetho ezifinyelelwe ngesisekelo sobufakazi nokucabanga ukuze kuvivinywe ucwangingo oluyisitativimende sokubikezela mayelana nomphumela wocwangingo lwesayensi olususelwe endaweni ethile yabantu. Imiphumela iphakamise ubudlelwano obubalulekile phakathi kweqoqo lezinsizakusebenza umuntu angazisebenzisa ukusiza ukuthuthukisa ukusebenza kwakhe emsebenzini kanye nempumelelo yakhe nokuziphatha okuhle kokubhekana nesimo, okuqondiswa ubuhlakani obungokwemizwa, nokuthi amanye amaqembu ezenhlalo zabantu abonisa amazinga amakhulu ezinsizakusebenza zengqondo nokuziphatha okuhle kokubhekana namanye amaqembu.

Ucwangingo lungeza olwazini olukhona ukusiza abasebenzi abasebenza ngesayensi yengqondo yomuntu kwezezimboni kanye nochwepheshe kwezabasebenzi emizamweni

yabo yokulungisa abameli ngamathuluzi adingekayo ukuthuthukisa izinsizakusebenza zengqondo nokuziphatha okuhle kokubhekana nesimo.

Amagama asemqoka:

psychological capital

iqoqo lezinsizakusebenza umuntu angazisebenzisa ukusiza ukuthuthukisa ukusebenza kwakhe emsebenzini kanye nempumelelo yakhe

positive coping behaviour

Ukuziphatha okuhle kokubhekana nesimo

wellbeing

Okwenhlalakahle

emotional intelligence

Ukuhlakanipha ngokwemizwa

psychological resources

Izinsizakusebenza zengqondo

Table of contents

DECLARATION.....	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
ABSTRACT/SUMMARY.....	iii
OPSOMMING	iv
OKUCASHUNIWE	v
<i>List of figures</i>	xii
<i>List of tables</i>	xiv
CHAPTER 1	1
SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH	1
1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH.....	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT	8
1.2.1 Research questions with regard to the literature review	10
1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the empirical study	10
1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH.....	11
1.3.1 General aim	11
1.3.2 Specific aim.....	11
1.3.2.1 Literature review	11
1.3.2.2 Empirical study	12
1.4 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE	12
1.5 THE RESEARCH MODEL.....	14
1.6 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH	14
1.6.1 Field of study	15
1.6.2 The intellectual climate	15
1.6.2.1 The literature review	15
1.6.2.2 The empirical study.....	16
1.6.3 The market of intellectual resources.....	17
1.6.3.1 Psychological capital	18
1.6.3.2 Emotional intelligence.....	18
1.6.3.3 Positive coping.....	18
1.6.3.4 Overarching theoretical lens: conservation of resources	18
1.6.4 Central hypothesis	19
1.6.4.1 Theoretical assumptions.....	20
1.6.4.2 Methodological assumptions	20
1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN.....	21
1.7.1 Exploratory research.....	21
1.7.2 Descriptive research	22
1.7.3 Explanatory research.....	22
1.7.4 Validity	23
1.7.4.1 Validity of the literature review.....	24
1.7.4.2 Validity of the empirical research.....	24
1.7.5 Reliability.....	24
1.7.6 Research variables	24
1.7.7 The unit of research.....	25
1.7.8 Delimitations	26
1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	26
1.8.1 Phase 1: Literature review	27
1.8.2 Phase 2: The empirical study	28

1.9	EXPECTED RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION.....	30
1.10	CHAPTER DIVISION.....	31
1.11	CHAPTER SUMMARY	31
CHAPTER 2.....	32
	META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY – WELLBEING AND POSITIVE COPING IN THE LEGAL PROFESSION	32
2.1	WELLBEING IN THE LEGAL PROFESSION	32
2.1.1	Conceptualisation of wellbeing	32
2.1.2	Models of wellbeing	35
2.1.2.1	Eudaimonia	35
2.1.2.2	Objective wellbeing	1
2.1.2.3	Subjective wellbeing	2
2.2	POSITIVE COPING	3
2.2.1	Conceptualisation of positive coping behaviour	3
2.2.2	Theory of positive coping behaviour	5
2.2.3	Integration	8
2.3	ROLE OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES.....	12
2.3.1	Age.....	12
2.3.2	Gender	13
2.3.3	Race.....	13
2.3.4	Tenure.....	14
2.3.5	Job level.....	14
2.4	EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS.....	14
2.4.1	Construct definitions	14
2.4.2	The relationship between the constructs	16
2.4.3	Moderation effect of socio-demographic variables	16
2.5	CHAPTER SUMMARY	17
CHAPTER 3.....	18
	PSYCHOLOGICAL RESOURCES: PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE.....	18
3.1	CONCEPTUALISATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL RESOURCES.....	18
3.1.1	Psychological capital	19
3.1.2	Emotional intelligence.....	19
3.2	MODELS AND THEORIES.....	21
3.2.1	Psychological capital	21
3.2.1.1	Dimensions of psychological capital	22
3.2.1.2	Psychological capital limitations and criticisms	25
3.2.2	Emotional intelligence.....	26
3.2.2.1	Goleman’s mixed model	28
3.2.2.2	Salovey and Mayer’s ability model	29
3.2.2.3	Petrides’ trait model	31
3.3	ROLE OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES.....	34
3.3.1	Age.....	34
3.3.2	Gender	35
3.3.3	Race.....	36
3.3.4	Tenure.....	36
3.3.5	Job level.....	36
3.4	IMPLICATIONS FOR POSITIVE COPING AND WELLBEING	37

3.4.1	The conservation of resources theory	39
3.4.2	Implications for wellbeing interventions	42
3.4.3	Synthesis: the relationship between psychological capital, positive coping and the mediation effect of emotional intelligence.....	42
3.5	EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS	44
3.5.1	Defining the constructs	44
3.5.2	Relationship between psychological capital and emotional intelligence	45
3.5.3	Relationship with positive coping and wellbeing	45
3.5.4	Moderation effect of socio-demographic variables	46
3.5.5	Review of the central hypothesis	47
3.6	CHAPTER SUMMARY	47
CHAPTER 4		48
RESEARCH METHOD		48
4.1	RESEARCH METHOD	48
4.2	DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE	49
4.2.1	Sample composition by age.....	50
4.2.2	Sample composition by gender	51
4.2.3	Sample composition by race.....	52
4.2.4	Sample composition by tenure	52
4.2.5	Sample composition by job title	53
4.2.6	Sample composition by marital status	54
4.2.7	Sample composition by level of qualification	54
4.2.8	Sample composition by employment status	55
4.2.9	Sample composition by general mood	56
4.3	CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY	57
4.3.1	Psychological Capital Questionnaire	57
4.3.1.1	Rationale and description of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire	57
4.3.1.2	Validity and reliability of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire	57
4.3.1.3	Administration and interpretation of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire	58
4.3.1.4	Motivation for using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire.....	58
4.3.2	Assessing Emotions Scale	58
4.3.2.1	Rationale and description of the assessing emotions questionnaire	58
4.3.2.2	Validity and reliability of the assessing emotions questionnaire	59
4.3.2.3	Administration and interpretation of the assessing emotions questionnaire	59
4.3.2.4	Motivation for using the assessing emotions questionnaire	59
4.3.3	Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory	60
4.3.3.1	Rationale and description of the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory	60
4.3.3.2	Validity and reliability of the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory.....	61
4.3.3.3	Administration and interpretation of the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory.....	61
4.3.3.4	Motivation for using the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory	61
4.4	LIMITATIONS OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY	61
4.5	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	63
4.6	ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY	64
4.7	STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	64
4.7.1	Descriptive statistics	64
4.7.2	Correlation statistics	65
4.7.3	Inferential statistics	65
4.8	FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	65
4.9	STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA.....	67
4.9.1	Stage 1: Descriptive statistical analysis.....	67

4.9.1.1	Internal consistency reliability analysis of each scale	68
4.9.1.2	Means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis	68
4.9.1.3	Tests for assumptions.....	69
4.9.2	Stage 2: Correlation analysis.....	71
4.9.3	Stage 3: Inferential statistics.....	72
4.9.3.1	Mediation analysis	72
4.9.3.2	Moderated regression analysis.....	73
4.9.3.3	Tests for significant mean differences	73
4.10	CHAPTER SUMMARY	74
CHAPTER 5	75
RESEARCH RESULTS	75
5.1	DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	75
5.1.1	Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory	75
5.1.2	Assessing Emotions Scale	76
5.1.3	Psychological Capital Questionnaire	77
5.2	CORRELATION STATISTICS.....	78
5.2.1	Correlation between the scales	78
5.2.2	Correlation between the PCBI and its subscales	80
5.2.3	Correlation between the AES and its subscales.....	80
5.2.4	Correlation between the PCQ and its subscales	81
5.3	INFERENTIAL STATISTICS	81
5.3.1	Mediation analysis	82
5.3.2	Moderated regression analysis.....	83
5.3.3	Tests for significant mean differences analysis	86
5.3.3.1	Age.....	87
5.3.3.2	Gender.....	87
5.3.3.3	Tenure.....	87
5.4	DECISIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	88
5.5	CHAPTER SUMMARY	89
CHAPTER 6	91
DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	91
6.1	DISCUSSION	91
6.1.1	Biographical and descriptive profile of sample	91
6.1.2	Descriptive statistics: interpretation of the results	93
6.1.3	Research aim 1: correlations	94
6.1.3.1	The relationship between emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour	94
6.1.3.2	The relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour	95
6.1.3.3	The relationship between psychological capital and emotional intelligence	95
6.1.4	Research aim 2: mediation analysis	96
6.1.5	Research aim 3: moderation analysis	97
6.1.6	Research aim 4: tests for significant mean differences	99
6.1.7	Integration and evaluation	100
6.2	CONCLUSIONS	104
6.2.1	Conclusions relating to the literature review.....	104
6.2.1.1	Research aim 1.....	104
6.2.1.2	Research aim 2.....	105
6.2.1.3	Research aim 3.....	106
6.2.2	Conclusions relating to the empirical study	107

6.2.2.1	Conclusions on research question 1	107
6.2.2.2	Conclusions on research question 2	108
6.2.2.3	Conclusions on research question 3	108
6.2.2.4	Conclusions on research question 4	109
6.3	LIMITATIONS	110
6.3.1	Limitations of the literature review	110
6.3.2	Limitations of the empirical study	111
6.4	RECOMMENDATIONS	112
6.4.1	Recommendations for practice	112
6.4.2	Recommendations for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology	114
6.4.3	Recommendations for future research	115
6.5	EVALUATION OF THE STUDY	116
6.5.1	Contribution to theory	116
6.5.2	Contribution to research	117
6.5.3	Contribution to practice.....	117
6.6	CHAPTER SUMMARY	118
	REFERENCES.....	120
	Appendix 1: UNISA Ethical Clearance.....	167

List of figures

Figure 1.1 25	
Levels of Investigation.....	25
Figure 1.2 27	
Overview of the Literature Study.....	27
Figure 1.3 29	
Overview of the Empirical Study	29
Figure 2.1 9	
Overlapping Elements of the Positive Coping Behaviour and Wellbeing Theories	9
Figure 2.2 11	
Summary of Positive Coping Behaviour and Wellbeing Theories	11
Figure 3.1 18	
Chapter Synopsis: Investigating the Role of Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence	18
Figure 3.2 29	
Goleman’s Mixed Model: Trait and Competencies	29
Figure 3.3 30	
Mayer and Salovey’s Ability Model	30
Figure 3.4 33	
The Factors and Facets Measured by the TEIQue Measurement Tool	33
Figure 3.5 41	
The Impact of Resource Losses and Gains.....	41
Figure 3.6 44	
Conceptual Research Model.....	44
Figure 4.1 51	
Sample Distribution by Age Group.....	51
Figure 4.2 51	
Sample Distribution by Gender Group	51
Figure 4.3 52	
Sample Distribution by Racial Group	52
Figure 4.4 53	
Sample Distribution by Job Tenure Group.....	53
Figure 4.5 53	
Sample Distribution by Job Title Group	53
Figure 4.6 54	
Sample Distribution by Marital Status Group	54
Figure 4.7 55	
Sample Distribution by Qualification Group	55
Figure 4.8 55	
Sample Distribution by Employment Status Group.....	55

Figure 4.9	56
Sample Distribution by General Mood Group	56
Figure 4.10	67
Statistical Processing of Data	67
Figure 5.1	82
Indirect (Mediating) Effect of Emotional Intelligence.....	82
Figure 5.2	85
Interaction Diagram: Emotional Intelligence x Tenure	85
Figure 5.3	86
Interaction Diagram: Psychological Capital x Race	86
Figure 6.1	92
The Main Characteristics of the Sample Profile	92

List of tables

Table 1.1	19
Core Constructs, Theoretical Models and Measuring Instruments.....	19
Table 2.1	1
Comparison of the SDT Theory, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Murray's System of Needs and the Six-Factor Model of Psychological Wellbeing	1
Table 2.2	4
Five Dimensions of Positive Coping Behaviour	4
Table 3.1	38
Theoretical Mediating Effect of Emotional Intelligence	38
Table 4.1	50
Biographical Distribution of Sample	50
Table 4.2	66
Research Hypotheses.....	66
Table 5.1	75
Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients of the PCBI	75
Table 5.2	76
Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients of the AES	76
Table 5.3	77
Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients of the PCQ.....	77
Table 5.4	79
Correlations Between the AES, PCQ and PCBI Subscales and Overall Scales	79
Table 5.5	82
Mediation Results: Emotional Intelligence as Mediator in the Link Between Psychological Capital and Positive Coping Behaviour	82
Table 5.6	84
Significant Moderated Regression Results for Dependent Variable: Positive Coping Behaviour	84
Table 5.7	87
Significant Mann-Whitney U Test Results.....	87
Table 5.8	89
Summary of the Main Findings Relating to the Research Hypotheses	89

CHAPTER 1

SCIENTIFIC OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

The research sought to explore the extent to which an attorney's psychological resources may predict the form of their positive coping behaviour. The relevant research constructs were (1) psychological capital (hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism) as independent variable, (2) emotional intelligence as mediating variable, (3) socio-demographic characteristics (such as race, gender, age, job level and tenure) as moderator variables and (4) the positive coping behaviour as dependent variable. Psychological capital (independent variable) and emotional intelligence (mediating variable) were treated as a set of psychological resources influencing the positive coping behaviour (dependent variable) of individuals. The socio-demographic variables were treated as moderating and control variables to assess whether the association between the psychosocial resource variables and positive coping variable is conditional upon the moderating variables (socio-demographic characteristics, namely race, gender, age, job level and tenure).

This chapter gives the background and motivation for the intended research by means of a literature study, after which the problem statement and research questions are formulated. Thereafter, the aims of the research are specified. Additionally, the chapter elaborates on the paradigm perspectives that defined the research limitations, as well as discussing the research design and research method that gave structure to the research process. Finally, the manner in which the chapters are presented is introduced.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

The context of this research is the wellbeing and positive coping of attorneys in the South African legal profession. International research has long indicated attorneys' vulnerability to mental health illnesses, which was highlighted in an article in the *Journal of Addiction*. The article by Krill et al. (2016) asserts that attorneys show higher than average rates of depression and anxiety than the general population. A number of smaller studies have also supported the notion that attorneys are generally mentally unhealthy (Daicoff, 2004). In a survey conducted by Chan et al. (2014), up to a third of Australian attorneys indicated experience with a mental health ailment, whilst in a study by Bergin and Jimmieson (2014), half of the attorneys surveyed admitted to experiencing severe stress symptoms. The nature of the attorneys' work, alongside a flawed legal culture and business model, contributes to the growing problem of work issues affecting attorneys' wellbeing (Rottenberg, 2012). A legal career is a high-achieving profession, where showing any symptoms of stress is seen as a weakness

(Rottenberg, 2012). Furthermore, South Africans have to contend with the ongoing economic and political uncertainty in the country which affects individuals' wellbeing (Hurvitz, 2018) and adds additional pressure to an attorney's stress load.

The World Health Organisation defines mental disorders as a wide-ranging collection of ailments, which may present themselves through different symptoms. These disorders are commonly characterised by some combination of unusual thinking processes, behaviours, emotions and interactions with others (WHO, 2018). In other words, a mental disorder is an illness that gives rise to moods and emotions that are disproportionate to a person's circumstances (Fish, 2018). The legal community has been no stranger to mental health concerns. Stress, burnout and anxiety are the most prevalent mental illnesses, but common maladies such as anxiety disorders, substance abuse, depressive disorders, compassion fatigue, burnout and suicide are also present (Beck et al., 1995; Brody et al., 2018; Heekin, 2014; Levit & Linder, 2008). Studies suggest that substance and alcohol abuse starts at student level (Anzalone, 2018; Austin, 2015). Attorneys are entrusted with upholding the rule of law and keeping their clients' best interests at heart, but a state of poor mental health undermines their ability to stay focused on these commitments and maintain performance (Krause & Chong, 2019).

The mental health challenges within the legal profession start early: junior attorneys report high levels of psychological distress symptoms which are at a much higher rate than average and their distress remains high for the duration of their careers (Beck et al., 1995). Previous research seems to indicate a greater chance for burnout and poor wellbeing among younger attorneys (Heekin, 2014; Pasyk, 2019). International, industry-specific research further indicates that higher incidents of depression and lower levels of career-choice satisfaction occur as responsibility and income increase (Macnab, 2017). Krause and Chong (2019) assert that attorney wellbeing is diminished by feelings of incompetence, lack of autonomy, high job demand and workload.

American research statistics are disturbing: the legal profession leads with the highest incidence of depression and the highest rate of suicide (Krill, 2018; Latham, 2011), and this number continues to grow. In 1990, depression rates in the legal industry were at 19%. In 2016, a study found this to have increased to 28% (Fish, 2018). This is alarming, as the depression rate for the general American population is 8% (Fish, 2018). Furthermore, up to 20% of attorneys suffer from alcoholism and substance abuse (Krill et al., 2016). The rate of addiction amid attorneys is 2.5 to 3.5 times higher than the American average, with young attorneys – under the age of 30 – most at risk (Krill et al., 2016). Practising attorneys experience a significant level of alcohol abuse compared to other industries, which may be

attributed to the profession's drinking culture (Krill et al., 2016). Additionally, the nature of attorneys' work leads to compassion fatigue which is prevalent in attorneys working on traumatic matters and interacting with troubled clients (Levin & Greisberg, 2003; Lyon, 2016).

From the research presented, it is evident that attorneys are familiar with certain mental health ailments, with the Covid-19 pandemic being likely to intensify any mental health concerns. Psychologists warn of pandemic fatigue, given the long-term projection of the crisis (Blue, 2020). Pandemic fatigue involves increased feelings of anxiety, depression and fatigue, which will add an additional burden for those who are living with a strained mental health state already. This level of continuous psychological stress raises the body's cortisol levels, which may take a physical toll in the long run (Blue, 2020). New studies are also indicating that the pandemic has resulted in an increase of suicidal thoughts and even suicide, likely as a result of economic, psychosocial and health risk factors (Jenkins et al., 2020; Vitelli, 2020).

Attorneys are noted to have high stress levels in both their professional and personal capacity. As success is measured by the number of billable hours, work-life balance and general wellbeing practices are not easily attained in a legal position (Thornton, 2014) and attorneys generally find this to be the least enjoyable element of their profession as it creates a competitive and toxic working environment (Omari & Paull, 2013; Pasyk, 2019). As a result, attorneys often feel that they are neglecting their other roles, such as the role of parent and partner, which leads to role conflict (Fish, 2018) and a high level of career dissatisfaction (Levit & Linder, 2008). Further to this, Green and Simon (2019) suggest that attorneys wear stress as a badge of honour representing dedication and superiority.

Attorneys are also subject to greater levels of occupational stress than the general public and higher rates of work-related burnout which may, in turn, lead to personal burnout. Personal burnout is often a result of attorneys battling to distinguish their personal life stressors from work, due to the long working hours (Tsai et al., 2009) and a multitude of matters running in parallel, creating the continuous sense of time constraints (Gruber et al., 2018). Generally, attorneys are unhappy and dissatisfied with their chosen career path (Organ, 2010).

Technology overload is an additional stressor, as emails and cell phones allow for around-the-clock access, distractions and a faster work pace (May, n.d.). For some individuals, the continuous accessibility may lead to work-life imbalance and affect their resilience levels (Duxbury et al., 2014), becoming a stress-enhancer (Wilmer et al., 2017).

A legal career is a people-orientated vocation and, as such, the characteristics of an attorney are indicative of a law firm's success (Knudson, 2015). However, the occupational hazards of

a legal career, such as depression, anxiety and substance abuse (Brafford, 2014), require law firms to take a hard look at their employee wellbeing propositions. The traditional approach within law firms is failing to nurture and develop key characteristics such as resilience (Knudson, 2015), even though research is proving that increasing psychological resources can prevent instances of burnout, stress and depression (Newman et al., 2014).

The number of challenges an attorney faces may lead to a diminished confidence level, especially in an environment lacking mentorship and training, which is often the case in traditional law firm structures (Brafford, 2014). Additional environmental factors in the legal industry include a lack of sleep, stress, a competitive environment, demanding clients and mental illness stigma (Hardy, 2008; Seligman et al., 2001). A 2018 survey conducted by ALM Intelligence exposed the stigma associated with mental health and substance abuse in the legal industry. The stigma associates mental health ailments with incompetence, incapacity and general undesirability, which results in attorneys not disclosing their mental health challenges (Randazzo, 2019).

It has been said that the psychological constitution of a successful attorney may be a contributing factor in mental health concerns. Successful attorneys have common traits: an A-type personality (Latham, 2011; Pasyk, 2019), well-educated, competitive, perfectionistic, achievement orientated, pessimistic, insecure, materialistic, poor intrapersonal skills and risk-aversion (Daicoff, 2004; Hardy, 2008; Krieger & Sheldon, 2014). All these characteristics lead to trait-specific stressors which can fuel mental illnesses if not managed correctly (Daicoff, 2004). Ironically, the legal industry is the only profession which rewards pessimism, perfectionism and materialism, which may lead to internal conflict and mental health challenges in the long run (Daicoff, 2004; Seligman et al., 2001). Daicoff (2004) states that the focus on extrinsic values further aggravates the mental health landscape of the industry. Consequently, the legal profession is known to be a detached, cold environment (Hardy, 2008). This background, paired with the long working hours in such a hostile setting, creates feelings of discontent for legal professionals (Hardy, 2008).

Krieger and Sheldon (2014) posit that in addition to the typical “lawyer personality”, the nature of the schooling received at university level, together with certain aspects of the law practice, contribute to lawyer distress. Currently, law students are not receiving soft skills training, for example the intrapersonal skills that could develop or sharpen competencies such as resilience, self-awareness, emotional intelligence and stress management (Baron, 2015; Huang, 2017; Norton et al., 2016; Parker, 2014). The current law syllabus concentrates on teaching skills centred on developing a student’s rationality, logic and analytical skills (O’Brien, 2014). This, paired with the isolation some students experience, also imparts insecurity,

anxiety and intolerance (O'Brien, 2014). According to Davis and Humphrey (2014), improved emotional intelligence skills may improve the mental health crisis amongst attorneys.

In 2016, the American Bar Association established a unit to investigate the wellbeing of American lawyers. Their report concluded that the current mental health concerns are unsustainable in the profession (Buchanan et al., 2017). The report indicated that 40 to 70% of all disciplinary concerns raised against attorneys involved substance abuse or depression, once again highlighting the mental health concerns facing the industry. To date, attorney-related wellness initiatives and educational drives have concentrated on four main themes: reducing stigma and creating awareness regarding mental health issues, attempts to reduce dependency and reliance on drugs and alcohol, encouraging physical fitness and accessing of mental health resources and, finally, institutionalised programmes to encourage focused attention on lawyer wellbeing (Brafford, 2018). However, Krause and Chong (2019) posit that sweeping interventions are destined to fail and that initiatives need to take place on an individual level. Furthermore, they have a pessimistic outlook on whether structural reforms (such as billing practices) will have a great impact on the state of wellness within the legal industry. Heekin (2014) criticises current interventions for being reactive, rather than proactive. Krause and Chong (2019) suggest greater substantive and meaningful training opportunities for young attorneys, whilst Pasyk (2019) calls for greater recognition from their employers.

Local research is sparse. In 2014 it was recorded that one-third of the South African population has a mental illness and 75% of those individuals will never receive treatment (Tromp et al., 2014). South Africa's diverse population also introduces the issue of cultural dynamics and perspectives. Depression and anxiety are seen as a "white man's disease" and are often misunderstood (Stockenström, 2018). This results in individuals with mental illness being stigmatised and shunned by communities, with the view that the individual's symptoms are signs of possession and evil spirits (Lund, 2018); this results in reluctance to seek treatment. The Covid-19 pandemic is likely to aggravate the country's mental health challenges, as individuals with mental health challenges are likely to relapse during the pandemic as a result of its destabilising effect (Clearly, 2020). Furthermore, the pandemic has resulted in an economic downturn, resulting in businesses closing down and job losses (Vitelli, 2020). There is a direct relationship between an individual's socioeconomic wellbeing and mental health (Clearly, 2020), which means that in a country with a fragile economy, the pandemic's effect could be devastating for the citizens, who are all subjected to new financial pressures. Research conducted by a Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) led team found that South Africa is heading for a moment of psychological crisis, with individuals reporting higher rates of loneliness, depression and fear as a result of the pandemic (Orkin et al., 2020). The

study indicated that the pandemic has affected different socio-demographic groups in different ways: women were more likely to report depression (likely as a result of the additional caregiver responsibilities), young South Africans below the age of 24 were reporting feelings of anger and boredom, while African individuals were found to be less stressed than other racial groups, the reason for which is unclear. Interestingly, the study found that individuals over the age of 45 reported lower levels of fear, depression and stress.

The present study was interested in exploring individuals' psychological capital and emotional intelligence as psychological resources that explain the variance in their positive coping behaviour. Specifically, the study aimed to explore the relationship dynamics between attorneys' psychological capital (independent variable), emotional intelligence (mediating variable) and positive coping behaviour (outcome variable). The socio-demographic characteristics, namely race, gender, age, job level and tenure (moderating variables), assessed whether the association between the psychosocial resource variables and positive coping variable was conditional upon the moderating variables. The study hoped to inform wellbeing policies within law firms to assist and inform the industry of the importance of fostering, maintaining and developing psychological resource interventions and their implications for wellbeing practices.

Psychological capital is described as individuals' positive development potential (Avolio & Luthans, 2006). Lyubomirsky et al. (2005) explain psychological capital as an individual's ability to gain a better understanding of life's circumstances by continuously adapting to enhance and improve on personal productivity. In particular, it focuses on the characteristics of hope, self-efficacy, resiliency and optimism in an effort to achieve goals (Luthans, Youssef et al., 2007). These positive characteristics, which rely on an individual's own assessment of a situation, link in well with wellbeing, as wellbeing is concerned with (positive and negative) emotions and an individual's own perception of life satisfaction.

Coping refers to any cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage, minimise or tolerate situations which an individual may find threatening to their wellbeing (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). In particular, this study is interested in positive coping behaviour, which manifests in the form of problem-solving coping styles. Subjective wellbeing involves both cognitive judgements and emotional reactions. It is therefore worthwhile to assess the link between wellbeing and positive coping, as positive coping also addresses considerations within an individual's emotional and cognitive dimensions.

Emotional intelligence is defined as the capacity for recognising your own feelings and those of others, for motivating yourself and managing your emotions and relationships well

(Goleman, 1998). The study wishes to include emotional intelligence as a construct, as individuals with an improved level of emotional intelligence can expect higher job performance. According to Goleman (1998), this is as a result of their emotional competence levelling up to the demands of their profession. There is a link between emotional intelligence and wellbeing, as wellbeing includes positive mood and high self-esteem. Studies have shown that an increased level of emotional intelligence can lead to a greater sense of happiness and wellbeing (Guerra-Bustamante et al., 2019).

As for the socio-demographic characteristics of the legal industry, the industry is male-dominated: around 60% of practising attorneys are male (Manyathi-Jele, 2015). That said, there are more female LLB degree students and graduates (Manyathi-Jele, 2015) which may suggest a shift in gender demographics in years to come. The majority of practising attorneys are white, comprising 56% of the total attorney population (Law Society of South Africa, 2019), whereas the African demographic makes up 27% of the group (Law Society of South Africa, 2018).

The legal fraternity is a growing profession. Statistics released by the Law Society of South Africa in 2015 revealed a 44.4% increase in practising attorneys in the period 2005 to 2015 (Manyathi-Jele, 2015). As of January 2019, the number had increased to 27 200 (Law Society of South Africa, 2019), a 14.8% increase since 2015. According to the Law Society of South Africa's 2018 infographic report, most attorneys practise in Gauteng (58%), followed by the Western Cape (26%). The report also indicates that the median age is 32.

Although statistics on tenure, position and seniority are not available, a 2016 LexisNexis legal industry survey indicates that more than half of practising attorneys hold a senior role. This notion is supported by international research indicating a top-heavy structure within the profession. This is likely a result of the traditional promotional and upward mobility structures within firms (Patton, 2004). By testing a wide range of socio-demographic characteristics, a complete and detailed view will be provided which will help to inform wellbeing interventions at the individual and organisational level.

In light of the above research literature, the following research hypotheses are formulated:

- H1: There is a statistically positive relationship between the antecedent variable (psychological capital), the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) and positive coping behaviours (dependent variable).

- H2: The effect of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence (mediating variable).
- H3: The effects of (1) the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (coping behaviour) and (2), the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (coping behaviour) are moderated by individuals' age, gender, race, tenure and job level characteristics.
- H4: Attorneys from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups differ significantly regarding their psychological capital and emotional intelligence resources. This means that certain socio-demographic groups will showcase greater positive coping behaviour than other groups.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Coping behaviour is a prevalent and relevant issue for attorneys to ensure career advancement and longevity in the industry. Some studies, such as those conducted by Bonanno et al. (2011) and Folkman and Moskowitz (2004), have stressed that individuals need to be able to adapt their coping strategies to meet the demands they come across. Bonanno et al. (2011) introduce the concept of coping flexibility, whereas Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) maintain that problem-focused coping strategies are better suited to situations where the individual can make changes, while emotion-focused strategies are more effective when the situation is deemed uncontrollable.

The role of an attorney is deemed to have low autonomy (Krause & Chong, 2019). The job is dedicated to serving client needs, which means that they often feel that they cannot act out their preferred approach on a matter or authentically express themselves. A study conducted by Britt et al. (2015) suggested that individuals who found themselves in a low-autonomy role with unavoidable demands utilised the coping strategy of denial and self-criticism when stressors were high and were consistently associated with higher rates of mental health ailments. Furthermore, they found that an individual's acceptance of particular occupational demands assisted the individual to dilute the impact these demands had on mental health symptoms.

Attorneys tend to gravitate towards negative coping mechanisms such as excessive alcohol consumption (Thornhill, 2019). However, Kobasa (1982) found that among stressed attorneys, those who used fewer avoidance coping strategies (denial and attempts to avoid and minimise the effects of a stressful situation) showed fewer symptoms of psychological and physical strain than did attorneys who engaged in avoidance coping. Kobasa (1982) also established

that in the legal industry, social support failed to significantly act as a stress-resistance factor. However, more recent research on this subject is lacking and this study will aim to address this gap.

Li and He (2011) found that positive coping behaviour has a significant positive correlation with psychological capital. Furthermore, Peterson and Byron (2008) propose that the psychological capital composite is a strong predictor of coping and wellbeing. This is supported by a study done by Riolli et al. (2012), who theorised that higher levels of psychological capital allow individuals to view situations in a more positive light and thus employ a more productive coping style.

The research findings suggest that the mental health challenges of the legal profession is a phenomenon worth investigating from a local perspective, as South African research on the subject in the legal industry is sparse. Little mental health research has been done in the South African legal industry specifically; even research for the general South African population on mental health issues is sparse. In general, coping behaviours in the legal industry remains under-researched. This study will illustrate the further need to investigate the phenomenon to gain a greater understanding of legal professionals' wellbeing and the challenges they face when dealing with their demanding roles. In particular, the research will need to establish whether there are any significant relationships between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour in the legal industry specifically. South African research within the legal industry environment is also yet to establish whether certain socio-demographic groups among legal professionals differ on psychological capital, levels of emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour strategies.

A review of the current literature on the relationship dynamics between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour, as well as attorneys' emotional intelligence together with their socio-demographic characteristics (such as age, race, gender, tenure and job level), produced the following research problem statements:

- The lack of research gives the opportunity to broaden the knowledge of human resource professionals on the relationship between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour, which may inform employee wellbeing practices and training initiatives.
- The researcher found a lack of research which investigates the moderating effect of the socio-demographic characteristics of age, race, gender, tenure and job level and the mediating effect of emotional intelligence which may potentially influence the

relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour, especially in the South African legal profession context.

These problem statements lead to the following general research question:

- Does psychological capital predict positive coping behaviours in the legal profession, and if so, to what extent do socio-demographic characteristics and emotional intelligence influence the link between these variables?

From the above, the following research questions were formulated in terms of the literature review and empirical study.

1.2.1 Research questions with regard to the literature review

The literature review points out the following research problems:

- **Research question 1:** How does the literature conceptualise wellbeing as well as the constructs of psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour in the context of the legal profession?
- **Research question 2:** What is the theoretical relationship between psychological capital and emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour?
- **Research question 3:** What are the implications of the relationship dynamics between the psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour constructs for attorney wellbeing initiatives?

1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the empirical study

In terms of the empirical study, the following specific research questions have been formulated:

- **Research question 1:** What are the empirical inter-relationships between psychological capital (the antecedent variable), positive coping behaviour (the dependent variable) and emotional intelligence as mediating variable, as demonstrated in a sample of South African attorneys employed in the legal industry? (This research question relates to research hypothesis 1.)
- **Research question 2:** What is the effect of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) when mediated by an individual's level of emotional intelligence (mediating variable)? (This research question relates to research hypothesis 2.)

- **Research question 3:** What is (1) the effect of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) and (2) the effect of the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) when moderated by individuals' race, gender, age, tenure and job level characteristics? (This research question relates to research hypothesis 3.)
- **Research question 4:** Do individuals from different socio-demographic groups differ significantly regarding their psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour? (This research question relates to research hypothesis 4.)
- **Research question 5:** What recommendations can be formulated for industrial psychologists and human resource professionals for attorney wellbeing practices in the legal industry?

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

Research is the pursuit of answering questions that have not been answered, finding out the hidden truth that has not been discovered as yet and careful consideration of a problem that aims to contribute to an existing body of knowledge or theory by way of scientific means (Kothari, 2004; Qamar, 2018; Vermeulen et al., 2011). Research may take the form of exploring a new topic, describing a specific phenomenon, explaining why a phenomenon occurs or a combination of these approaches (Suharsaputra, 2014).

Given the research questions as discussed above, the following aims of this study are formulated as follows:

1.3.1 General aim

The general aim of the research is to explore the nature and the magnitude of the associations between psychological capital (independent variable) and positive coping behaviour (outcome variable), the effect of emotional intelligence (mediating variable) and socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, race, tenure and job level (moderating variables). The research will inform employee wellbeing practices for South African attorneys working in the legal industry.

1.3.2 Specific aim

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

1.3.2.1 Literature review

Research aim 1: To conceptualise wellbeing in the legal profession context and the constructs of the research literature, namely psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

Research aim 2: To explore the theoretical relationship dynamics between psychological capital constructs, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

Research aim 3: To establish the implications of the relationship dynamics between the psychological capital constructs, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour for attorney wellbeing initiatives.

1.3.2.2 Empirical study

Research aim 1: To assess the empirical inter-relationships between psychological capital (the independent variable), positive coping behaviour (the dependent variable) and emotional intelligence as the mediating variable. (This research aim relates to research hypothesis 1.)

Research aim 2: To assess whether the effect of the independent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an individual's level of emotional intelligence. (This research aim relates to research hypothesis 2.)

Research aim 3: To assess (1) the effect of the independent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour), and (2) the effect of emotional intelligence (mediating variable) on positive coping behaviour (dependent variable), when moderated by individuals' age, gender, ethnic, tenure and job level characteristics. (This research aim relates to research hypothesis 3.)

Research aim 4: To assess whether attorneys from different socio-demographic groups (i.e. age, gender, race, tenure and job level) differ significantly with regard to psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour. (This research aim relates to research hypothesis 4).

Research aim 5: To formulate conclusions and recommendations for industrial psychologists and human resource professionals in regard to attorney wellbeing practices in the legal profession.

1.4 STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE

Addressing and providing adequate wellbeing support to attorneys in a demanding working environment has been one of the greatest challenges for industrial psychologists and human resources professionals in the legal industry in the last couple of years. Owing to the stressful

nature of the job, it has been evident that employers need to have a firmer grasp on understanding the underpinning factors which contribute to positive coping behaviour. In doing so, industrial psychologists and human resource professionals could provide better wellbeing initiatives and support to attorneys practising in the legal industry.

The factors underlying positive coping behaviours by South African attorneys seem complex. There are many factors which may contribute, affect, limit or promote attorney coping behaviours. The dynamic interplay of psychological capital, emotional intelligence, positive coping behaviour and socio-demographic characteristics has been under-studied in a South African context. The objective of this study was to be a starting point for an investigation of the relationship dynamics between these factors.

At a **theoretical level**, the research may be useful to explore the theoretical relationship between psychological capital (independent variable), emotional intelligence (mediating variable), socio-demographic characteristics, namely age, gender, race, tenure and job level (as moderating variables), and positive coping behaviours (dependent variable). If significant positive relationships are found in the research literature, they will inform future attorney wellbeing and training initiatives within the legal industry. Furthermore, the study will create a greater understanding of the intricate dynamics between these constructs and the findings will contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the subject. The literature review may also help to identify the theoretical and empirical gaps in research which this research study may help to address. As such, the present research may add new knowledge and insights that contribute to the wellbeing literature.

At an **empirical level**, the research will empirically test the relationship of the variables, as manifested in the South African legal profession context (an under-researched area), and possibly the predictive relationship psychological capital and emotional intelligence may have with positive coping behaviour in the legal industry. Additionally, the study may indicate whether attorneys from different socio-demographic groups differ in terms of their psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviours.

On a **practical level**, industrial psychologists and human resource professionals could develop a greater understanding of psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour and their dynamic interaction as relevant to the legal profession. This could result in positive wellbeing initiatives in the workplace. Additionally, this study may guide selection processes for future attorneys and these learnings could also be utilised to establish personal wellbeing and developmental initiatives for existing attorneys in practice.

To date, it appears that no South African research has been conducted on the predictive nature of psychological capital and emotional intelligence in relation to positive coping behaviour within the legal profession. As a result, this study could potentially be considered ground-breaking as an opening for new avenues for investigation and lead the way for future research on this topic.

1.5 THE RESEARCH MODEL

The seminal research model of Mouton and Marais (2000) will serve as a framework for this research. This model considers social sciences research as a collaborative human activity in which social reality is studied objectively in order to gain a valid understanding of it. This model incorporates five dimensions of social science research:

- Sociological dimension – assuming that research involves society and will require collaboration from others.
- Ontological dimension – understanding that social research is guided by societal reality and its assumptions.
- Teleological dimension – taking into account the ultimate intention of the research, which is to gain a better understanding of society.
- Epistemological dimension – an attempt by the researcher to determine what is true, taking into account the relationship between the reality, the researcher and what is valid.
- Methodological dimension – the objective techniques employed by the researcher in pursuit of reality.

Mouton and Marais' (2000) research model is a systems theoretical model with three subsystems which interact with each other: the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual resources and the research process itself. These subsystems also deal with the research domain of a specific discipline. For this research paper, the research domain will be Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

1.6 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

A paradigm refers to the structure of theory and research. A paradigm gives a framework to the definitive confines of the research and includes the basic assumptions, key topics, models of quality research and the research methods or techniques, as well as examining the philosophical constructs of social sciences (Jonker & Pennink, 2010; Neuman, 2011). A paradigm also presents a clear and inherent representation of the researcher's worldview, including his/her values and beliefs (O'Neil & Koekemoer, 2016).

1.6.1 Field of study

The study was conducted in the field of industrial and organisational psychology, which has been described by Landy and Conte (2016) as the application of psychological principles, theory and research to problems individuals encounter in the business environment. Industrial psychology, historically called personnel psychology (Muchinsky, 2006), is the study of how individuals behave within work settings. In broader terms, industrial psychology is concerned with human behaviour in the workplace, which involves the application of psychological principles (Giberson, 2015; Muchinsky, 2006; Riggio, 2017).

Organisational psychology is closely related to industrial or personnel psychology, and concerns the study of work at the organisational level to understand how workers function in an organisation and how the organisation functions as a whole (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2011; Giberson, 2015).

The aim of industrial psychology research is to add to the existing body of knowledge regarding behaviour in the workplace with the aim of improving individual behaviour, the working environment and employee wellbeing (Riggio, 2017). As such, industrial psychologists act as both practitioner and scientist (Riggio, 2017). In this particular study, the researcher wished to build on the existing body of knowledge regarding the interplay of emotional capital and positive coping behaviour. In other words, the researcher wanted to establish which psychological capital constructs may predict positive coping behaviours in attorneys. The researcher hopes that the findings of the study will provide guidance to law firms regarding the preventative and intervention measures required to effectively manage coping behaviours among their legal staff complement.

1.6.2 The intellectual climate

The intellectual climate refers to a range of meta-theoretical values and beliefs that are shared by practitioners of a particular field of study or discipline (Mouton & Marais, 2000).

The relevant constructs for this study include psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour. The literature review is presented from a cognitive-behaviouristic paradigm and the empirical study is presented from a post-positivist research paradigm.

1.6.2.1 The literature review

Thematically, the cognitive-behaviourist paradigm relates to the constructs of psychological capital, emotional intelligence and coping strategies.

The cognitive-behaviourist paradigm is based on scientific principles of classical and operant conditioning, along with observational learning. This paradigm assumes that a person will learn by observing others (modelling), reinforcement and through the extinction and shaping of behaviour (Sharf, 2012). This paradigm proposes that human responses are determined by the way individuals represent and assess a situation (Kaila, 2006). In other words, individuals' interpretation of a situation, and not the situation itself, determines their responses to the events; the situation does not exercise direct control over the behaviour.

Bandura (2001) states that human behaviour is explained in terms of continuous reciprocal interactions between cognitive, behavioural and environmental influences. Simply put, behaviour is mainly learnt by observing the environment. Skinner (1953) took a different approach and used operant conditioning to study the way in which environmental stimuli could affect individual behaviour. Operant conditioning centres on past history and the consequences of behaviour, and applies positive and negative reinforcement in changing behaviour or learning new behaviour. More recently, Rabipour and Raz (2012) postulated that learning does not occur in a simple stimulus-response manner, but in a stimulus-cognitive-processing-response manner. Accordingly, the individual will process an event or situation to make sense of the environment by means of an organised cognitive structure.

This study wished to assess the state of employee wellbeing within the legal profession in South Africa. As the cognitive-behavioural paradigm concerns itself with both problematic cognitive and observable behaviours, the researcher wanted to establish the effect of psychological capital on attorneys' positive coping behaviour through their emotional intelligence, as well as whether those from different socio-demographic groups show different results. The cognitive-behavioural paradigm proposes structured, problem-solving treatment methodologies which enable the individual to recognise and modify the problematic thinking patterns which may be causing the distress (Milton, 2001). Should the study establish the link between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour, industrial psychologists and human resource professionals may utilise the findings in their continuous efforts to develop suitable wellbeing interventions.

1.6.2.2 The empirical study

The empirical research will be presented from the post-positivism research paradigm.

Post-positivism is defined as the pursuit of "warranted assertability" as opposed to "truth" (Lather, 1990). Post-positivism takes a meta-theoretical position which aims to critically analyse and amend positivism (Bergman, 2016). The post-positivist paradigm accepts that the research outcome is only an estimation of the truth rather than the truth itself (Popper, 2002).

The researcher needs to strive to be as neutral as possible, as a state of total objectivity is impossible (Cook & Campbell, 1979).

Post-positivism acknowledges the shortcomings of all measurements and highlights the importance of using multiple measures. It also highlights the advantage of utilising a combination of multiple theories, data sources, methods or investigators (called triangulation) in the study of a single phenomenon. This assists the researchers to better explain, enrich and analyse data, as well as to reduce bias (Houghton et al., 2012). Post-positivists regard both quantitative and qualitative methods to be valid approaches, whereas positivists give emphasis to quantitative methods (Taylor & Lindlof, 2011). The present study will be conducted using cross-sectional quantitative research.

Post-positivist research has the following characteristics (Bisel & Adame, 2017; Ryan, 2006):

- Research is broad, not specialised: an array of different things meets the requirements of research.
- Theory and practice cannot be separated.
- The researcher's motivation for the research is a vital and fundamental consideration.
- Precise techniques for collecting and categorising information are now acceptable.

From the above, it is evident that the post-positivist framework was most appropriate for this study.

1.6.3 The market of intellectual resources

The market of intellectual resources covers the collection of beliefs that have a direct effect on the epistemic status of scientific statements (Mouton & Marais, 2000). The following sections present the meta-theoretical statements, conceptual descriptions about psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour, as well as the central hypothesis and theoretical and methodological assumptions for this study. Meta-theoretical statements embody the assumptions underlying the theories, models and paradigms that form the context of a specific study (Mouton & Marais, 2000). Based on the literature review, the conceptual models used in this research were psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviours.

1.6.3.1 Psychological capital

Psychological capital is the individual's positive development potential (Avolio & Luthans, 2006), and the individual's ability to gain a better understanding of life's circumstances by continuously adapting to enhance and improve on personal productivity (Lyubomirsky et al., 2005). The Integrated Model of Psychological Capital (Youssef & Luthans, 2007) was applied to study the construct, whereas the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) (Luthans, Youssef et al., 2007) was employed as the measurement tool. The questionnaire consists of a 24-item self-report inventory, measuring the following dimensions: hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism. Chapter 4 outlines the psychometric properties of the instruments.

1.6.3.2 Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is defined as an individual's capacity to recognise their own feelings and those of others for motivating themselves and managing their emotions and relationships well (Goleman, 1998). The Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) was applied to study the construct, while the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009) was employed as the measurement tool. The AES scale (Schutte et al., 2009) consists of a 33-item self-report inventory, which measures the following four dimensions: perception of emotions, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilising emotions. The self-report scale is used to measure the traits and characteristics of emotional intelligence. Chapter 4 outlines the psychometric properties of the instruments.

1.6.3.3 Positive coping

Folkman & Lazarus (1980) describe coping as any cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage, minimise or tolerate situations which an individual may find threatening to their wellbeing. The Transactional Model of Stress, Appraisal and Coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) was applied to study the construct, while the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory (PCBI) (Coetzee et al., 2017; Marx, 2016) was utilised as the measurement tool. The PCBI scale consists of a 29-item self-report inventory which measures the following dimensions: inventive coping (4 items), engaging coping (5 items), intentional coping (10 items), influential coping (4 items) and pandemic coping (6 items). The self-report scale is used to measure the personal resources employed by individuals to cope positively. Chapter 4 outlines the psychometric properties of the instruments.

1.6.3.4 Overarching theoretical lens: conservation of resources

The conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 2002) was used to explore and explain the relationship dynamics among the constructs. The theory describes human motivation to

maintain the status quo of psychological resources in stressful situations or in pursuit of new psychological resources. Hobfoll (2002) theorised that a change in an individual's psychological resources (a loss or a threat of loss) would result in stress. Hobfoll's (2002) theory encompassed two principles:

- The principle of primary resource loss – an individual would feel greater impairment if they were to lose a resource, as opposed to gaining a resource.
- The principle of resource investment – an individual is likely to invest resources in the development of another resource or to protect current resources.

Table 1.1 summarises the constructs, their respective sub-elements, the theoretical model on which each construct will be based and the measurement instrument assigned to the construct:

Table 1.1

Core Constructs, Theoretical Models and Measuring Instruments

Construct	Core aspects to be measured	Measuring instrument	Core theoretical model
Psychological capital	Self-efficacy Optimism Hope Resilience	Psychological capital questionnaire (PCQ) (Luthans et al., 2007)	Integrated model of psychological capital (Youssef & Luthans, 2007)
Emotional intelligence	Perception of emotions Managing own emotions Managing others' emotions Utilisation of emotions	Assessing emotions scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009)	Four-branch model of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997)
Positive coping behaviour	Inventive coping behaviour Engaging coping behaviour Intentional coping behaviour Influential coping behaviour Pandemic coping behaviour	Positive coping behavioural inventory (PCBI) (Coetzee et al., 2017)	Transactional model of stress, appraisal and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984)

1.6.4 Central hypothesis

The central hypothesis of the research is formulated as follows:

The antecedent variables (psychological capital) will have a positive relationship with the outcome variable (positive coping behaviour) through emotional intelligence (as a mediating variable).

The hypothesis further assumes that the relationship between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour is moderated by individuals' socio-demographic

characteristics (race, gender, age, tenure and job level). The relationship is more positive for certain socio-demographic groups than others. Groups will also differ significantly regarding the construct variables.

1.6.4.1 Theoretical assumptions

The following theoretical assumptions are addressed in this research:

- There is a need for preliminary research to isolate the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour.
- The attorneys' level of emotional intelligence will influence their approach to positive coping behaviour in the workplace.
- The attorneys' psychological capital and emotional intelligence (psychological resources) can be moderated by his/her socio-demographic characteristics (i.e. age, race, gender and job level)
- Understanding the dynamic relationship between psychological capital, emotional intelligence, positive coping behaviour and socio-demographic characteristics may inform workplace wellbeing initiatives for attorneys in the legal industry.

1.6.4.2 Methodological assumptions

Methodological assumptions are theories relating to the nature of social sciences and scientific research (Mouton & Marais, 2000). The following methodological assumptions affect the nature and structure of the research domain.

(a) Sociological dimension

According to Mouton and Marais (2000), the sociological dimension describes scientific research as a collaborative activity. This dimension conforms to the requirements of the sociological research ethos which draws on the research community for its contributions in the area of this study. This research was non-experimental in nature and focused on the quantitative analysis of variables and concepts that will be described in the chapters dealing with empirical research and research results.

(b) Ontological dimension

The ontological dimension refers to how individuals view reality. Neuman (2011) described this dimension as concerning itself with the issue of what exists or the fundamental nature of reality. This research measured properties of the constructs of psychological capital, socio-demographic characteristics, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

(c) Teleological dimension

The teleological dimension considers research to be an intentional and goal-directed activity, where the main aim is to understand the phenomena (Mouton & Marais, 2000). The objectives of this research are clearly established, namely, to investigate the relationship dynamics between psychological capital, emotional intelligence, socio-demographic characteristics and positive coping behaviour. The practical aim of this research was to further the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology by contributing knowledge which may inform and enable organisations' employee wellbeing practices.

(d) Epistemological dimension

The epistemic dimension is concerned with the creation of knowledge by focusing on the most valid ways to obtain the truth (Neuman, 2011). Under the epistemological dimension, the aim of the research was to provide a valid and reliable understanding of reality. This research endeavoured to generate valid and reliable results by utilising a well-structured research design.

(e) Methodological dimension

The methodological dimension refers to the decision-making process in scientific research which is concerned with the application of scientific methods to investigate phenomena. Research methodologies can be categorised as quantitative, qualitative or participatory research (Mouton & Marais, 2000). This study presented cross-sectional, quantitative, exploratory research in the form of a literature review on job resources, psychological capital, emotional intelligence, socio-demographic characteristics and positive coping behaviour. Quantitative research was presented in the empirical study.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a strategic framework that acts as a bridge between the research questions and the execution of the research, or the researcher's plan of action to answer the research question (Durrheim, 2010; Moissenko et al., 2016). Suhaib (2020) described research design as the logical summary of the combination of components and the framework of techniques the researcher will employ to address the research question. The elements of the research design are discussed in relation to this research.

1.7.1 Exploratory research

Exploratory research aims to examine relatively unknown areas of research and can almost always yield new insights into a topic for research (Rubin & Babbie, 2014). Some of the main purposes of exploratory research are to gain new insights, to undertake a primary

investigation, and to determine central concepts and constructs, which will assist researchers to determine future research priorities (Mouton & Marais, 2000). This research was exploratory as it compared various theoretical perspectives on psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

1.7.2 Descriptive research

Descriptive research aims to provide a detailed, systematic picture of a situation, social setting or relationship. Descriptive research commences with a clearly defined issue or question which describes the issue accurately and delivers a detailed picture of it (Kumar, 2019; Neuman, 2011; Veal, 2017).

In the literature study, descriptive research was applied to conceptualise the constructs of psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour. In the empirical study, descriptive research was conducted to ascertain the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample as well as the means, standard deviations and Cronbach's alphas (internal consistency reliability) of the constructs of psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

1.7.3 Explanatory research

The explanatory research builds on exploratory and descriptive research (Neuman, 2011), as it aims to provide causal explanations of the relationships between variables (Rubin & Babbie, 2014; Veal, 2017). Explanatory research uses an existing social theory or research explanation and then proceeds to detail a new problem in an effort to establish how well the explanation holds up. This type of research attempts to determine whether or not the theory needs to be modified or is limited to only specific conditions (Kumar, 2019; Neuman, 2011). In order to determine causality, the study needs to comply with four requirements, namely: (1) association (the association between variables), (2) time priority (the order in which things happen), (3) non-spurious relationship (the relationship between variables should make sense and be generally tested by means of data analysis) and (4) rationale (explanation of the results from a pre-established hypothesis and tested by means of data analysis) (Veal, 2017).

In the empirical study, the researcher looked to explain the nature, direction and magnitude of the relationship between the variables by means of a cross-sectional quantitative study. A cross-sectional design represents a cost-efficient use of resources and the most useful design at the early stages of research, or when facing new research questions pertaining to unknown phenomena such as the present research (Spector, 2019). This form of research was applicable to the relationship between psychological capital, emotional intelligence, socio-

demographic characteristics and positive coping behaviours for the group. However, some of the limitations of cross-sectional research design are that the study cannot be used to analyse behaviour over time, it cannot determine cause and effect and the study (essentially a snapshot in time) cannot be considered an accurate representation, but merely the nature, magnitude and direction of links between variables (Spector, 2019).

As stated previously, the study seeks to investigate the intermediary effect of emotional intelligence on the link between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour, testing the mediation effect of the individual's emotional intelligence on their positive coping behaviour. This level of investigation will aid in understanding the antecedents, intermediary mechanisms and outcome of positive coping behaviour which will inform the importance of psychological resources in the workplace. However, because of the exploratory cross-sectional nature of the research design, no attempt will be made to establish cause–effect relations, only the magnitude, direction and nature of the links between the variables. Generally, cross-sectional studies employing mediation analysis are seen to contribute new theoretical insights in exploratory research (Disabato, 2016). It is important to emphasise that the research design employed mediation analysis for explanation purposes and not mediation for design (i.e. true causal effects over time) purposes. Cross-sectional mediation analysis for explanation lends insight into the probable reason for outcomes (i.e. positive coping behaviour) and, as such, helps generate ideas for future longitudinal mediational designs (Mitchell & Maxwell, 2013).

The study further sought to assess the moderation or interaction effect of individuals' socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) on the relationship between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour. The study focused on measuring whether the moderation variables of socio-demographic characteristics (which are relatively stable traits) will modify the strength and direction of (1) the effect of psychological capital and (2) the effect of emotional intelligence on individuals' positive coping behaviour. This may help to inform wellbeing interventions at the individual and organisational level within the legal profession context.

1.7.4 Validity

The main purpose of using a research design is to plan and structure the research project in such a manner that it guarantees that the literature review and empirical study are valid for all the research variables (Mouton & Marais, 2000).

Validity refers to the extent the research information reflects the true nature of the phenomenon being studied (Veal, 2017). Validity is then further narrowed down to internal and

external validity. Internal validity refers to whether the variables adequately represent the phenomenon (Veal, 2017), as well as the extent to which the relationships between the variables have been correctly interpreted (Punch, 2014). External validity, however, refers to the generalisability of outcomes to situations and populations beyond the study (Rubin & Babbie, 2014; Veal, 2017).

1.7.4.1 Validity of the literature review

The validity of the literature review in this study was ensured by making use of recent and relevant literature in terms of the nature, problems and aims of the research. The research ensured that the most recent literature sources were consulted but referred to classical and contemporary mainstream studies where applicable.

1.7.4.2 Validity of the empirical research

The study ensured internal validity by utilising suitable, standardised measuring instruments. In doing so, the research conducted a critical examination of the measuring instruments to establish the face-validity, criterion-related validity, construct validity and content validity. The study used convenience sampling to target the total attorney population working at law firms in Gauteng, South Africa.

External validity was ensured by targeting South Africa's attorney population practising at a law firm. The study included participants from different socio-demographic groups such as race, gender, age, and job level to reflect the socio-demographic profile of the population. This increased the generalisability of the findings to the target population (Neuman, 2011; Veal, 2017).

1.7.5 Reliability

Reliability is described as the dependability of a measuring instrument (Punch, 2014). In the literature study, reliability pertains to the collation of available, accurate, impartial and comprehensive information (Fink, 2010), while in the empirical study, reliability was measured by means of internal consistency measured.

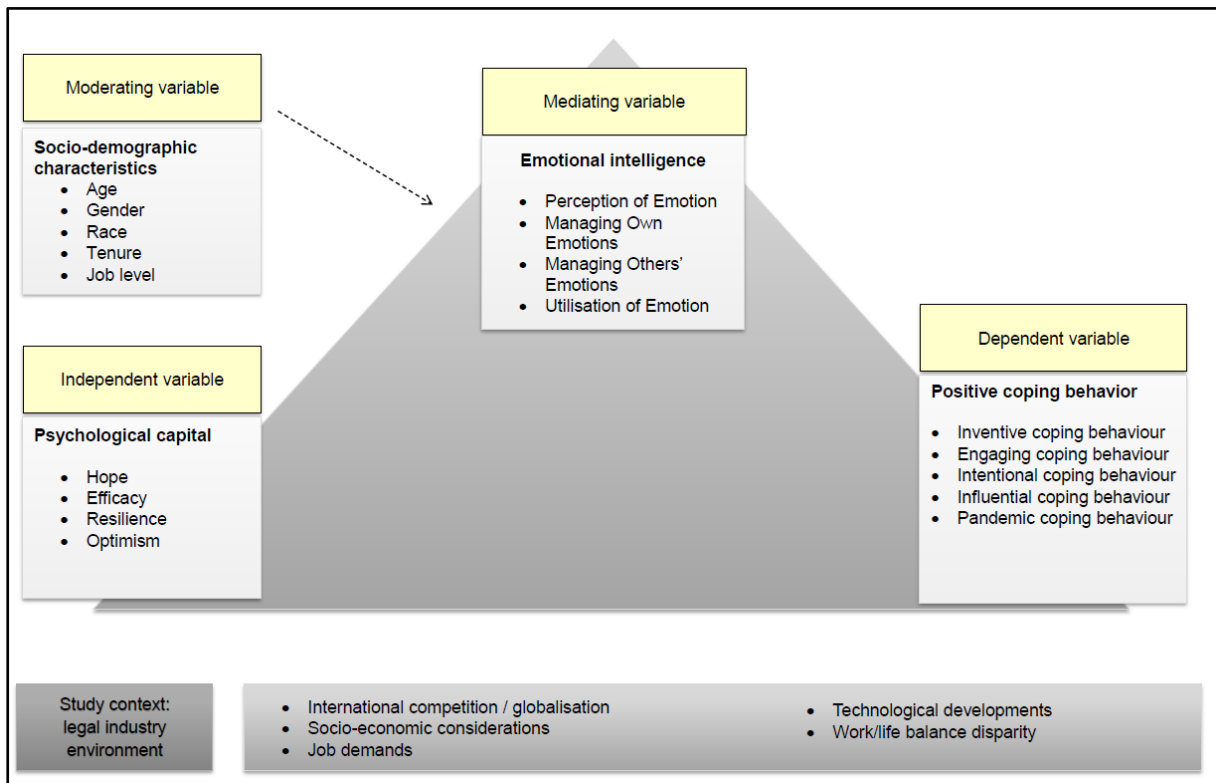
The internal consistency was measured utilising Cronbach's coefficient alpha. This statistical procedure indicates the average correlation among all scale items (Punch, 2014). Ideally, Cronbach's coefficient should be greater than .70. This aspect will be discussed in Chapter 4.

1.7.6 Research variables

The aim of the research was to explore the relationship between the psychological capital variable (independent variable), socio-demographic characteristics (moderating variable),

emotional intelligence (mediating variable) and positive coping behaviours (dependent variable), as illustrated in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1
Levels of Investigation



Source: Author's own work

In summary, the study wished to investigate the relationship dynamics between all the variables. The research assessed the moderation effect of the relatively stable traits of socio-demographic characteristics on the relationship between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour and whether or not it significantly modifies the strength and direction of the attorneys' positive coping behaviour. In addition, the study wanted to measure the mediating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour.

The study has the potential to inform employee wellbeing practices in the legal industry at both an individual and an organisational level.

1.7.7 The unit of research

In social science studies, individuals are typically the units of analysis. The unit of analysis differentiates between the various characteristics of the individuals, organisations, groups, social artefacts and social actions (Cohen, Manion et al., 2013; Rubin & Rabbie, 2014).

According to Douglas and Craig (2006), an unit of research is the geographic range and the group of the individuals or organisations within it. In other words, the unit of research specifies the focal object of the study (De Vos et al., 2011).

Mouton and Marais (1996) established four main categories or units of analysis: individuals, groups, organisations and social artefacts. In this study, the researcher focused on the constructs of psychological resources, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour, taking into account the individual scores on each of the measuring instruments (individual level), the general scores on each of the measuring instruments (group level) as well as the socio-demographic characteristics (subgroup level).

The purpose of the study was to establish the relationship dynamics between psychological resources, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour to make informed recommendations for wellbeing programme initiatives within the legal industry.

1.7.8 Delimitations

- The study was narrowed down to research dealing with psychological capital, emotional intelligence, socio-demographic characteristics and the positive coping behaviours of South African attorneys in particular.
- The research targeted practising attorneys by way of convenience sampling and the findings relate to the legal industry specifically. The legal environment in which the attorneys operate is unique and the research findings may not apply to organisations that operate in other industries.
- The study relied on self-report measures. Common risks associated with self-report tools are common method variance and social desirability biases.
- The study intended to serve as preliminary exploratory cross-sectional research which was limited to only exploring the links between the constructs of psychological capital, emotional intelligence, socio-demographic characteristics and positive coping behaviours.
- Should the research find a significant positive relationship between these variables, it will prove useful for future researchers addressing matters related to these constructs.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

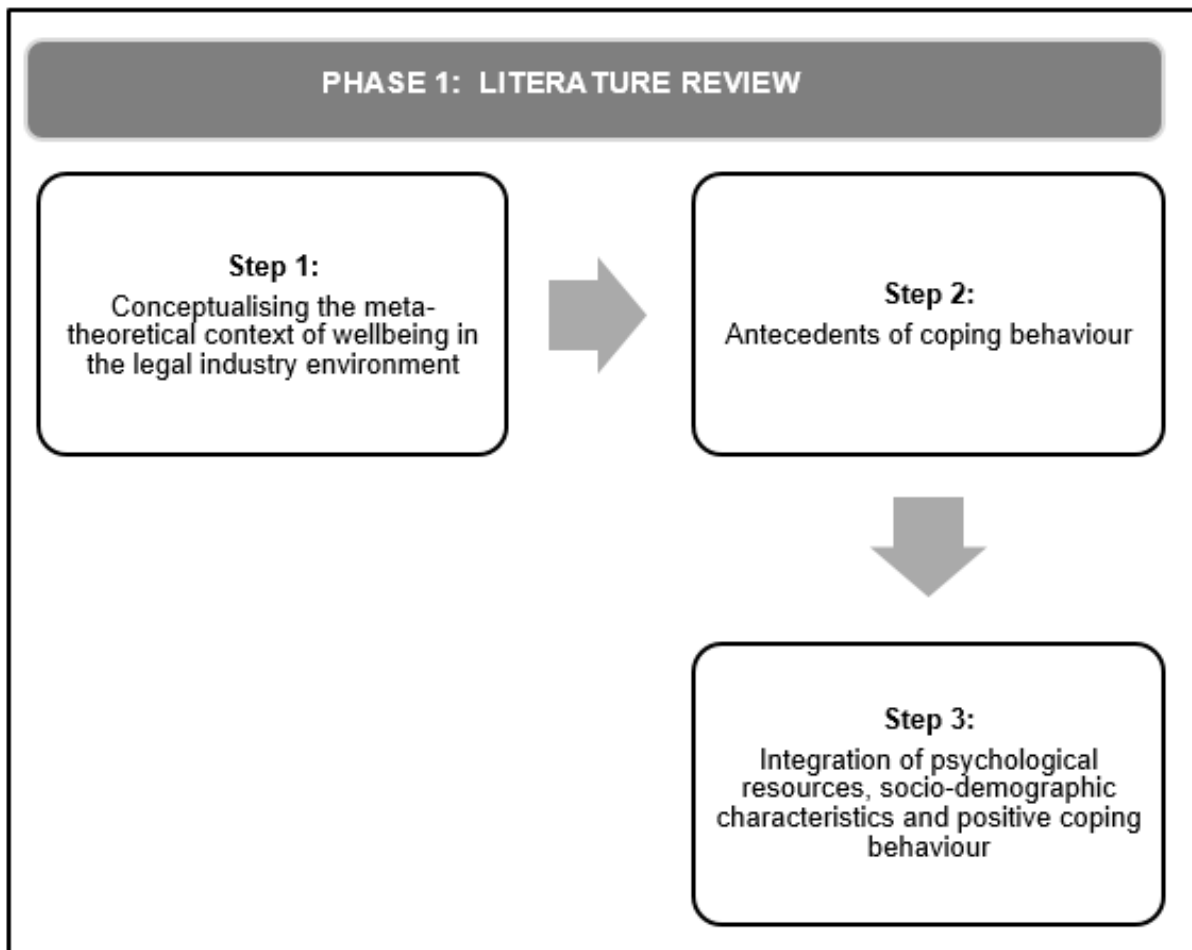
The study was conducted in two different phases, namely a literature review and an empirical study. Figure 1.2 gives an overview of the two different phases.

1.8.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review focused on the main constructs of the research, namely psychological capital, emotional intelligence, socio-demographic characteristics and positive coping behaviour.

Figure 1.2

Overview of the Literature Study



Source: Author's own work

Step 1: Conceptualising the meta-theoretical context of wellbeing in the legal industry environment

This step in the literature review conceptualised the context of attorney wellbeing in the legal industry as well as the construct of positive coping behaviour. The study also explored the influence that socio-demographic characteristics (age, race, gender, tenure and job level) have on positive coping behaviour. This will be discussed in Chapter 2.

Step 2: Antecedents of coping behaviour

This step conceptualised the antecedents of coping behaviour, namely psychological resources (psychological capital constructs and emotional intelligence). The influence that socio-demographic characteristics (age, race, gender, tenure and job level) have on the psychological resources was also explored. This will be discussed in Chapter 3.

Step 3: Integration of psychological resources, socio-demographic characteristics and positive coping behaviour

The final step of the literature study consisted of a theoretical integration of psychological capital and emotional intelligence, socio-demographic characteristics and positive coping behaviour, by means of the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 2002), theory that was used as the overarching theoretical lens. The implications of the relationship between these constructs for wellbeing practices in the legal profession were discussed and the research hypotheses were justified. This will be discussed in Chapter 3.

1.8.2 Phase 2: The empirical study

The study was conducted on practising attorneys working in the legal industry in South Africa. Figure 1.3 gives an overview of the different phases.

Step 1: Choosing and justifying the research approach

The study followed a cross-sectional quantitative research design, which examined population data at a specific point in time (Brink et al., 2012). This will be discussed in greater detail in the research method chapter (Chapter 4).

Step 2: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

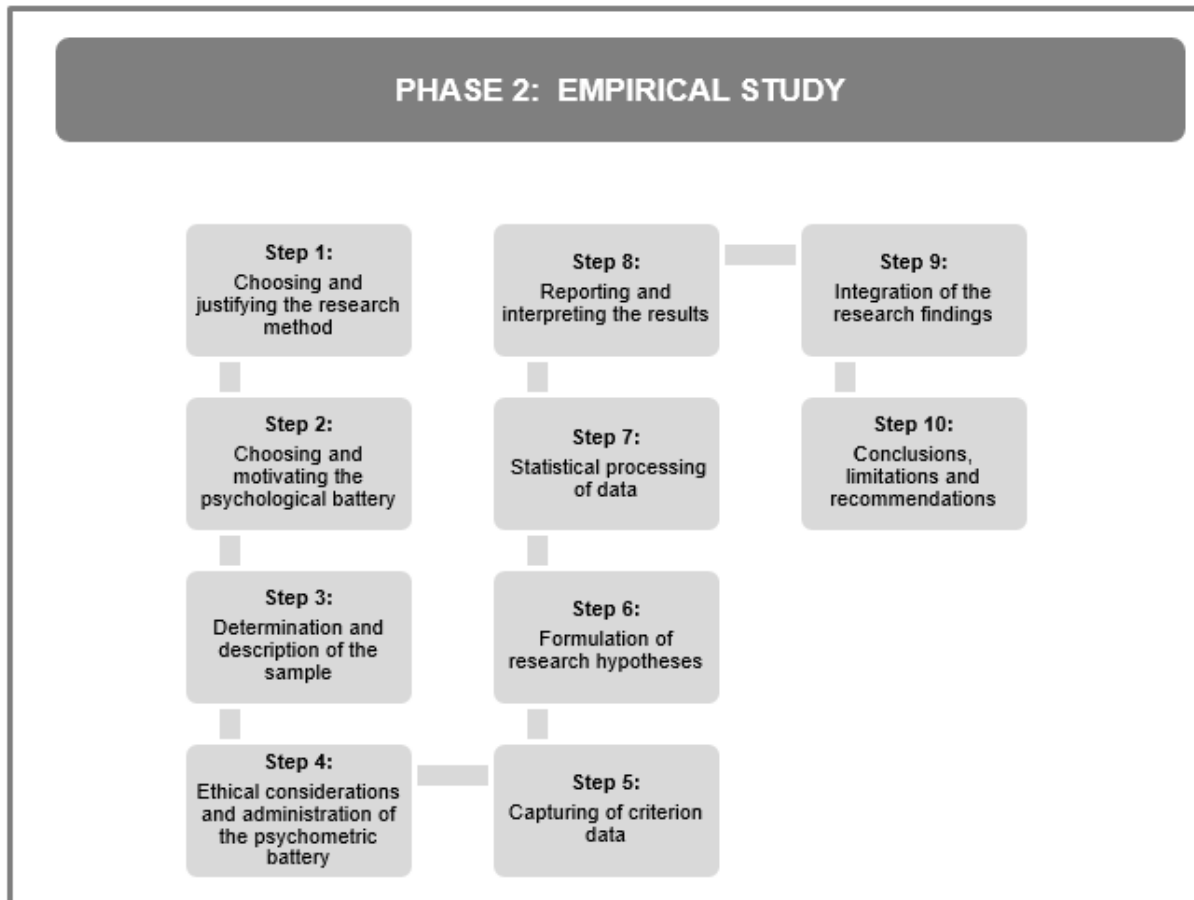
The psychometric properties of the measuring instruments were described. These instruments were intended to measure the psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour as well as to identify the socio-demographic characteristics (age, race, gender, tenure and job level) of the respondents. This is discussed in greater detail in the research method chapter (Chapter 4).

Step 3: Determination and description of the sample

The population for this study consisted of attorneys working in the legal industry in South Africa. The sampling method and the participants are discussed in the research method chapter (Chapter 4).

Figure 1.3

Overview of the Empirical Study



Source: Author's own work

Step 4: Ethical considerations and administration of the psychometric battery

An ethical clearance certificate (see Appendix) was obtained from the research ethics committee of the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at University of South Africa. Also, the researcher considered the South African legislative requirements and the psychometric battery were deemed scientifically reliable, valid, fair and free from discrimination in accordance with section 8 of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998.

Step 5: Capturing of the criterion data

The participants' responses to each of the items on the three questionnaires were captured in an electronic database (Microsoft Excel). Thereafter, the data was converted to an SPSS data file with the assistance of an independent statistician.

Step 6: Formulation of the research hypotheses

The research hypotheses will be discussed in the research method chapter (Chapter 4).

Step 7: Statistical processing of the data

The statistical process involves three major stages, namely descriptive statistical analysis, correlation analysis and inferential statistical analysis. The statistical procedures will be discussed in the research method chapter (Chapter 4).

Step 8: Reporting and interpreting the results

The results were discussed and presented in a systematic framework, supplemented by tables, diagrams and/or graphs. This format ensured a clear and articulate interpretation of the findings, which are discussed in Chapter 5.

Step 9: Integration of the research findings

The empirical research results are integrated into a discussion of the literature review findings in Chapter 6.

Step 10: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

The final step in the process concluded the research findings and their integration with the theory. In conclusion, the limitations will be discussed and recommendations made in terms of the constructs, employee wellbeing practices and future research recommendations in Chapter 6.

1.9 EXPECTED RESEARCH CONTRIBUTION

The study sought to prove the positive relationship between attorneys' psychological resources (i.e. psychological capital and emotional intelligence) and positive coping behaviours. Additionally, the study aimed to prove the mediating effect of attorneys' emotional intelligence on psychological capital and positive coping behaviour, as well as the moderating effect their socio-demographic factors have on their positive coping behaviours. Although research has firmly established the link between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour, little mental health research has been done in the South African legal industry specifically. This study wished to contribute to the industry-specific body of knowledge by highlighting the need to investigate the phenomenon in an effort to gain a greater understanding of legal professionals' wellbeing and the challenges they face in dealing with their demanding roles.

The researcher hopes that the findings of this study will help to inform wellbeing practices in the legal profession. In particular, the study sought to make valuable suggestions regarding intervention strategies to improve attorneys' psychological resources. Furthermore, the study wished to provide guidance for industrial psychologists and human resource professionals on the practical application of the study results, such as recruitment initiatives and bespoke and

targeted training relating to emotional intelligence and the specific psychological capital constructs.

1.10 CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters are presented as follows:

- Chapter 1: Scientific overview of the research
- Chapter 2: Meta-theoretical context of the research: wellbeing and positive coping behaviour in the legal profession
- Chapter 3: Psychological resources: psychological capital and emotional intelligence
- Chapter 4: Research method
- Chapter 5: Research results
- Chapter 6: Discussion, conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the scientific direction of the study. More specifically, it explained the background to and motivation for the research, the aim of the study, the research model and paradigm perspectives, the theoretical research, the design and methodology as well as the central hypothesis and research method. The research will explore the interplay between the antecedent variables (psychological resources), emotional intelligence and socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) and its effect on individuals' positive coping behaviour within the legal industry. This study may inform industrial psychologists and human resource professionals on more effective wellbeing practices.

CHAPTER 2

META-THEORETICAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY – WELLBEING AND POSITIVE COPING IN THE LEGAL PROFESSION

This chapter conceptualises positive coping behaviour in the context of employee wellbeing in the legal profession. The chapter is intended to give insight into the wellbeing landscape of the legal industry in particular and give greater understanding to the phenomenon of positive coping behaviour and the role of socio-demographic variables.

2.1 WELLBEING IN THE LEGAL PROFESSION

The legal profession is fraught with stress and with experiences which challenge legal professionals' wellbeing: long hours (Thornton, 2014; Tsai et al., 2009), demanding clients (Seligman et al., 2001), alcohol and substance abuse and higher than average rates of mental illnesses such as depression and anxiety (Krill et al., 2016). In 2016, the American Bar Association published a report on the wellbeing of attorneys which followed on a thorough investigation conducted by their task team. Their report concluded that the current mental health concerns were unsustainable in the profession, motivating for swift change and noting that attorney wellbeing ultimately contributed to the success of firms and that their wellbeing influenced ethics and professionalism within the profession (Buchanan et al., 2017).

Although the South African government took swift action in dealing with the Covid-19 pandemic by introducing a hard lockdown and accompanying regulations, early studies on the effect of the pandemic indicate an anticipated surge in levels of depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder and even suicide (Docrat et al., 2019). Data from previous pandemics (such as SARS and MERS) show that a pandemic has an adverse effect on those suffering from pre-existing mental health conditions and that it may result in exacerbating the duration and the severity of these pre-existing psychological conditions (Heim et al., 2019). Given the dire state of the mental health landscape in the legal profession in general, these are concerning findings and indicate that attorneys will be particularly vulnerable to the psychological effects of the pandemic.

2.1.1 Conceptualisation of wellbeing

Wellbeing is defined as a state of being or feeling happy, healthy and prosperous and being in a good state of existence, characterised by health and happiness ("wellbeing", n.d.). Although wellbeing has been an emerging research topic in the last few years, researchers have not agreed on its definition (Forgeard et al., 2011), perhaps due to wellbeing being such a complex construct (Dodge et al., 2012).

There is a link between wellbeing and coping with stress. Previous studies have indicated that every individual has a differential use of coping mechanisms, depending on their psychological wellbeing levels (Figueroa et al., 2005; Rabenu et al., 2017). Often, mindfulness has been suggested as a method of maintaining wellbeing and coping with stress (de Vibe et al., 2018).

In particular, South Africa has made great improvements since 1994. The political shift and the economic transformations that followed resulted in the country making great strides in reducing severe poverty, giving access to education and other basic needs. However, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development's (OECD) Better Life Index (2020), which measures the wellbeing of countries, rates South Africa as average. The index measures dimensions of income and wealth, jobs, housing, work–life balance, health status, education and skills, social connections, environmental quality, life satisfaction and personal security; however, South Africans graded themselves below average on all these dimensions (OECD Better Life Index, 2020). On life satisfaction, South Africans rated themselves a 4.7, which is a much lower than the OECD average of 6.5.

The Boston Consulting Group recently published a report on the link between wellbeing and wealth, positing that governments need not choose between citizen wellbeing and economic growth, as these constructs are not mutually exclusive (Hrotkó et al., 2018). According to the report, for countries such as South Africa with low levels of wellbeing, the government has to focus on areas such as education and health and give great consideration to employment levels, governance and economic growth. However, these are all areas where South African leadership is battling to get a grasp on (Business Tech, 2018).

In conjunction with the general wellbeing concerns of the South African population, the Covid-19 pandemic has added another complex layer to the country's wellbeing challenges (Kim et al., 2020). One-third of the South African population has a mental illness (Tromp et al., 2014) and these ailments will only be exacerbated by the circumstances of the pandemic. Although no formal South African research on the psychological effects of the pandemic is available yet, international findings have already pointed out the dire effect it is having on mental wellbeing. A Chinese study, conducted in January and February 2020, found that 54% of participants found the pandemic to be moderate to severe. The psychological impact is even more startling: 29% of respondents claimed severe anxiety and 17% depression as a result of the pandemic (Wang et al., 2017).

Across the world, governments have taken a different approach in managing the pandemic in their respective countries. South Africa is no different: at the time of writing the research paper, South Africa was the country with the longest regulated lockdown. In an effort to understand

the impact of the various government approaches, the University of Surrey, the London School of Economics and Nottingham Trent University have partnered to investigate the impact of these methodologies on the citizen's mental health and wellbeing (Health Management, 2020). The study hopes to include elements of health behaviour, attitude and responsiveness from participants in over 30 countries (Medical Xpress, 2020). By the end of 2020, once the task team has analysed the data they may shed some light and create a better understanding of people's reactions to the threats and implications of a pandemic.

In the legal industry in particular, where mental health concerns are widespread, the pandemic is likely to exacerbate the symptoms as attorneys will need to contend with a changing working landscape. Even if one assumes that there would be a minimal effect on the performance and work output of an attorney when working from home, the social distancing regulations are highly likely to negatively affect business development and client relationships. As the performance of senior attorneys is measured by the amount of new business generated, this is likely to raise their anxiety levels during the course of the pandemic (Jackson, 2020).

In conclusion, the effect and reach of the Covid-19 pandemic is unprecedented and current studies on the subject will aid the development of wellbeing policies, as the psychological consequences of the pandemic will need to be addressed. For the legal industry in particular, human resource professionals and industrial psychologists will have to carefully manage the aftermath of the pandemic as the wellbeing in the legal industry is already under strain. At its core, wellbeing involves feeling well which comes from experiencing happiness, health and prosperity (Davis, 2019). To achieve success in the legal profession, attorneys often have to compromise on work-life balance and healthy lifestyle choices. Consequently, the never-ending rat race and fast way of life comes at a great cost to some attorneys on the health and happiness front, which is central to a sense of wellbeing. The everyday stressors of the profession, together with the physical and mental strain brought on by the pandemic, are likely to put the mental health and wellbeing of some attorneys at increased risk. For the purposes of this study, wellbeing will be defined as the display of both positive feelings (e.g. joy, pride or happiness) with positive functioning elements such as autonomy (Rasool et al., 2018).

2.1.2 Models of wellbeing

There are three main wellbeing theories, namely, eudaimonism, an ancient concept conceptualised by Aristotle; objective wellbeing which focuses on the universal notions of wellbeing, such as basic needs, and finally, subjective wellbeing, which centres on happiness.

2.1.2.1 Eudaimonia

The fundamental roots of eudaimonia focus on the way to live a good and fulfilling life, which would then ultimately contribute to a thriving and flourishing life (Aristotle, 2009; Ryan & Martela, 2016). Eudaimonic philosophies centre on the content of one's life and the processes involved in living a fulfilling life, thus the focal point of any eudaimonic theory would be a set of prescriptions or a recipe for leading a good life (Ryan et al., 2008). Ryan and Deci's self-determination theory (SDT) embraces this concept (Ryan et al., 2013). SDT theory concerns itself with the motivations (more specifically, the intrinsic motivations) behind our choices, sans external influences (Ryan & Deci, 2017) and, as such, it seeks to find the core intrinsic reasons for finding enjoyment in certain activities and undertakings.

According to Ryan and Deci (2017), the three most inherent human needs are competence (to master a subject or skill), relatedness (a connection with others) and autonomy (self-endorsement). In view of other basic human need models (such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Murray's system of needs) the SDT model can be criticised for only incorporating three elementary needs; considering the complexity of human psychology and the environmental factors at play, one can argue that their model is not all encompassing. Table 2.1 illustrates this point.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1958) forms part of humanistic psychology, a school of thought concerned with free will and based on the premise that individuals can influence their own wellbeing. The urge to self-actualise and mature would be in line with eudemonic principles, namely to live life to the fullest. Murray's system of needs theory (Murray, 1938) holds that an individual's secondary needs are mainly of a psychological nature, such as affiliation, autonomy and achievement. Again, these inherent needs are consistent with the foundation of the eudaimonic model, which is to lead a fulfilling life. Even though the SDT model (Deci & Ryan, 1985) also aligns itself with the eudaimonic concept of a good life and assumes that individuals will work towards fulfilling their potential (Ryan et al., 2008), listing only three innate human needs seems limiting and likely not to be universal. Also, compared to the other basic need theories, the needs included in SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985) are all advanced psychological needs (e.g. relatedness would only be found at level three on

Maslow's hierarchy and is regarded as a secondary need in Murray's system of needs), which points out a lack of consideration for how these three needs may have developed.

More recently Ryff (1989) set out to establish the definition of a good life. Ryff posited that well-being was made up of six categories, namely: (1) self-acceptance, an individual's positive self-perception; (2) personal growth, which relates to an individuals' willingness to further develop and recognise improvement opportunities; (3) purpose in life, which refers to an individuals' goal orientation and meaning in life; (4) positive relations with others, which refers to the positive engagement with other individuals by means of empathy, affection etc.; (5) environmental mastery, which is the ability to master everyday tasks and affairs; and (6) autonomy, which refers to an individuals' ability to regulate their behaviour independent of others or expectations (Ryff, 1989). Her theory was developed from an intensive literature study which included clinical theories on personal growth, such as Maslow (1958). The greatest criticism of her theory is that some of the six categories may overlap (Springer et al., 2006), which Ryff has contested (Ryff, 2014).

Table 2.1

Comparison of the SDT Theory, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Murray's System of Needs and the Six-Factor Model of Psychological Wellbeing

	Self-determination theory (SDT)	Maslow's hierarchy of needs	Murray's system of needs	Six-factor model of psychological wellbeing
Back-ground	The theory was developed and expanded on by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan's over the course of many years, dating back to 1985. (Deci & Ryan, 1985)	Developed by Abraham Maslow in 1943 (Maslow, 1958)	Developed by Henry Murray in 1938. (Murray, 1938)	The theory was developed by Carol Ryff in 1989 (Ryff, 1989)
Theory premise	The SDT theory centres on human motivation and personality. In particular, it focusses on an individual's inherent growth tendencies and psychological needs; it concentrates on what motivates individuals to make their choices, when there is no external influence.	Maslow's hierarchy of needs is used to illustrate how an individuals' behaviour is intrinsically motivated. Maslow posited that individuals follow a motivation pattern and in order for a person to move onto the next motivational level, the previous (more basic) stage needs to be satisfied.	Murray posited that needs (together with presses, another component of his theory) operated collectively which leads to a state of internal disequilibrium. In an effort to reduce the tension caused by the disequilibrium, the individual would engage in certain behaviours.	The theory suggests that there six factors which contribute to psychological wellbeing and that an individual ultimately achieves psychological wellbeing by finding a balance between challenging and rewarding events.
Needs	Autonomy (i.e. to act in harmony with one's self, but does not mean independence from others) Competence (i.e. mastery) Relatedness (i.e. a sense of belonging)	Level 1: Physiological needs (e.g. food, water, shelter) Level 2: Security (i.e. safety) Level 3: Social belonging (i.e. friends) Level 4: Self-esteem (i.e. prestige) Level 5: Self-actualisation (i.e. achieving one's full potential) Level 6: Transcendence	Manifest needs: individual can outwardly express these needs Latent needs: Individual does not outwardly act on these Conscious needs: Needs an individual can self-report on Unconscious needs: needs an individual cannot self-report on Primary needs: biological response to certain stimuli, which will drive the body towards a certain result (e.g. thirst, hunger) Secondary needs: these needs are influenced by and emerge from primary needs. These 17 needs belong to 8 domains (e.g. the need for dominance, which belongs to the power domain)	Self-acceptance Personal growth Purpose in life Positive relations with others Environmental mastery Autonomy

Source: Author's own work

It is important to explore objective and subjective wellbeing theories, as the eudaimonic theory (Aristotle, 2009) takes on an ancient and restricted view. Objective wellbeing theory (Nussbaum, 2011; Sen, 1985) takes a universal approach which incorporates philosophy, economics and psychology, whereas subjective wellbeing takes human potential into consideration, by layering intrinsic motivation with cognitive function and emotion (Alexandrova, 2005).

2.1.2.2 Objective wellbeing

Objective wellbeing centres on the theories of Amartya Sen and Martha Nussbaum. Sen (1985), combining both a philosophical approach and an economic analysis, wanted to explore the meaning of happiness. In his research he developed the capability approach, which centres on the principle that individuals do what they are capable of doing (Robeyns, 2016). Sen (1985) posited five components for assessing capability, namely (1) the importance of freedom in assessing an individual's advantage, (2) how individuals differ in their ability to transform resources into valuable actions, (3) each activity has multiple variables which could give rise to happiness, (4) one should consider a balance of materialistic and nonmaterialistic aspects when assessing human welfare, and finally (5) showing concern for the distribution of opportunity within society (Sen, 1985). He later collaborated with Nussbaum (Nussbaum & Sen, 1993), Anand (Anand & Sen, 1994) and Foster (Sen et al., 1997), stressing the importance of using the capability approach as a key consideration in human welfare policy debates.

Nussbaum (2011), a political theorist, further contributed to this by listing ten core capabilities, namely (1) life, (2) physical (bodily) health, (3) bodily integrity, (4) senses, imagination and thought, (5) emotions, (6) practical reason, (7) affiliation, (8) other species, (9) play and (10) control over one's environment. Nussbaum (2003) argued that her list is not static, but should rather be considered as a skeleton framework for central human capabilities. In contrast, Sen posited that an exact list would be limiting and difficult to define (Nussbaum, 2011). In addition to these concerns raised by Sen, Alkire and Black argued that Nussbaum's list was undermining the efforts of the capability approach, for which the aim was to create a more holistic perspective and do away with a reductive style (Alkire, 2005).

The intention of objective wellbeing theory is to provide a structured, formal theory as a tool to analyse individual behaviour by honing in on specific, measurable dimensions (Voukelatou et al., 2020). As the theory manages to quantify wellbeing and is mainly concerned with the material conditions of life (such as employment opportunities and education), it has been adopted by multiple international statistical indicators such as the OECD Better Life initiative,

the United Nations Development Programme Human Development Index (Anand & Sen, 1994) and the French government's Commission on the Measurement of Economic Performance and Social Progress. However, objective wellbeing theory can be criticised not giving sufficient consideration to subjective life evaluations, as they are not considered theoretically relevant (Böhnke & Kohler, 2008).

2.1.2.3 Subjective wellbeing

As the name suggests, subjective wellbeing is the measurement of wellbeing usually by utilising self-reporting tools (Lucas, 2018). The theory uses the term "subjective" as it acknowledges that an individual is in a better position to make a judgement on the state of their life and that the meaning of happiness is interchangeable for different people. This is in contrast to the eudaimonic approach, which identifies certain human potentials which have to be realised to achieve wellbeing (Alexandrova, 2005). Diener (1984) developed a groundbreaking tripartite model of subjective wellbeing in which he posited that the assessment of an individual's wellbeing required both cognitive and emotional input. The three-way model distinguishes between three components of wellbeing, namely frequent positive affect, infrequent negative affect and an individual's cognitive evaluations (Tov & Diener, 2013).

Subjective wellbeing centres around how individuals evaluate their lives, taking into consideration pleasant emotions (which would have a positive affect), distressing emotions (which would have a low negative affect) and the overall effect, also known as the hedonic effect (Steel et al., 2008). Happiness is probably the most popular and most discussed concept of subjective wellbeing theory (Minkov & Bond, 2017; Pavot & Diener, 2013). A criticism of subjective wellbeing theory is that it relies on self-report and an individual's self-assessment of their own life (Böhnke & Kohler, 2008). Additionally, research indicates that some inequalities are associated with subjective wellbeing for only some socio-demographic groups, such as gender, age and class (Böhnke & Kohler, 2008).

In reality, the objective and subjective wellbeing theories are often intertwined with objective wellbeing theories generally regarded as the source of subjective wellbeing (Desmet & Pohlmeier, 2013). Wellbeing is a complicated concept: the lack of a clear definition in 2021 indicates as much. Firstly, even though life satisfaction is based on one's own circumstances and experiences, objective wellbeing measures cannot possibly capture all appropriate elements of these circumstances and experiences. Furthermore, biases, esteem, social evaluation and comparison affect people's perceptions of their wellbeing. However, wellbeing theories address both quantifiable and quantitative assessments of what is deemed necessary

for measuring the quality of life (whether the material considerations of objective wellbeing theory or the individual's notion of what a "good life" is) (Diener et al., 2009b).

When an individual is experiencing stress or challenging circumstances, healthy coping mechanisms are essential to sustaining subjective wellbeing (Thumala Dockendorff, 2014). Ukeh and Hassan (2018) posit that a good state of wellbeing can serve as immunity against stress and reduce the use of negative coping strategies, which supports Lazarus's (2000) view that a person's wellbeing is directly affected by how they cope with stressors. There seems to be a clear link between wellbeing and positive coping behaviour and the latter will be discussed in greater detail in the section that follows.

In conclusion, eudaimonic theory involves rigid formulas on what is necessary to achieve a fulfilling life (Ryan et al., 2008). Objective wellbeing theory follows suit but does take other factors such as economic and psychological factors into consideration in an effort to better understand human behaviour (Voukelatou et al., 2020). In contrast, subjective wellbeing theory considers an individual's subjective account of happiness as it acknowledges individual differences, which is evident in its self-reporting measures (Alexandrova, 2005; Lucas, 2018). Furthermore, subjective wellbeing theory research is current, well researched and embraced by the positive psychology domain (Diener et al., 2009a). For these reasons, together with the fact that this study will entail self-report questionnaires, subjective wellbeing theory will be employed in the context of this study.

2.2 POSITIVE COPING

In general, coping or coping behaviour involves an individual's conscious effort to solve a problem or a challenge to tolerate, minimise or master the stress source (Weiten et al., 2014). Coping or coping behaviour is still a contested subject in psychology, even though multiple theories and frameworks have been established in the last few decades (Seguin et al., 2017). Generally, coping strategies are divided into two groups: adaptive coping and maladaptive coping (Skinner et al., 2003). The latter, based on the outcome, can be regarded as non-coping behaviour. As this research is concerned with the positive coping strategies employed by attorneys, this section will pertain to adaptive coping behaviour only.

2.2.1 Conceptualisation of positive coping behaviour

Whereas general coping behaviour is considered a reactive measure to address a situation or threat, positive coping brings about proactive efforts which may result in personal growth, as a result of individuals' efforts to create and further develop their general resources to cope with demanding circumstances (Morse et al., 2012; Qiao et al., 2011). During the course of

life, individuals are faced with stressful circumstances and events. Positive coping entails the utilisation of psychological resources or capacities to mitigate the stress and deal with these events in a meaningful way (Au et al., 2013; Furnes & Dysvik, 2012). According to Katter and Greenglass (2013), individuals utilising positive coping behaviour seek to continually improve themselves and consciously develop their resources to ensure progression. As a result, they see challenges as an opportunity to find purpose in life and create meaning in life.

Research indicates that constructs of positive emotion (such as emotional intelligence and happiness), intrinsic motivators (such as resilience, locus of control and self-efficacy) and cognition (hope, optimism, self-esteem and problem solving) are integral to positive coping behaviour (Marx, 2016; Proyer et al., 2014). The Positive Coping Behaviour Inventory (PCBI), developed by Marx (2016) suggests that positive coping behaviour involves five dimensions (Coetzee et al., 2017). These dimensions consist of certain positive psychology constructs which pertain to positive coping behaviour. These dimensions are summarised in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Five Dimensions of Positive Coping Behaviour

Dimension	Positive psychology coping constructs
Inventive coping behaviour	Wisdom, self-esteem, optimism, humour, locus of control, openness to experience, positive reframing.
Engaging coping behaviour	Positive affect, emotional granularity, happiness, self-efficacy.
Intentional coping behaviour	Self-efficacy, resilience, flourish, intention for positive health, proactive coping, conscientiousness, adaptability.
Influential coping behaviour	Extroversion, agreeableness, social support.
Pandemic coping behaviour	Positive re-evaluation of one's talents, opportunities and outlook on life in general that enabled positive coping during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Source: Author's own work

The legal profession is marred by competitiveness, long hours and demanding clients, yet some attorneys show no symptoms of disengagement but find a liking in dealing with these challenges, presumably because they have effective coping strategies. It is important to nurture and develop these positive coping behaviours, as they may be effective in limiting the effect of stressors (Horstmann et al., 2012). Additionally, as studies by Mayer (2014) and Rothmann (2014) suggest, there is a positive relationship between positive coping behaviours and positive organisational outcomes (such as productivity, wellbeing, engagement, job satisfaction and low turnover intention). This link highlights the need for research on these constructs in this environment.

In conclusion, positive coping behaviour involves the positive efforts made by the individual to make sense of challenging events or circumstances. Individuals react differently to stress and their responses are linked to their psychological make-up and behavioural capacities. This study will assess which psychological resources are employed by attorneys to affect positive coping behaviours. As such, due to the multidimensional perspective on coping behaviour and positive coping behaviour specially, this study will mostly explore and utilise the constructs referenced in Marx's positive coping behaviour index.

2.2.2 Theory of positive coping behaviour

Although there has been ample research done on coping strategies in the past few decades, scientists still have to agree on a classification structure. Depending on the subject, researchers either group the coping strategies rationally, empirically or by a blend of both approaches (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Even though positive coping behaviour is yet to be formally defined, there seems to be growing interest flowing from research done in positive psychology. Recent papers published by Marx (2016) and Coetzee et al. (2017) have made great leeway in establishing the makeup of positive coping behaviour within the South African context.

In general, coping refers to any cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage, minimise or tolerate situations which an individual may find threatening to their wellbeing (Weiten et al., 2014). It is important to note that coping does not necessarily imply success in dealing with an event, but rather the approach used. Methods of coping include seeking advice, problem solving and self-blame among others (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). In other words, coping is the process of executing a response to a potential threat (Compas et al., 2001). Coping behaviour can therefore be included in the self-regulation definition, as the behaviour, emotions and thinking processes of the individual regulated by him/herself (Eisenberg et al., 1997). Positive and negative coping methods are diametrical opposites (Ding et al., 2015): positive coping behaviour manifests in the form of problem-solving coping styles, whereas negative coping behaviour is emotional of nature and is expressed in ways such as self-blame, wishful thinking and avoidance behaviours (Folkman & Lazarus., 1980).

Negative coping behaviour aims to reduce the emotional distress the individual is faced with. For these individuals, the negative event must simply be endured. Unsurprisingly, negative coping behaviour has negative consequences for an individual's wellbeing whereas the opposite is true for positive coping behaviour (Mark & Smith, 2012). Scheier et al. (1986) argue that pessimism is associated with negative coping behaviours, which result in distorted

thinking patterns, negative judgements and unfair self-evaluation (Garrosa & Moreno-Jiménez, 2013).

Positive coping behaviours are of particular importance, as they assist individuals to deal with complex and changing situations (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Scheier et al. (1986) found that optimism was a determinant factor of the coping behaviour utilised and was positively associated with problem-focused coping, particularly in events where circumstances were controllable. The theory on positive coping behaviour grew out of the research conducted on coping strategies. The best known and referenced theory is the transactional model of stress and coping, developed by Folkman and Lazarus in 1984. Their model groups coping behaviours into either problem-focused or emotion-focused categories. The model suggests that an event or incident (which they refer to as a transaction) occurs between an individual and their environment and, in the event of an imbalance between the demands and the individual's resources, stress occurs. It is important to note that the stress is a result of the individual's perception or interpretation of the event and not the event itself. Following the individual's assessment of the event, they will apply a coping behaviour.

Problem-focused coping attempts to change the negative emotions. If this strategy is used, the individual may feel some sense of control over the situation and attempt to reason out the problem in an effort to overcome the obstacle. This is in contrast to emotion-focused coping, where an individual may feel that they do not have control over the event. They will subsequently attempt to reduce the negative emotional state using actions such as avoidance, distancing, seeking out emotional support or acceptance (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980; McNamara, 2000). Scheier et al. (1986) propose that those who utilise positive coping behaviour are more likely to expect positive change. According to Garrosa and Moreno-Jimenez (2013), positive coping may generate positive emotions and behaviours that can result in general wellbeing, personal and professional growth and increased abilities.

Previous studies have indicated a link between personality traits and how an individual relates to stressors (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007; Grant & Langan-Fox, 2006). Harzer and Ruch (2015) found that intellectual character strengths (e.g. creativity and curiosity), emotional character strengths (e.g. honesty, hope and bravery) and interpersonal character strengths (e.g. leadership, kindness and humour) were strongly associated with coping when dealing with work-related stress. Strengths of restraint (e.g. forgiveness and fairness) and theological character strengths (e.g. religion and gratitude) had little impact on dispositional coping. Dispositional coping refers to the habitual way an individual will react to challenges using their range of coping mechanisms (Erdmann & Janke, 2008). The Stress Coping Style Questionnaire (SVF 78), developed by Janke and Erdmannová (2003), measures individuals'

different coping styles, which are then split into two broad categories, namely positive and negative coping strategies. They considered negative coping strategies to involve behaviours that do not reduce long-term stress, but enhance it. Typical negative coping strategies include resignation, pity and self-blame. On the other hand, positive coping behaviours are the strategies that will reduce stress. They divided positive coping behaviours into three categories, namely: devaluation (a cognitive coping method), distraction and control (which involves behaviours such as planning and problem-solving). Although their research also suggests a link between personality traits and coping, their work has been criticised for a lack of theoretical foundation.

With evidence that positive coping and positive behaviour is linked (Ghaye, 2010; Kashdan et al., 2011), Marx (2016) developed a positive coping behavioural inventory with the aim of measuring an individual's positive coping style. As summarised in Table 2.2, Marx (2016) grouped positive coping behaviours into the following psychosocial dimensions:

- The cognitive dimension, which involves an individual's problem-solving efforts in a stressful situation in an effort to reduce the effect of the stressor (Ong et al., 2013). Positive behaviour capacities in this dimension include openness to experience, wisdom, locus of control, self-esteem, optimism, humour, sense of coherence and positive reframing).
- The affective/emotional dimension involves the emotional responses and mood of the individual when faced with a challenge. Historically, it was assumed that stressors would predominantly involve negative emotions, but newer research suggests otherwise and has found that positive emotions can occur alongside the negatively experienced emotions (Serena, 2013). Positive behaviour competencies in this dimension includes happiness, positive affect and emotional granularity.
- The conative/motivational dimension refers to the motivational element of a stress response. Motivation frames an individual's attitude and may guide how much additional resources are employed by the individual to deal effectively with the stressor (Dai & Sternberg, 2004). The positive behavioural competencies in this dimension include proactive coping, resilience, self-efficacy, flourishing, intention for positive health, conscientiousness and adaptability).

From this, an initial four-factor structure was developed, grouping positive coping behaviour into four subcategories: inventive coping, engaging coping, influential coping, and intentional coping (Coetzee et al., 2017). For the purposes of the present research, a pandemic coping

behaviour subscale was added. Marx (2016) explains how the psychosocial dimensions of positive coping behaviour relate to an individual's positive behavioural capacities as follows:

- *Inventive coping behaviour.* This problem-solving coping style is embedded in a person's self-esteem, locus of control, optimism, humour and social skills.
- *Engaging coping behaviour.* The individual will create and maintain positive emotions and any stress will be lightened by feelings of happiness and engagement.
- *Intentional coping behaviour.* This method uses proactive coping behaviours, focusing on intrinsic motivational behaviour and resilience, goal orientation and conscientious characteristics.
- *Influential coping behaviour.* The approach entails positive social behaviour which enables positive interaction with others by way of positive self-other assessments.
- *Pandemic coping behaviour.* The positive re-evaluation of one's talents, opportunities and outlook on life in general that enabled positive coping during the Covid-19 pandemic.

Studies have suggested that when an individual is confronted with stressors, his/her personality may be expected to influence coping responses in a number of ways. Biologically, an individual's response to stress is likely to stem from his/her temperament-based style and attentional regulation systems (Derryberry et al., 2003; Skinner & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007). From an expectancy-value perspective, coping efforts are presumed to be influenced by future outcome expectations (Carver et al., 2009). Carver et al. (1989) established that individuals approach situations with a preferred set of coping strategies, which remain stable over time. Moreover, the differences in coping styles are naturally tied to an individual's personality. They argue that an individual would cope better if they were able to utilise a familiar coping strategy. However, a comparative analysis done by Carver and Connor-Smith (2010) and found that the relationship between personality and coping is modest.

Marx's (2016) research confirms the link between positive behaviour and positive coping. Research by Natti and Dana (2015) supports this notion: individuals who display great positive behavioural capacity tend to have better quality of life given their positive attitudes, better coping mechanisms and less perceived stress.

2.2.3 Integration

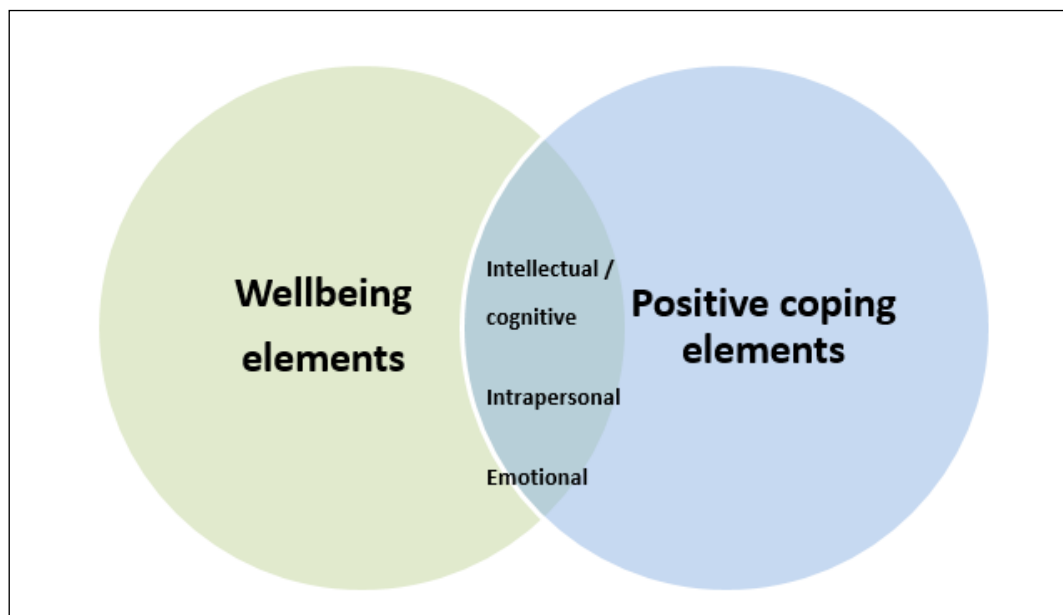
The link between positive coping behaviour and wellbeing has been established with studies indicating a positive relationship between positive coping behaviours and positive

organisational outcomes such as wellbeing (Mayer, 2014; Rothmann, 2014; Seligman, 2008). A South African study by Bernstein and Trimm (2016) on workplace bullying found a direct link between positive coping behaviour (in this case, employees seeking help) and wellbeing.

From the wellbeing and positive coping behaviour theories discussed previously (which are summarised in Figure 2.1), there appears to be an overlap in the intellectual (cognitive), emotional and interpersonal elements, as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.1

Overlapping Elements of the Positive Coping Behaviour and Wellbeing Theories



Source: Author's own work

From the positive coping behaviour theories, Harzer and Ruch (2015) posit that, amongst others, the ability to problem solve together with the assessment of situational circumstances (intellectual character strengths), active behaviours such as hopefulness, perspective, bravery (emotional character strengths) and the ability to deal with conflict (intrapersonal character strengths) were key in positive coping behaviours. Their theory is supported by Marx (2016), who posits that individuals who display cognitive constructs (such as self-esteem, optimism and humour), emotional constructs (such as emotional granularity, self-efficacy and happiness) and social constructs (such as agreeableness and social support) tend to engage in positive coping behaviours.

The wellbeing theories echo the research conducted on positive coping behaviour. In particular, self-determination theory (SDT), developed by Ryan and Deci (2017), highlights the value of and need for relatedness. Relatedness refers to the sense of belonging and feeling connected to others, which resonates with the social constructs highlighted in the wellbeing

theories by Marx (2016) and Harzer and Ruch (2015). Additionally, Nussbaum (2011) lists affiliation (social interaction and empathy), practical reason (the ability to form conceptions and critically reflect) and emotions (the ability to feel love, grieve, feel anger etc.) as central human capabilities in an effort to achieve a state of wellbeing. Lastly, in Diener's (1984) tripartite model of subjective wellbeing, he posited that individuals measure the quality of their lives by their own cognitive assessments and emotional reactions.

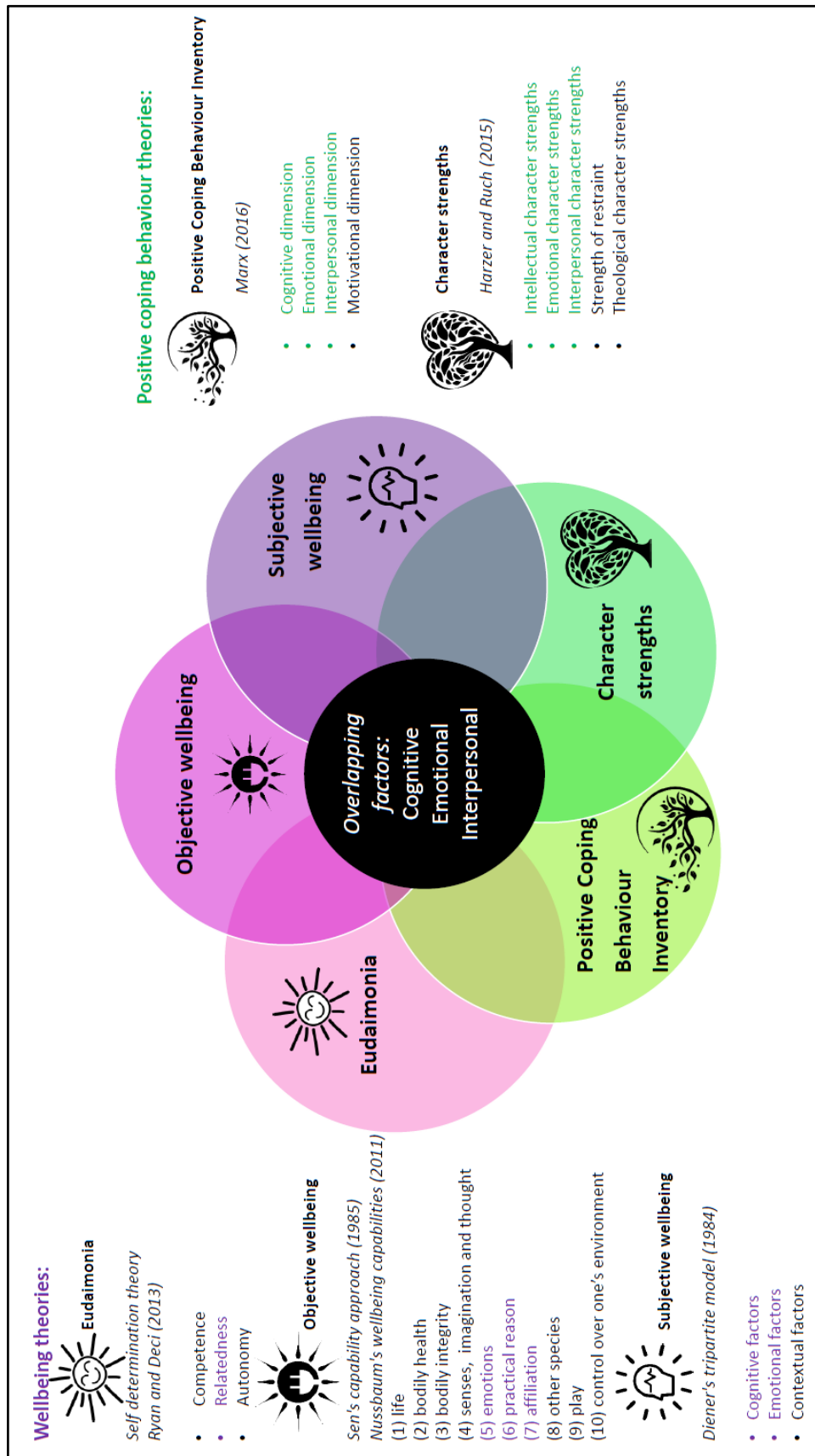
In the legal profession in particular, attorneys are prone to mental health ailments such as substance abuse, anxiety and depression (Krill et al., 2016), possibly indicating low emotional capabilities. That said, an attorney's success depends on their cognitive abilities and capabilities, which perhaps indicates that attorneys would be better equipped to reason, conceptualise and problem-solve around their stressors. Even though practising attorneys show comradery and general support for their peers (Ingwersen, 2017), considering the social distancing measures it would be interesting to see how the Covid-19 pandemic affected their intrapersonal capabilities, as this would directly influence their wellbeing and (positive) coping behaviours.

Empirical studies have indicated that positive psychological capital, made up of the constructs of hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism (Luthans & Youssef, 2004), is linked to employee behaviour and attitude, such as wellbeing (Avey et al., 2011). The function of these constructs enables employees to cope with organisational stressors, which may broaden their perspective and inspire decision-making, which may result in positive coping behaviours (Avey et al., 2008).

Optimistic individuals demonstrate a reduced loss of wellbeing following hardship (Carver & Scheier, 2001), while resilient individuals are shown to have a tendency to employ coping strategies which evoke positive emotions such as optimism, humour and goal-directed problem-focused coping, which results in an improved resistance to stress and promotes wellbeing (Ong et al., 2006; Zautra et al., 2010). Interestingly, there appears to be a link between optimism, hopefulness and health: optimists are less likely to report distress or discomfort due to the coping behaviours employed (Scheier et al., 2001), whereas hopeful individuals initiate and sustain the required action to attain future goals, which help them relate and cope with physical illness (Weis & Speridakos, 2011). A positive relationship exists between hope and wellbeing (Lee, 2018). Studies by Soysa and Wolcomb (2015) and Yu et al. (2005) posit that self-efficacy can be a predictor of individual wellbeing, while other studies have shown an interrelationship between self-efficacy and coping (Herman et al., 2018).

Figure 2.2

Summary of Positive Coping Behaviour and Wellbeing Theories



Source: Author's own work

The role of emotional intelligence also needs to be taken into account, even though the research findings have been contradictory. Emotional intelligence is a predictor of wellbeing (Zeidner et al., 2012) and higher levels of emotional intelligence may lead to greater psychological and physical wellbeing (Stough et al., 2009), but emotional intelligence appears to have a contradictory relationship with coping. A recent study by Zeidner et al. (2016) shows emotional intelligence plays a modest role in coping, which refutes findings in similar studies conducted a decade earlier (MacCann et al., 2004; Peters et al., 2009). This may have been as a result of the difference in sample size.

From the literature, the theoretical relationship between the psychological capital constructs and positive coping behaviour is evident and summarised in Figure 2.2. Moreover, considering the positive relationship between the psychological capital constructs and wellbeing, one can safely assume a strong relationship between positive coping behaviour and wellbeing, which has been posited in previous research material. Although there is contradictory research material on the relationship between emotional intelligence and coping behaviours, it would be worthwhile exploring the mediating effect on the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour.

2.3 ROLE OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

This section explores the influence of variables such as age, gender, race, tenure and job level on coping behaviour and wellbeing.

2.3.1 Age

Classic literature suggests that different age groups apply different coping mechanisms as they move through various life stages as a result of psychosocial developments in these stages (Erikson, 1982). Such literature also describes the types of stressor an individual encounters during these young, middle-age and older life stages (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Research by Windsor et al. (2014) suggests that this could be as a result of changes in cognitive, neurophysiological, emotional, attentional and/or social resources and processes across an individual's lifetime. A study on career establishment preoccupations by Coetzee (2017) suggests a positive relationship between positive coping and age.

The effect of age on wellbeing is mixed: Carstensen et al. (2000) posit that age has little effect on wellbeing, whereas Teachman (2006) reported a nonlinear relationship with age and negative wellbeing affect. His study indicated that mental health concerns such as depression would increase in young adulthood, drop slightly just to increase again in late adulthood. The diverse research findings have been attributed to sample age ranges, research designs and

sample methods. His findings are supported by Coats and Blanchard-Fields (2008), who found increases in wellbeing states as individuals grow older. They posit that this may be because older people may employ more frequent reappraisals, behaviours and attentional strategies in an attempt to either circumvent or de-escalate negative events.

2.3.2 Gender

In general, gender appears to be a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing. A study conducted by Akhtar and Kroener-Herwig (2018) suggested that male students had greater levels of wellbeing. It is well documented that females tend to suffer and be more susceptible to mental health concerns such as depression and anxiety (Michael et al., 2007), whereas men often suffer from substance abuse issues (McLean & Anderson, 2009).

Additionally, males and females do not view stress in the same way: women are more vulnerable to work-related stress and more likely to feel hopeless and not in control of their destiny, whereas men generally feel that workplace stressors are manageable (Blau & Khan, 2017). Although women are more susceptible to stressors, they tend to apply better adaptive coping behaviours, such as positive reappraisal and positive self-talk (Tamres et al., 2002). However, in an adolescent study by Hampel and Petermann (2005), girls were found to display lower levels of adaptive coping behaviour (such as positive self-talk and distraction) and higher levels of maladaptive coping behaviour (such as aggression and rumination) for common stressors.

A study conducted by Roper (2014) suggests that women perceive a significantly higher probability of stress, particularly those in white-collar positions, working in the public sector or with longer tenure. From this study, one can safely assume that perceived stress would be high among female attorneys, which would affect their overall sense of wellbeing.

2.3.3 Race

It is imperative to consider the relationship between work-related stressors and race, especially in view of cultural dimensions like acculturation, discrimination and ethnic identity (Capasso et al., 2018). International research suggests that African-Americans (i.e. black individuals) engage in more positive coping strategies (Sun et al., 2010). Research further suggests that historical cultural practice affects the way individuals cope with stressors; for instance, black individuals are more likely to display spiritual-centred, ritual-centred and collective coping behaviours (Blackmon et al., 2016).

2.3.4 Tenure

Job tenure is defined as the length of employment in the current job role (Eurofound, 2015). Generally, tenure shows a positive relationship with positive coping behaviour and how an individual would relate to a work-related stressor (Laal & Aliramaie, 2010). There is also a positive link to professional wellbeing, as a result of the career adaptability that develops from a long job tenure (Maggiori et al., 2013).

2.3.5 Job level

With regard to positive coping, literature on job level is limited. A study on mental health and coping among IT professionals suggested that although junior IT professionals generally experienced higher levels of stress and lower levels of mental health, their coping behaviour was no different to that of their senior counterparts (Rao & Chandraiah, 2012). In general, an individual's job level has an intricate relationship with wellbeing, as it can increase both enthusiasm and job-related anxiety and enthusiasm (Wood, 2008). In high-level positions there is greater job control which is linked to greater wellbeing. However, greater job demands are also associated with lower wellbeing, but fortunately increased job control can act as a cushion to the negative impact of the job demands.

In summary, it is important to remember that individual differences affect our perceptions and interpretations of events around us (Lu et al., 2003). All individual difference factors need to be considered when assessing the relationship between stressors and coping, as these socio-demographic variables will undoubtedly influence mental health outcomes (Capasso et al., 2018). Therefore, it is worth investigating the moderating effects the socio-demographic variables may have on the study, as they may affect the strength of the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour.

2.4 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

This section delivers an evaluation of the literature on the constructs of positive coping and wellbeing and the effect of sociodemographic variables on the aforementioned concepts. It also draws conclusions from the reviewed literature.

2.4.1 Construct definitions

Positive coping behaviour is regarded as those proactive efforts which may result in personal growth and which results from the individual's efforts to create and further develop their general resources to cope with demanding circumstances (Morse et al., 2012; Qiao et al., 2011).

Given the profession's challenges, it is important for attorneys to employ effective coping behaviour. It is worth noting the difference between coping and positive coping behaviour: in particular, positive coping entails the development of internal resources to deal effectively with stressors which will not be harmful to the individual in the long term (Natti & Dana, 2015). Attorneys who employ positive coping behaviour will experience personal growth and a sense of wellbeing. This will yield positive results for the employer too, such as higher performance levels.

Wellbeing is supported by three theories, namely eudaimonia (Aristotle, 2009), objective wellbeing (Nussbaum, 2011; Sen, 1985), and subjective wellbeing (Diener, 1984). Given that the eudaimonic model takes on a restricted and classical view of wellbeing, it will not be used in this study. Objective wellbeing theory adopts a neutral approach which combines philosophy, economics and psychology, while subjective wellbeing takes human potential into consideration by layering intrinsic motivation with cognitive function and emotion. Since this study will require subjective input from attorneys in the legal profession, the research will employ the subjective wellbeing model. This model defines wellbeing as the way in which individuals experience and assess their lives and/or specific fields and activities.

The literature review provided evidence that the legal profession is becoming more aware of the mental health challenges facing the industry. That said, it still has a long way to go. Law firms must change their focus to initiatives which can sustain long-term employee wellbeing. Currently, attorneys are showing a great deal of mental health distress, largely due to job factors such as long working hours, billable hours, competitiveness and for some socio-demographic groups, the additional burdens of bias and discrimination. In the South African context, this adds to the existing daily pressures brought about by crime, economic instability and, more recently, the threat of Covid-19 and subsequent government regulations which are likely to increase stress and anxiety levels. Attorneys who lack the necessary psychological resources may find it difficult to cope.

One of the greatest recent developments in the profession has been the wellbeing report published by the American Bar Association in 2016. This report, highlighting the extent of wellbeing challenges in the industry, set in motion some great initiatives, such as the introduction of employee assistance programmes, social support apps and the like. That said, these initiatives are reactive approaches and law firms will need to find more proactive measures to promote psychological health. Challenges have been experienced in implementing new wellness policies and initiatives, including the mental health stigma, financial constraints and the lack of buy-in from senior management. That said, it has been

encouraging to see senior lawyers come forward with their own personal accounts of their mental health struggles, which will assist in the battle against stigmatisation.

2.4.2 The relationship between the constructs

From the literature review, the relationship between wellbeing and positive coping behaviour has also been satisfactorily addressed. Research has shown that there is a significant positive relationship between wellbeing and positive coping behaviour (Culbertson et al., 2010; Datu & Valdez, 2016).

2.4.3 Moderation effect of socio-demographic variables

The research literature indicates differences in coping strategies and wellbeing perceptions for variables such as age, gender, race, tenure and job level. This will add to the employer's long list of challenges to adequately address the mental health concerns. Consequently, a one-size-fits-all approach is likely to fail, as a result of the various considerations from the different socio-demographic groups.

South Africa still struggles with some of the structural and socioeconomic legacies inherited from colonialist rule and apartheid regulations, which resulted in the marginalisation of the African, Indian and coloured population groups (Hofmeyr & Govender, 2015). The results of a survey conducted by the South African Reserve Bank in 2017 suggest that race was considered one of the top sources of social division in the country (Potgieter, 2017).

In the South African legal profession specifically, the African, Indian and coloured racial groups still experience cultural alienation and professional isolation as a result of individual and institutionalised racism which leads to an unfair distribution of work (Pruitt, 2001). These experiences result in perceptions of inequality, which have been posited as a source of mental health ailments such as depression (Tanaka et al., 2017). Those individuals who have experienced racial discrimination have reported poorer mental health (Roberts et al., 2004).

The legal industry is still dominated by men and internationally the gender gap is well documented. Historically, the profession has been plagued with gender discrimination and sexual harassment (De Wet, 2019). Even though more females enter the profession after schooling, their attrition rates are dire, owing to feeling unsupported and citing reasons such as lack of flexibility (work–life balance challenges) and childcare issues (LawCareers, 2020).

Junior attorneys are at higher risk for depression and other psychological ailments as a result of low decision latitude paired with high pressure. The nature of the job also results in poor health and higher divorce rates (Carney et al., 1997; Mivsek et al., 2018). That said, senior

attorneys, even those with more than 20 years' working experience, are also struggling with mental health concerns such as depression, burnout, panic attacks, health ailments, substance abuse (Christin, 2018) and even suicide (Barrow, 2018).

In South Africa, the average tenure for legal professionals is approximately two years (Business Tech, 2021). There appears to be a general shift, as many young associates are opting to quit after three or four years, citing poor work–life balance. The legal profession is also often regarded as an alternative pathway into the corporate world, seeing junior attorneys leaving the profession after admission. A 2016 industry survey found that almost 60% of law students chose “attorney” as their short-term goal, with only 22% of students considering it their long-term goal (Klaaren, 2020). Owing to work–life balance and flexibility constraints, the tenure for female lawyers is also low (Law Careers, 2020).

The preceding evaluation and synthesis mark the end of the literature review on positive coping and wellbeing. The next chapter provides a review of psychological capital and emotional intelligence.

2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 2 discussed the meta-theoretical context of the study, namely positive coping in the legal profession. This involved the conceptualisation of wellbeing in the legal profession, as well as the constructs of positive coping behaviour and the role of the socio-demographic variables, namely age, gender, race, tenure and job level.

Chapter 3 will conceptualise the constructs of psychological capital and emotional intelligence, followed by a critical evaluation of its implication on positive coping and wellbeing.

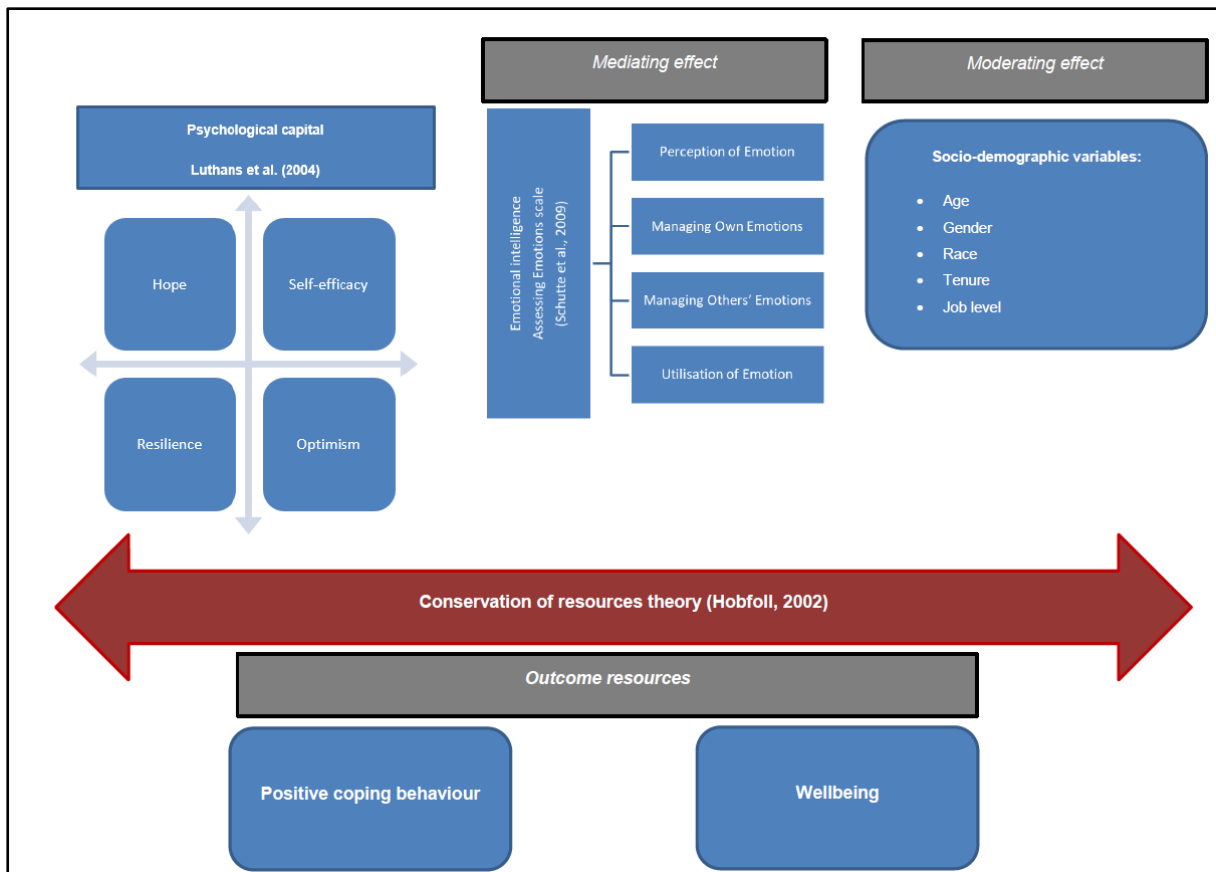
CHAPTER 3

PSYCHOLOGICAL RESOURCES: PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

This chapter conceptualises psychological capital and emotional intelligence within the context of employee wellbeing in the legal profession. The chapter explores the definition, models and theories of psychological capital and emotional intelligence and investigates the link these concepts may have with wellbeing and positive coping behaviour. Lastly, this chapter will also examine the role of socio-demographic variables.

Figure 3.1

Chapter Synopsis: Investigating the Role of Psychological Capital and Emotional Intelligence



Source: Author's own work

3.1 CONCEPTUALISATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL RESOURCES

This section will present an overview of the psychological capital and emotional intelligence constructs as a set of psychological resources. This will involve a critical review and a comparison of the definition and characteristics of each construct in an effort to provide an adequate framework for the purpose of this study.

3.1.1 Psychological capital

Psychological capital has a theoretical foundation in positive psychology (Carver et al., 2009; Luthans et al., 2007b; Snyder, 2000; Youssef-Morgan & Luthans, 2017). Historically, traditional psychology focused on the treatment of mental health illnesses. In contrast, positive psychology concentrates on the study of wellbeing, which includes the goals of helping individuals lead a meaningful life and achieve full human potential, without the intention of replacing traditional psychology, but rather complementing it (Larson & Luthans, 2006). Positive psychology was introduced as a new domain in 1998 (Srinivasan, 2015).

The construct of psychological capital was first introduced by Luthans et al. (2004) to serve as a measure of human (intellectual), physical and social capital, which included the grouping of psychological resource capacities. Psychological capital is defined as the individual's positive psychological state of development which is categorised by: (1) self-efficacy, which means that an individual will, when facing a challenge, have the confidence to undertake and expend the necessary effort; (2) optimism, that is, taking on a positive mindset; (3) hope, which involves the individual persevering toward goals to achieve success; and finally (4) resilience, which is the ability to bounce back from challenges and adversity to attain success (Luthans et al., 2015). These psychological resources interact with each other (Luthans et al., 2015).

The sum of psychological capital is greater than its parts (Hobfoll, 2002) and, as such, this study will employ the construct of psychological capital in the research, as the psychological capital dimensions allow the researcher to observe the multiple aspects of individual attitudes simultaneously. Additionally, each psychological capital dimension has been demonstrated to be empirically valid (Luthans et al., 2007; Youssef & Luthans, 2007) and conceptually independent (Luthans & Jensen, 2002; Luthans et al., 2007), which will aid the meaningful interpretation of findings in this study.

3.1.2 Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence, sometimes also referred to as emotional leadership, emotional quotient or emotional intelligence quotient, involves emotional regulation (Brackett et al., 2004). That said, emotional intelligence does not hold a standard definition due to the multiple theories on the subject matter, with each theory defining the construct in different ways. However, it is generally accepted that emotional intelligence comprises an individual's capacity to identify their own emotions and those of others, distinguish between and label different feelings, utilise emotional information to direct one's thinking and behaviour and, finally, to manage and/or regulate emotions to adjust to the environment (Colman, 2008).

Currently, there are three widely accepted emotional intelligence theories, which will be discussed in greater detail in the following section. Although the first use of the term “emotional intelligence” dates back to the 1960s (Beldoch, 1964), Goleman (1995) popularised the term when he published a bestselling book on the subject. Thereafter, research on emotional intelligence increased, which led to the development of three mainstream theories, developed by Goleman (1998), Petrides and Furnham (2001) and Salovey and Mayer (1990).

According to Goleman (1995), emotional intelligence involves individuals’ ability to manage their feelings in such a way that they are expressed suitably and effectively, which would enable individuals to work together towards a common goal. Goleman’s (1995) definition has been criticised for including personality and behavioural elements, which are not connected to emotional intelligence as they are scientifically defined (Hein, 2006), and for not having a solid scientific base.

Meyer and Salovey (1997) define the construct as one’s ability to observe emotions, to access and produce emotions in order to assist thinking processes, to understand emotions and their meanings and to thoughtfully control emotions which may encourage emotional and intellectual growth. Although this definition considers emotions as a valuable information source to help an individual navigate a social environment, their theory has been shown to lack predictive and face validity in a work setting (Bradberry & Su, 2006).

Petrides, Pita et al. (2007), however, define emotional intelligence as the collection of emotional self-perceptions and consider one’s perception of oneself to be a key consideration. Petrides and Furnham’s (2001) trait model is believed to have subsumed Goleman’s original model and posits a link between personality traits and emotional intelligence (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Scientific literature holds a prominent view that his theory reinterprets emotional intelligence as a group of personality traits (Mikolajczak et al., 2007; Smith, Ciarrochi et al. 2008). However, his model is reliant on self-reporting measures which are resistant to scientific measurement.

To conclude, emotional intelligence is generally positively correlated with better social relations with friends, family and partners, better workplace relations, better academic achievement and most importantly, given the research framework, better psychological wellbeing (Mayer et al., 2008). Furthermore, emotional intelligence has been found to have a positive relationship with problem-focused coping and positive emotion-focused coping (Noorbakhsh et al., 2010). The inclusion of emotional intelligence is important in the context of this study, as individuals with high emotional intelligence levels also tends to rate higher on leadership abilities and stress management capabilities (Maamari & Majdalani, 2017).

3.2 MODELS AND THEORIES

In the previous section, psychological capital and emotional intelligence were defined. This section will follow with a comprehensive overview and evaluation of the models of psychological capital and emotional intelligence.

3.2.1 Psychological capital

Fred Luthans, the pioneer of the psychological capital construct, developed the model for use in the workplace (Luthans et al., 2004). Luthans speculated that organisations needed to focus on psychological growth (as opposed to educational growth) to achieve and maintain a competitive advantage (Luthans et al., 2007). Likewise, Avey et al. (2011) suggest that psychological capital plays an important role in predicting employees' attitudes, performance and behaviour.

When Martin Seligman was appointed as the head of the American Psychological Association in 1998, he chose positive psychology as his presidential theme (Ben-Shahar, 2007), which resulted in more research being done in this field during his term as president. During this time, Luthans (2002) developed a new branch of industrial psychology, namely positive organisational behaviour. Positive organisational behaviour involves the study, measurement, development and management of employees' psychological capacities and positive strengths for improved performance (Luthans, 2002). Positive organisational behaviour can increase job satisfaction, morale, productivity and organisational revenue (Dhammika et al., 2012). Furthermore, employees are likely to stay engaged if they can use their strengths on a daily basis (Van Woerkom & Meyers, 2015).

Positive organisational behaviour, which enhances management effectiveness and organisational performance, has strict inclusion criteria for positive psychological capacities: 1) that it is based on theory, substantiated with research and valid measurement, 2) state-like, which means that it can be developed (as opposed to trait-like) and 3) must have an impact on performance (Luthans, 2002). It has been determined that the four dimensions of psychological capital (hope, self-efficacy, resiliency and optimism) meet the criteria (Youssef & Luthans, 2007).

In the workplace, psychological capital is related to performance, wellbeing, turnover intention and happiness (Choi & Lee, 2014) and, as such, it is important for employers to encourage, train and develop psychological capital constructs to reap the benefits within the organisation. The nature vs. nurture debate also comes into play here: positive psychology studies have indicated that nurture (e.g. childhood, background and how a person was raised) may

determine up to 50% of the variance in an individual's happiness and positivity levels, whereas circumstances (nature) may determine a mere 10%. This leaves the assumption that up to 40% of positivity is under the individual's direct control, which means that it is a trait which can be intentionally improved (Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2007) and developed (Ding et al., 2015) to ensure more efficient and effective performance at work.

Anjum (2020) refers to psychological capital as the psychological immune system. An individual with a well-developed capacity for psychological capital will benefit greatly during the Covid-19 pandemic. In particular, optimism will prove invaluable in this uncertain time, as a recent study showed that higher optimism (and lower pessimism) can reduce the negative impact of psychological inflexibility on the experience of psychological problems (Arslan et al., 2020). In other words, the reason why individuals with high levels of Covid-19-related stress report greater psychological problems may be because they have high levels of pessimism and psychological inflexibility and low levels of optimism. These findings support a previous study done by Reed (2016) which indicated a strong relationship between coping flexibility, optimism, mental health problems and wellbeing. Research suggests that people living in developed countries are more resilient to stress and can "bounce back" psychologically (Shultz et al., 2007; Taylor, 2017). Unfortunately, the same cannot be said for developing countries, mostly due to a lack of adequate mental health support systems. As such, it is expected that the psychological footprint of the Covid-19 pandemic will be greater than the medical footprint (Shultz et al., 2008). Consequently, the onus will be on employers to create and maintain structure and calm, and to afford employees the opportunity to nurture their healthy psychological states to increase their psychological capital reserves (Mao et al., 2020).

3.2.1.1 Dimensions of psychological capital

The theory of psychological capital is focused on the advancement of the positive psychology discipline. It centres on grooming the specific characteristics of (1) perseverance in achieving goals and objectives (hope); (2) confidence to succeed in challenging events (self-efficacy); (3) the ability to bounce back from adversity (resiliency); and (4) level of optimism for future success (optimism) in an effort to achieve goals (Luthans et al., 2007). These resources operate both separately and in synergy and, if developed and nurtured, can result in desirable employee attitudes such as workplace coping behaviour (Luthans et al., 2007). According to Hobfoll (2002), these four psychological resource constructs work and interact together and will manifest in different ways in different contexts; he refers to this notion as resource caravans. It is evident that psychological capital has a greater effect on work performance collectively, than any single construct separately (Choi & Lee, 2014). Self-efficacy, hope,

resilience and optimism all share common characteristics, namely intentionality, a sense of control and agentic goal pursuit whereby the individual is likely to make a positive appraisal of a situation and likely to flourish as their efforts will be supported by the necessary motivation and determination to succeed (Luthans et al., 2007).

(a) Hope

The earliest literature on the construct of hope dates back to the 1950s, when French (1952) and Menninger (1959) researched the impact of hope on willingness to learn, initiating change and wellbeing. However, it was Snyder et al. (1991) who laid the foundation for the hope theories we know today. Snyder et al. (1991) explained hope as a positive and motivational state of mind which originates from one's sense of achievement. Snyder (2000) later further defined hope as a state which can be continuously developed by making use of goal-based interventions.

Snyder's (2000) hope theory conceptualises that hope drives the interaction between objectives, agency and pathways (Luthans et al., 2010). Agency refers to the individual's determination, whereas pathways refers to the planning element of achieving goals (Snyder et al., 1991). Snyder's theory (1991) proposes that individuals are motivated to pursue their objectives if they have the determination and agency to invest and by having the ability to develop and conceptualise the necessary pathways to get there. Hopeful individuals tend to be in good mental and psychological health and have a positive view of their accomplishments and surroundings (Snyder, 2002). Snyder's (2002) research asserts that hope is an iterative cognitive process.

Hope results in physiological wellbeing (Snyder, 2000) and is linked to job performance (Peterson & Byron, 2008; Snyder et al., 2002). The construct can be developed and an individual may utilise development methods such as goal-setting, internal rehearsals of individual challenges, contingency planning ("plan B") and the allocation of resources in the workplace or in a personal capacity (Youssef-Morgan & Dahms, 2017).

In the workplace, research indicates that hope has a positive effect on an individual's performance levels, as they will have the determination to accomplish an objective (Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Snyder et al. (2002) established that individuals indicated that they often had to identify pathways (i.e. the planning required to achieve goals) when faced with changes in the workplace.

As the nature of the legal industry requires attorneys to anticipate and overcome problems, hope is an essential psychological characteristic which needs to be developed and nurtured.

(b) Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is seen as a fundamental tool of human agency. It is explained as an individual's belief in their ability to apply control over their environment and utilise the necessary resources and actions required to achieve their objectives (Michaelides, 2008; Snyder, 1994). More specifically, Betz and Hackett (1997) suggest that self-efficacy refers to an individual's career-related behaviours, decisions, beliefs and determination in carrying out the choices. Self-efficacy tends to have a proactive nature and internal focus (Luthans et al., 2007). Ivancevich et al. (2011) suggest that self-efficacy beliefs are learnt and developed through experience. Accordingly, when an individual effectively repeats a task for some time, they will grow confident in their ability to do so successfully (Ivancevich et al., 2011).

Bandura (1997) found that high levels of self-efficacy are related to greater levels of happiness, general wellbeing and the adoption of healthy behaviours. In addition, self-efficacy can buffer against mental health challenges such as depression, anxiety and substance abuse (Bandura, 1997). In the workplace, self-efficacy has been shown to contribute towards performance, as it enables the individual to pursue difficult tasks in a proactive manner (Bandura, 1997). Furthermore, it assists individuals to approach difficult situations with confidence, as opposed to avoiding the challenge (Dogan et al., 2013). The challenging environment of the legal profession may undermine an attorney's self-efficacy and confidence levels and constant mentoring and training is required (Knudson, 2015). Fortunately, self-efficacy can be developed by means of mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, feedback and an individual's physical and mental states (Maddux, 1995).

(c) Resilience

Resilience is defined as an individual's ability to bounce back from adversity, failure and overwhelming changes (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). As with the other psychological capital elements, resilience is linked to performance, as resilient individuals show greater flexibility when facing challenging circumstances (Luthans et al., 2007; Masten & Reed, 2002). Resilience differs from the other psychological capital constructs as it is seen as a reactive capability, whereas hope, optimism and self-efficacy are proactive constructs (Luthans et al., 2014).

MacEwen (2013) found that attorneys scored low on resilience, averaging in the 30th percentile, compared to the general public's average score in the 50th percentile. The findings of this study suggest that attorneys' vulnerability may be as a result of character traits such as defensiveness, scepticism and sensitivity to criticism. In addition, attorneys are prone to pessimism, which weakens their resilience (Seligman, 2002), which may, in turn, explain their susceptibility for mental health ailments such as depression, anxiety and substance abuse.

Fortunately, resilience can be developed by building on competencies which may contribute to resilience. Individually, these competencies include self-regulation, self-efficacy, impulse control, flexible optimism and problem-solving (Luthans et al., 2007), as well as employing risk- and process-focused strategies (Masten & Wright, 2009).

(d) Optimism

Whilst optimism relates to self-efficacy, optimism pertains specifically to the individual's expectation of future success (Luthans et al., 2010). Optimism involves cognitive, emotional and environmental components (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) also found that individuals with increased levels of optimism were likely to persevere, be successful and to have better dispositions and general health. Optimism has been linked with numerous positive organisational outcomes, such as increased performance and job satisfaction, higher productivity and lower turnover (Youssef & Luthans, 2007). Individually, optimism has been seen to increase wellbeing by increasing the ability to cope with stress and depression (Forgeard & Seligman, 2012). Furthermore, an optimistic individual is likely to have a greater level of life satisfaction (Diener, 2000) as they are likely to internalise positive events and regard negative situations to be as a result of external and temporary circumstances (Carver & Scheier, 2001). On the opposite side of the spectrum, pessimism has been associated with depression, stress and anxiety (Kamen & Seligman, 1987).

Optimism can lead to positive performance results in the workplace, as optimistic individuals are likely to demonstrate positive interpretations of challenging circumstances, which assists the individual in overcoming the situation (Jensen et al., 2007). Optimism can be developed through positive internal dialogue and applying positive thinking patterns regarding the past, present and future (Schneider, 2001). Fostering an optimistic attitude in the legal industry is challenging, as professional pessimism is encouraged due to the nature of the job (Daicoff, 2004; Seligman, 2002). The nature of the role requires the attorney to anticipate problems and a pessimistic outlook assists in an advisory capacity with their clientele.

3.2.1.2 Psychological capital limitations and criticisms

It is evident from the above literature that psychological capital constructs influence the individual's appraisal of a stressor. Fortunately, these psychological capital constructs can all be developed, which means that with training and development, individuals can increase their ability to learn and improve on their coping behaviours (Luthans et al., 2007). However, psychological capital has encountered a fair amount of criticism over time. Overall, positive psychology has been condemned for losing predictive power when state positive affect was

accounted for with regard to satisfaction and motivation, (Lazarus, 2003). Nonetheless, with regard to psychological capital specifically, the first concern is the lack of research focusing on the test-retest validity of psychological capital to prove the reliability of a construct (Dawkins & Martin, 2010). Secondly, psychological capital has been criticised for relying on one methodology only, namely self-measurement. This is concerning, as it increases the risk of common method variance which reduces the interpretability of the results (Hackman, 2009). Furthermore, Hackman (2009) posits that psychological capital is too one-dimensional, meaning that it only concentrates at the individual level and does not consider organisational or contextual influences. Studies conducted by Little et al. (2007) indicated that construct, discriminant and incremental validity were not well supported for any of the psychological capital measures, in particular the lack of discriminant validity between hope (agency) and optimism. Their study found that hope and state optimism lacked discriminating power, which means that they share significant conceptual and empirical space. They concluded that the inclusion of hope and optimism as separate constructs required reconsideration (Little et al., 2007). That said, more research can be done in this field to test these criticisms, as a few single studies highlighting the issues are not enough to warrant concern.

3.2.2 Emotional intelligence

In an organisational context, Martinez (1997) summarised emotional intelligence as an array of non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies which can influence an individual's ability to cope with the demands and pressures of the workplace. Having said that, it is important to note that emotional intelligence centres around a person's skill and not the personality characteristics of an individual (Kelton, 2014). Kelton (2014) further states that emotional intelligence should rather be seen as a measurement of a person's cognitive and emotional elements. Emotional intelligence generally grows steadily as a person matures and, fortunately, it can be improved upon at any age (Goleman, 1998). Individuals who improve their level of emotional intelligence can expect an increase in their job performance, as their emotional competence can level up to the demands of their profession (Goleman, 1998). Pradhan and Jena (2016) found that employees with a high degree of emotional intelligence were able to handle the job demands better, as it affects the way individuals evaluate and cope with threats in the workplace. These findings are supported by Nel (2018), who asserts that psychosocial resources (i.e. emotional intelligence and psychological capital) may assist individuals in managing their workplace stressors and in turn strengthen their wellbeing.

Research by Sinclair (2009) indicates that emotional intelligence plays a significant part in one's career success, career satisfaction and wellbeing (Sinclair, 2009). Coetzee and Harry (2014) found emotional intelligence could forecast the level of career decision-making self-

efficacy and vocational exploration and commitment. Additionally, they established that individuals with confidence in how they manage their own emotions (also referred to as emotional self-efficacy) had higher levels of motivation and a willingness to plan for a future career prospect. These individuals will also take ownership for their career and related experiences and have the willingness to explore career opportunities. Lastly, these individuals could increase their confidence in developing the necessary skills to master the tasks in their careers (Coetzee & Harry, 2014). According to Coetzee and Beukes (2010), emotional self-efficacy has been proven to be a vital factor in the work context as it plays a key role in problem-solving and positive coping behaviours. Additionally, emotional self-efficacy can predict one's ability to set career-related goals (Coetzee & Beukes, 2010).

Although attorneys are expected to have a high intelligence quotient (IQ), attorneys have been found to have lower scores of emotional intelligence, which may be a natural result of the profession requiring the absence of emotion (Muir, 2016). Kelton (2015) found that attorneys tend to score low on emotional intelligence, as they have been taught to think analytically and that emotional considerations should remain separate from their cognitive abilities. That said, the lack of emotional intelligence may result in attorneys struggling to demonstrate empathy and social skills and to control their own emotions (O'Brien, 2010). According to Goleman (2017), essential emotional intelligence attributes include self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. As such, an elevated level of emotional intelligence will assist an attorney to deal effectively with his/her emotions, which will result in improved decision-making capabilities (Krishnakumar & Rymph, 2012).

Emotional intelligence is key to managing the mental strain posed by the Covid-19 pandemic, as it will enable an individual to manage the emotional complexity in this marathon challenge. Harnessing existing and developing emotional intelligence capabilities in the current climate is important, as it will assist an individual to deal adequately with the change, uncertainty and ambiguity (Windsor, 2020). In particular, the effects of the virus will be a true test for management teams, and emotional intelligence will equip leaders to lead through empathy, influence and collaboration (Clark, 2020). In the legal profession, this means that senior attorneys will need to be able to recognise their own emotions and the emotions of their juniors, and take control and implement the required measures. Given that attorneys generally score lower on emotional intelligence (Kelton, 2015; Muir, 2016), this will pose a great challenge for the legal industry in the months to come.

One of the fundamental criticisms of emotional intelligence is the lack of a uniform definition or theory. At present, emotional intelligence is supported by three main theories, namely Goleman's (2001) mixed model, Petrides, Perez-Gonzalez et al. (2007)'s trait model and Mayer

et al. (2004) ability model. These models are all based on a different premise and as a result differ greatly with regard to measurement, limitations and subsequent criticisms, which will be discussed in the points below.

3.2.2.1 Goleman's mixed model

Although the empirical research on emotional intelligence dates back to the 1920s, it was Goleman (1998) who popularised the concept. Goleman worked as a science reporter for the *New York Times*, and as a result he was exposed to Mayer's and Salovey's work in the early 1990s. Intrigued, he explored the concept of emotional intelligence in his book *Emotional Intelligence*, which was published in 1995 and became a best seller. He defined emotional intelligence as the capacity for recognising your own feelings and those of others, for motivating yourself and managing your emotions and relationships well.

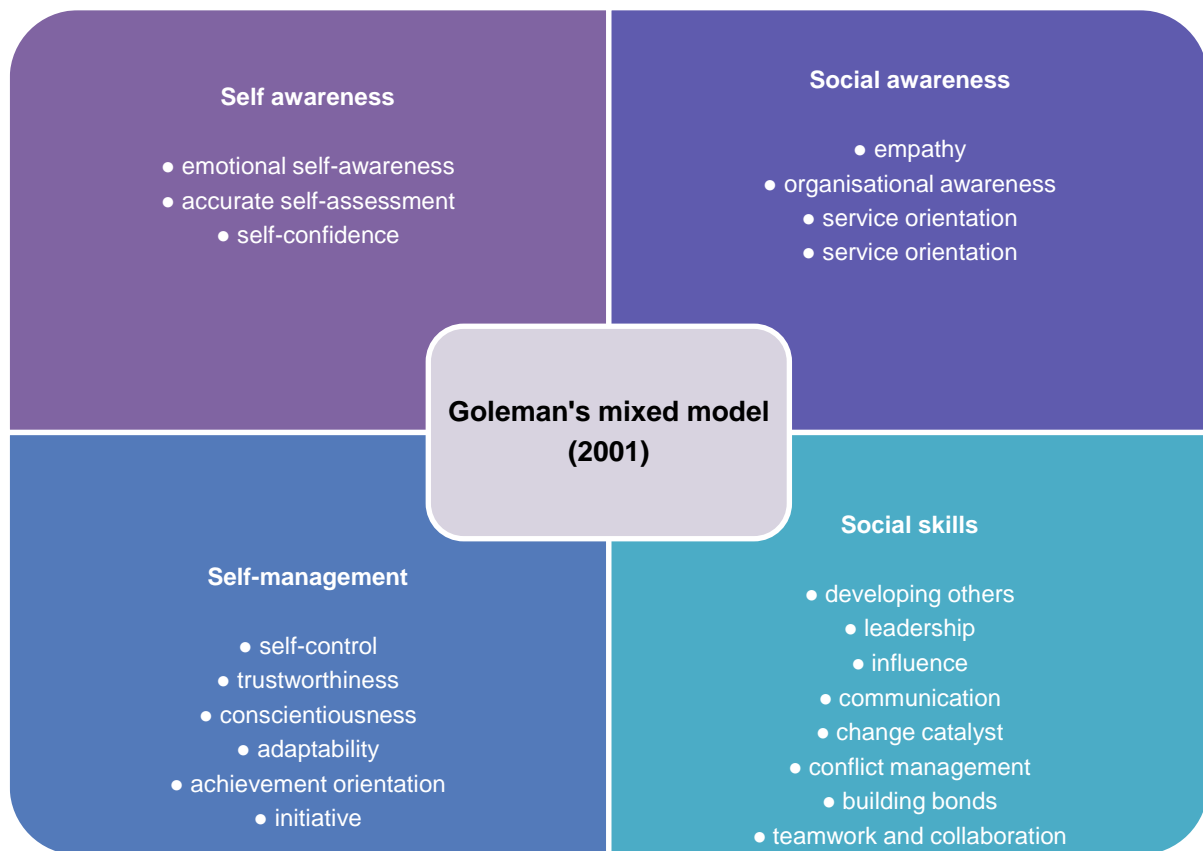
Initially, Goleman (1995) considered five traits essential for emotional intelligence, but upon review narrowed these traits down to four traits (Goleman, 2001), namely:

- Self-awareness, which entails the ability to read and understand one's own emotions and use your instinct to make decisions
- Self-management, which involves the control and (re)direction of emotion and not acting on impulse and to apply emotions to achieve goals and persevere through challenges
- Social awareness or empathy, which is the ability to sense, understand and interpret the emotions of others, and
- Relationship management, the ability to manage relationships.

Further to this, Goleman (2001) suggested accompanying competencies to each of these traits. He maintained that these competencies were not necessarily innate talents, but could be developed over time. These competencies are summarised in Figure 3.2:

Figure 3.2

Goleman's Mixed Model: Trait and Competencies



Source: Adapted from Goleman (2001).

Goleman's (2001) theory has been criticised for including personality and behavioural elements which are not connected to emotional intelligence as they are scientifically defined (Hein, 2006). In addition, his theory is often referred to as "pop psychology" as a result of not having a solid scientific base (Mayer et al., 2008). In general, the mixed model of emotional intelligence has been criticised for its relationship with other models of emotional intelligence and personality (O'Boyle et al., 2011) and for no universal agreement on the definition of emotional intelligence within the mixed model framework (MacCann et al., 2003). Additionally, studies have challenged the self-report measures used by the mixed method theory, as they contend that it is not predictive of emotional intelligence performance (Matthews et al., 2004). Typically, the mixed model would employ either the Emotional Competence Inventory (Conte, 2005) or the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (Boyatzis, 2007).

3.2.2.2 Salovey and Mayer's ability model

Emotional intelligence was first conceptualised as an ability by Mayer and Salovey (1997), who proposed that it is the skill of processing emotionally laden information. In other words, their model conceptualises emotional intelligence as a distinct form of intelligence or mental

ability (Cherniss, 2010). Emotional intelligence, even though it centres on emotions, may be conceptualised in the same way as verbal or numerical intelligence (Caruso et al., 2002). Under the ability model, Mayer et al. (2000) found that emotional intelligence is a cognitive ability similar to any other form of intelligence, as it meets the main three empirical criteria for intelligence.

Figure 3.3

Mayer and Salovey's Ability Model



Source: Adapted from Mayer and Salovey (1997).

Throughout the years Mayer and Salovey refined their theory and developed their four branch ability model (Mayer et al., 2004), which is illustrated in Figure 3.3. These abilities include

- perceiving emotion, which involves the ability to perceive, appraise and express emotion
- using emotion to facilitate thought
- understanding complex emotional information, and
- managing emotions to promote emotional, personal and intellectual growth.

In 2016, Mayer, Caruso and Salovey updated their model by including more examples of problem-solving and maintained that the mental abilities involved in emotional intelligence are still to be determined and require further research (Mayer et al., 2016). Emotional intelligence measurement tools for the ability model are based on maximum performance, akin to an

intelligence test (Petrides et al., 2007), as emotional intelligence is conceptualised as a cognitive ability and can be measured in the same way.

Mayer et al. (1999) developed the first ability emotional intelligence tool, namely the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). The assessment measured the four factors of their model, as illustrated in Figure 3.4, namely perceiving emotions, facilitating thoughts (emotions), understanding emotions and managing emotions. However, it was established that the MEIS assessment only measured three of the four factors of emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 1999). The MEIS was later remodelled and reintroduced as the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004). Schutte et al. (1998) subsequently developed the Assessment of Emotions Scale (AES) from Mayer and Salovey's (1997) theory. At present, the AES scale is regarded as one of the most extensively researched instruments, especially with regard to the psychometric properties of reliability and validity (Schutte et al., 2009).

The emotional intelligence ability model is not without criticism. According to Petrides, Pita et al. (2007), emotional intelligence is a subjective construct and as such the operationalisation of ability emotional intelligence is invalid. In other words, one cannot evaluate a subjective construct with objective methods. As a result, they deduced that the format of the ability-based assessment is invalid as the items cannot be scored in an objective manner. Another criticism was made by Zeidner et al. (2004), who posited that the foundation of the four factors of the ability model is psychologically ambiguous. For illustrative purposes, they used the Mona Lisa painting as an analogy: an individual uses a range of processes, such as culture and experiences, to find meaning and make sense and form a subjective understanding of the painting. They maintained that these range of processes supersedes emotional intelligence. As such, they criticised the ability model for trying to measure face perception in the MSCEIT in an objective way. This view is supported by Petrides and Mavrouli (2018), who argues that the MSCEIT assessment scores are uninterpretable from a psychological perspective.

3.2.2.3 Petrides' trait model

Formally defined, trait emotional intelligence is a collection of emotional perceptions weighed by questionnaires and rating scales (Petrides et al., 2007). In other words, it is individuals' own beliefs about their emotions. The foundation of this model is that emotional intelligence forms part of an individual's personality, emotional traits and self-perceptions and, as such, Petrides, Furnham et al. (2007) differentiates his trait model from the ability model, mainly because he considers emotions as an inherently subjective experience (Matthews et al., 2004). The trait model (also known as trait emotional self-efficacy) is partially based on the successful traits

and characteristics incorporated in earlier emotional intelligence models (Cherniss, 2010). Petrides et al.'s (2007) aim was to include those features that were shared in other models while excluding the features which only appeared single models.

The trait model measures emotional intelligence by means of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) (Petrides, 2009), which is a self-report measure that contains 153 items based on a seven-point Likert scale. Once completed, the results are organised into a global trait emotional intelligence score as well as four factors. These four factors are wellbeing, self-control, emotionality and sociability (Petrides, 2009). These factors can be further divided into three to four facets or sub-factors each, as follows (and also illustrated in figure 3.4):

- 1) Wellbeing (traits related to mood)
 - Self-esteem: the individual's opinion of themselves
 - Happiness: enjoyable emotional states experienced currently
 - Optimism: similar to happiness, but also pertains to perceptions of future wellbeing.

- 2) Self-control (regulation and impulse control)
 - Stress management: how the individual deals with stress
 - Impulsiveness: dysfunctional impulsive behaviour
 - Emotion regulation: Control of emotions over the short, medium and long term.

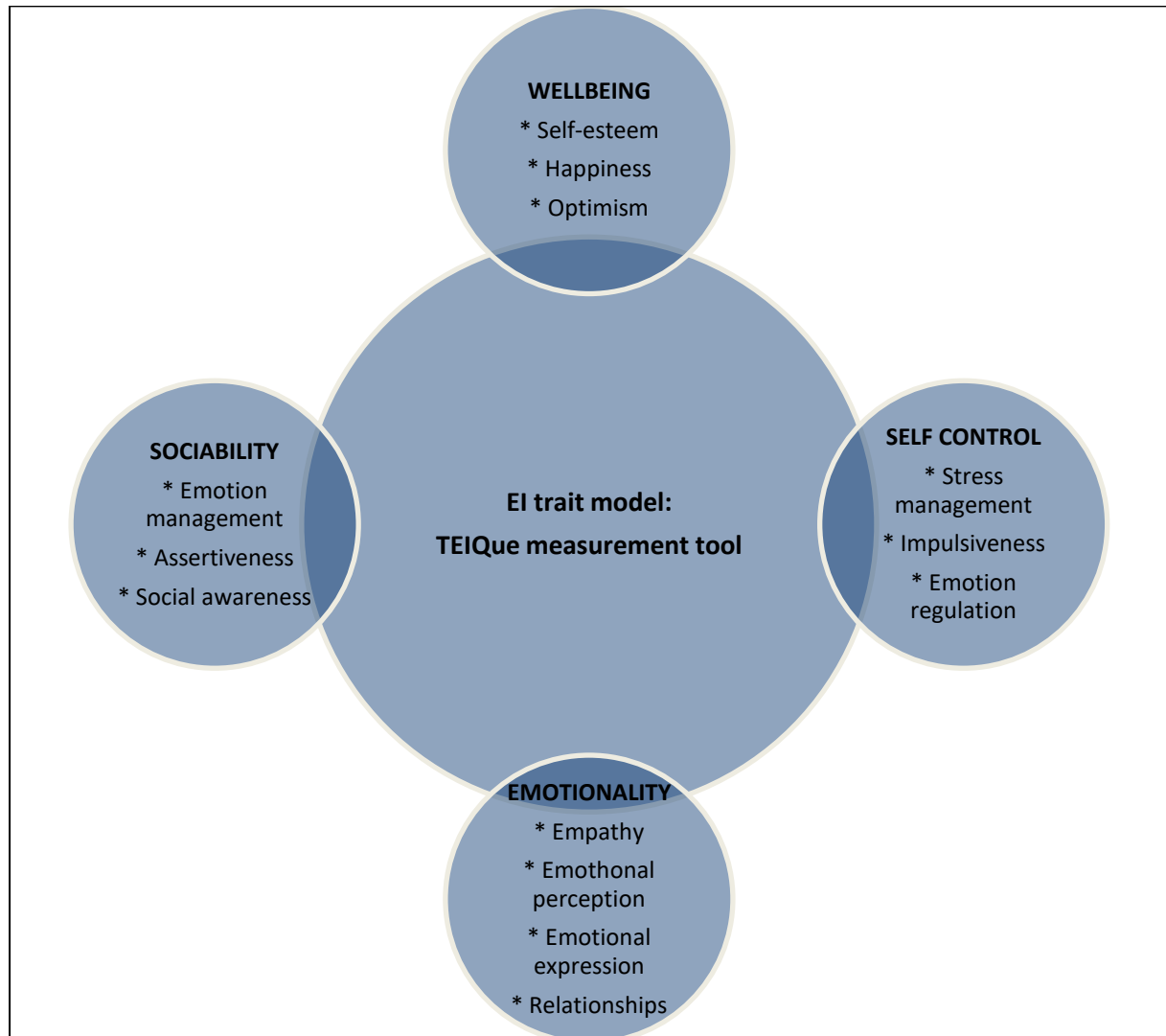
- 3) Emotionality (emotional awareness and expression)
 - Empathy: whether an individual can see another's point of view
 - Emotion perception: whether an individual can recognise their own emotions as well as the emotions of others
 - Emotion expression: communication of feelings to others
 - Relationships: quality of close relationships.

- 4) Sociability (how emotions are utilised in interpersonal situations)
 - Emotion management: how well an individual can manage the feelings and emotional states of others
 - Assertiveness: the ability to confront others
 - Social awareness: social skills applicable to a broader social setting.

The TEIQue (Petrides, 2009) also measures two global facets, namely adaptability, which concerns the flexibility of the individual in general, and the workplace and self-motivation, which entail an individual's drive to get things done (Petrides, 2009).

Figure 3.4

The Factors and Facets Measured by the TEIQue Measurement Tool



Source: Adapted from Petrides, K. V. (2009).

As to be expected, many of the criticisms of the emotional intelligence mixed models also apply to the trait model, as the trait model has adopted and incorporated many of their concepts and ideas. The first of these is that individuals are susceptible to answering self-report assessments in what they may deem to be a socially desirable manner (Paulhus & Vazire, 2009). Additionally, the trait model has been criticised for the suggestion that it can be incorporated within the personality space, owing to its subjective nature (Gardner & Qualter, 2010). However, in defence of their model, Petrides and Furnham (2003) maintain that the

trait emotional intelligence model is robust, can be distinguished from personality and can be isolated from personality models such as the Big Five personality theory.

In conclusion, Mayer and Salovey's (1997) ability model entails the understanding of emotions to facilitate individuals' thinking and decision-making processes (MacCann et al., 2014). However, the trait model (Petrides & Furnham, 2003) involves individuals' self-perception of their own emotional abilities (Petrides, Furnham et al. 2007), usually conveyed via self-report measures (Perez et al., 2005). The mixed model (Goleman, 2001) refers to individuals' skills and competencies, which do not come naturally and have to be developed over time (Goleman, 2001). Although Goleman (2001) developed this model from research done in the workplace (Goleman, 1998), his work is often referred to as "pop culture" and as the trait model has incorporated Goleman's (2001) mixed model theories (Petrides, Furnham et al. 2007), the mixed model will not be utilised for the purpose of this study. While the trait model (Petrides, 2007) has been criticised for its self-report measures on mental states, which are subject to bias (Paulhus & Vazire, 2009), research suggests that the ability model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) lacks validity in the workplace. Accordingly, as this research is conducted in an organisational setting, the study will utilise the trait model (Petrides, Furnham et al. 2007) as its theoretical foundation for emotional intelligence.

3.3 ROLE OF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

This section discusses the influence of age, gender, race, tenure and job level on psychological capital and emotional intelligence.

3.3.1 Age

The results on the sub-constructs of psychological capital are mixed. Ze-Wei et al. (2015) purport that age and gender interact in self-efficacy development. A study done by Balmer et al. (2014) on police officers suggested that one's level of resilience can be influenced by age. In their research, they found that the youngest group of police officers (aged between 18 and 35 years) revealed significantly more resilience than officers in the older age ranges. Similar findings were made for the sub-construct hope by Seligman et al. (2001), who found higher levels of hope among younger employees. However, it is important to note that research has found that older employees are better at emotional regulation and regulating their psychological behaviour than younger employees under stressful circumstances (Blanchard-Fields & Coats, 2008). A South African study on the effects of psychological capital on organisational performance (Du Plessis & Barkhuizen, 2011) found no significant relationship between age and psychological capital.

To date, research suggests that there is no significant relationship between age and emotional intelligence. Van Rooy et al. (2005) suggest only a slight increase in emotional intelligence levels as one gets older. Likewise, Goldenberg et al. (2006) found that there is a low relationship between trait emotional intelligence and age specifically. However, according to Derksen et al. (2002), emotional intelligence peaks around the age of 34 and 44 years. Nevertheless, a subsequent study by Siegling et al. (2014) found that emotional intelligence scores are at their highest when an individual is around 30 years old. That said, in other studies age was found to be an advantage: individuals do seem to handle challenges better as they age (Chen et al., 2016); however, if the stressor persists or remains unavoidable, older individuals tend to manifest physical and mental consequences (Charles et al., 2016).

3.3.2 Gender

In general, the research results for the relationship of gender on psychological capital indicate that men display greater levels of psychological capital. Zubair and Kamal (2015) researched the effects of psychological capital and workflow on employee creativity at a software company and found that men demonstrated greater levels of psychological capital than women. Similarly, a study done by Liu et al. (2012) found that female doctors who felt overworked and under-rewarded showed lower levels of psychological capital.

However, the findings are mixed for the sub-constructs of psychological capital. For hope, research conducted by Snyder and Lopez (2002) posited no significant difference between males and females. Their findings were based on a review of over 40 studies on the subject. Similarly, a study on resilience among police officers by Balmer et al. (2014) found no significant differences between males and females.

Research conducted by Vantieghem and Van Houtte (2015) explored self-efficacy in an academic context, finding that, for girls, when faced with pressures regarding gender conformity, their academic self-efficacy remained stable. However, the levels of academic self-efficacy dropped for boys when exposed to similar levels of pressure. In their study of adolescents, contrasting conclusions were made by Ze-Wei et al. (2015). Their findings suggest that that adolescent boys had higher general self-efficacy than adolescent girls. Their findings therefore support the findings of an older study by Kling et al. (1999), which posited that men reported higher self-efficacy.

The research on the relationship between emotional intelligence and gender is limited (Pillay et al., 2013). However, research by Goldenberg et al. (2006) suggests that women score better than men on emotional intelligence. This view was supported by Petrides and Furnham (2006) who proposed that the reason for this may be as a result of women being more exposed to

both family-related interpersonal and job stress than men due to the nature of their traditional caregiving roles.

3.3.3 Race

A South African study conducted by Du Plessis and Barkhuizen (2011) on the effects of psychological capital on organisational performance found that white South Africans scored higher on hopefulness than their black counterparts, whereas the latter showed greater scores on resilience. It is however important to remember the effects of post-apartheid organisational dynamics, affirmative action, complicated labour relations and the continued income, educational and opportunity gap between racial groups, which will remain a challenge for years to come (Luthans et al., 2004).

For emotional intelligence, the research results were inconsistent in terms of racial differences (Roberts et al., 2001). However, race may be an antecedent of emotional intelligence, given previous research findings which suggest that cultural views and values influence emotions and perceptions (Taras et al., 2010). Although the study by Taras et al. (2010) was a Canadian study and not representative of the South African population, the study posits that on average, individuals of the Indian race group would score higher on global emotional intelligence than any other racial group.

3.3.4 Tenure

In an older study on self-efficacy in educational psychologists, Yiyit (2001) found that there was a positive relationship between tenure and self-efficacy. Later, on the same subject, Gunduz and Celikkaleli (2009) found lower self-efficacy levels for those with a shorter tenure (less than 5 years) than those who had worked at the school for longer. The reverse may also be true: a study by Zubair and Kamal (2015) noted that high levels of psychological capital resulted in longer tenure.

Research by Joseph and Newman (2010) sought to assess the effect of job tenure on emotional intelligence. They found no relationship between trait emotional intelligence and job tenure, which signifies that trait emotional intelligence is independent of job experience. However, in a leadership study conducted by Siegling et al. (2014), it was found that emotional intelligence positively correlated with job tenure.

3.3.5 Job level

For psychological capital, a local study found that those holding senior roles scored significantly higher on the sub-constructs of hope, optimism and resilience (Du Plessis & Barkhuizen, 2011). According to Bartlett (2015), those who hold leadership positions score

higher on emotional intelligence than their juniors. Pillay et al. (2013) support this notion, as emotional intelligence has proven to be increasingly relevant for success as individuals progress up the career ladder.

To conclude, research findings are mixed on the relationship of socio-demographic variables on both psychological capital and emotional intelligence. Research suggests that there is no significant relationship between age and psychological capital, yet there seems to be a relationship between race, gender, job tenure and job level. In relation to emotional intelligence, research has predominantly found inconclusive relationships on the matters of race, age and job tenure. However, with regard to gender, research does suggest that females score higher on emotional intelligence as well as on the subject of job level, where research indicates that psychological capital increases as an individual progresses up the hierarchy.

3.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR POSITIVE COPING AND WELLBEING

From the research material, a positive link between wellbeing and psychological capital (Culbertson et al., 2010; Datu & Valdez, 2016), wellbeing and emotional intelligence (Sanchez-Alvarez et al., 2016) and wellbeing and positive coping behaviour (Krok, 2015) is evident. This study sought to extend the existing wellbeing research by demonstrating a link between positive coping behaviour and wellbeing. There is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and the psychological capital constructs of hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism (Armstrong et al., 2011; Augusto-Lando et al., 2011; Batool et al., 2014; Matthews et al., 2002; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014; Saricam et al., 2015). Additionally, research suggests a positive link between the psychological capital constructs and positive coping behaviour (Balmer et al., 2014; Carver et al., 2001; Dorsett et al., 2017; Hatchett & Park, 2004; Piergiovanni & Depaula, 2018; Scheenen et al., 2017). This suggests a possible positive relationship between emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour. Research by Di Fabio et al. (2018) found emotional intelligence to mediate optimism and hope (sub-constructs of psychological capital), which supports the notion that emotional intelligence will fulfil a mediating function in this relationship. The findings and theoretical mediating effect of emotional intelligence are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1*Theoretical Mediating Effect of Emotional Intelligence*

Psychological capital constructs (Antecedents)	Emotional intelligence (Mediating effect)	Positive coping behaviour (Outcome)	Wellbeing (Implications)
Hope	The link between hope and positive coping is mediated by emotional intelligence (Di Fabio et al., 2018). The mediating model assumes that hope predicts higher levels of emotional intelligence, which in turn predict higher levels of positive coping (Batool et al., 2014; Saricam et al., 2015).	The construct hope has a significant positive correlation with positive, adaptive coping behaviour (Wang et al., 2017). In particular the coping strategies employed would be acceptance, planning, positive reframing and a fighting spirit (Dorsett et al., 2017).	The use of acceptance as a coping strategy is a good predictor of wellbeing (Klostermann, 2017; Ranzijn & Luszcz, 1999)
Self-efficacy	Research suggests a positive relationship between self-efficacy and emotional intelligence, which in turn may predict higher levels of positive coping (Ramchunder & Martins, 2014)	High levels of self-efficacy are related to a high active coping style, such as problem-focused coping and positive re-appraisal (Piergiovanni & Depaula, 2018; Scheenen et al., 2017).	Active coping styles are associated with emotional wellbeing (Antoni et al., 2001; Pakenham & Rinaldis, 2001). Additionally, problem-solving coping styles may result in an increase in subjective wellbeing (Nunes et al., 2016)
Resilience	Emotional intelligence is directly connected to resilience and the positive link between resilience and EI may in turn predict higher levels of positive coping (Armstrong et al., 2011; Matthews et al., 2002).	High levels of resilience predict rational coping strategies (acceptance, exposure and understanding) and levels of resilience (Balmer et al., 2014).	Acceptance, as a coping mechanism, is a good predictor of wellbeing (Klostermann, 2017; Ranzijn & Luszcz, 1999)
Optimism	Optimism positively predicts higher levels of emotional intelligence, which in turn predict higher levels of positive coping (Di Fabio et al., 2018) which is considered an antecedent of optimism (Augusto-Lando et al., 2011).	Optimism is positively linked to task-oriented and social diversion coping strategies (Hatchett & Park, 2004). Additionally, those with high levels of optimism may employ active coping strategies to overcome adversity (Carver et al., 2001).	As noted under self-efficacy, active coping styles are linked to emotional wellbeing (Antoni et al., 2001; Pakenham & Rinaldis, 2001). Additionally, research indicates a positive correlation between wellbeing and interpersonal coping behaviours (Tuncay et al., 2008).

Source: Author's own work

3.4.1 The conservation of resources theory

In an effort to study the relationship dynamics between the psychological capital constructs, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour, the study will use the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 2002) as a meta-theoretical lens. The conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 2002) is a subjective wellbeing theory which considers both environmental and internal processes, both as having somewhat equal value. Although the theory was originally employed for the management of traumatic stress (Hobfoll et al., 2006), it was developed into a theoretical framework for understanding and predicting stress and resilience within the work environment (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). According to the conservation of resources theory, resources are considered those psychological traits (e.g. optimism), environmental conditions (e.g. employment), individual motivation, objects (e.g. house) and energy (e.g. knowledge) that hold their value and are seen as individual assets in the accomplishment of certain results (Hobfoll, 1998). The value of resources is based on whether the resources are desired by the individual and are critical in the attainment or preservation of sought-after resources (Chen et al., 2015). Thus, resources can be considered to be outcomes or a vehicle to facilitate the accomplishment of certain outcomes. The conservation of resources theory is based on two principles, namely:

- *Principle 1: the primacy of resource loss.* This principle posits that an individual's resource loss is more noticeable than resource gain. In other words, if a resource loss and resource gain are presented in equal quantities of loss and gain, the loss of resources will have a significantly higher impact (Hobfoll et al., 2015). As a result, resource gains attain greater importance given the loss (Hobfoll et al., 2015).
- *Principle 2: resource investment.* This principle suggests the necessity of individuals to invest in resources to protect themselves against the loss of resources, to recuperate from a loss of resources and obtain new resources (Hobfoll et al., 2015). Within the context of coping, individuals will invest resources to avoid the loss of future resources. In other words, the act of resource investment is a coping mechanism that has the intention of preventing future losses.

According to Hobfoll (1989), the following four corollaries apply to the aforementioned principles:

- 1) Those with higher resources will be set up for resource gains and it is probable that those with fewer resources will experience resource losses.

- 2) Initial resource loss will result in future resource loss.
- 3) Initial resource gains will result in future resource gains.
- 4) An individual experiencing a lack of resources will employ defensive efforts to safeguard their remaining resources.

The conservation of resources theory postulates that resources are constant (King et al., 1999). Hobfoll used a caravan analogy, suggesting that an entourage of resources tends to travel together over time, but may be subjected to internal or external impacts (Baltes, 1997). Additionally, the conservation of resources theory proposes that resources should be replaced or substituted with other resources of the same value when they are lost (Hobfoll & Schumm, 2009).

In the context of this study, stressful events may result in the loss of resources for an individual, such as the loss of a sense of wellbeing, trust or optimism (Hobfoll, 1991) and, consequently, the individual is left with fewer resources to cope effectively with a future stressor (Hobfoll et al., 1995) which may put them in a resource loss cycle. In contrast, an individual may utilise positive coping behaviour when faced with a stressor. Positive coping behaviour relates to the utilisation of personal psychosocial resources (such as psychological capital and emotional intelligence) to contend with stress in a meaningful way (Furnes & Dysvik, 2012). This approach will lessen an individual's stress and their perception of the problem (Au et al., 2013) and put them in a resource gain cycle, leading to a sense of positive wellbeing. In this study, wellbeing (as an outflow of positive coping behaviour), involves individuals' cognitive and emotional assessments of their life (Diener et al., 2002). In an organisational context, wellbeing is considered an outcome resource and a means to achieve other outcomes (Diener, 2013) and, as a result, it is considered a primary resource (Holmgreen et al., 2017). This approach is summarised in Figure 3.5.

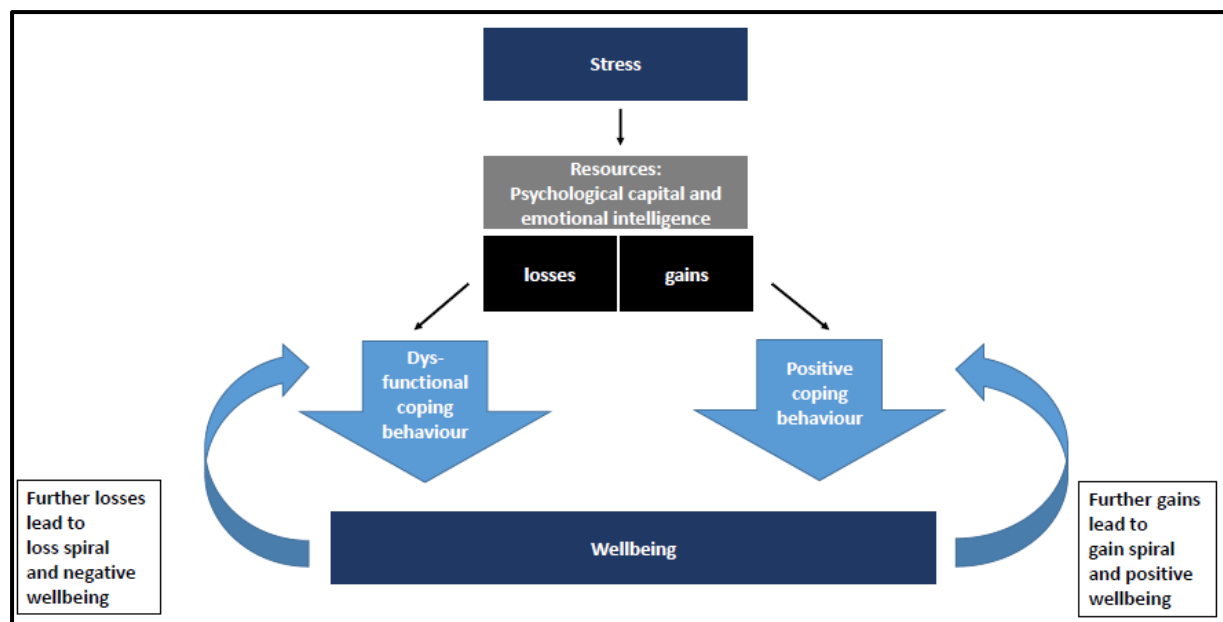
As Table 3.1. depicts, there appears to be a link between psychological capital, emotional intelligence, positive coping behaviour and wellbeing (in that higher levels of psychological capital constructs result in or predict positive coping behaviour, resulting in a sense of wellbeing). From the research findings, it is safe to deduce that the loss of a resource on a particular psychological capital construct owing to a stressful event (e.g. hope) will result in a lower sense of wellbeing (i.e. the outcome resource). In line with the principles of the conservation of resources theory, the individual will attempt to replace the lost resources. It is important to note that in the event of a substitution of less value, it would result in a negative outcome and it would be natural for an individual to attempt to recover the loss of resources (Hobfoll, 2002). Furthermore, the second principle of the conservation of resources theory, pertaining to resource investment, also specifies the importance of proactive behaviour which

results in coping (Hobfoll et al., 2015). The conservation of resources theory points out that the attainment, preservation and development of resources are rudimentary motivational objectives that involve substantial effort and other resource costs (Hobfoll et al., 2015). This requires the individual to employ adaptive behaviour, which is also known as reactive coping (Chen et al., 2015).

Although psychological capital and emotional intelligence are valued in their own right, the relationship dynamics between these constructs are studied to provide insight into positive coping behaviour and wellbeing, that is, the outcome resources. This study investigated the relationship dynamics between these psychological constructs to provide an understanding of the outcome resource of positive coping behaviour and wellbeing. More specifically, the study investigated the manner in which emotional intelligence (the mediating variable) enhances or obstructs the relationship between psychological capital (the independent variable and positive coping behaviour (the dependent variable), which may deliver some insight in terms of wellbeing in the organisational context (Hobfoll et al., 2015).

Figure 3.5

The Impact of Resource Losses and Gains



Source: Author's own work

The basic principles of the conservation of resources theory provide a structure for understanding the development of stressful events and its impact on the individual. When exploring the impact of work-related stressors on individuals, it is evident that a loss of resources (e.g. a sense of wellbeing) will result in negative outcomes such as depression

(Cruwys & Gunaseelan, 2016). As such, these findings are consistent with the conservation of resources theory.

3.4.2 Implications for wellbeing interventions

Increased organisational support, such as employee wellness practices, may result in an increase in organisational and employee wellness. Various approaches can be used by organisations to develop or improve employees' psychological capital and emotional intelligence capabilities, in an effort to improve overall wellbeing. Research by Luthans et al. (2006) recommended the use of the psychological capital intervention (PCI) tool for organisations in an effort to increase the psychological capital of their employees. This tool has been proven to significantly increase the level of psychological capital by around 2% (Nolzen, 2018). This intervention is a training session based on past research on the psychological capital constructs, namely hope, self-efficacy, optimism and resilience (Luthans et al., 2007). PCI focuses on a person's positive features in an effort to encourage positive perceptions, emotions and behaviours and bring about a positive disposition (Flückiger & Wüsten, 2008). Luthans and Youssef (2017) have also suggested a modern approach to training on the four constructs of psychological capital: they propose that employers make use of positive video games, inspirational videos and positive psychology applications to increase sustainability and engagement of the psychological capital constructs.

Although no universal emotional intelligence intervention is available, research posits that emotional intelligence can be enhanced by utilising targeted training techniques. For instance, mindfulness training has shown that brain alterations can regulate positive and negative emotions (Davidson et al., 2003). In a study by Nelis et al. (2009), an emotional intelligence training intervention was developed consisting of four sessions over a four-week period. The training was based on Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four branch emotional intelligence model, namely (1) perception of emotion, (2) emotional facilitation, (3) understanding of emotions and (4) regulation of emotion. The training content included lectures, readings, role playing and group discussions. The results of their study indicated that emotional habits and abilities can be improved by employing short training initiatives, if paired with follow-up refresher or coaching sessions. These are encouraging findings, as emotional intelligence has a predictive relationship on psychological wellbeing (Smith et al., 2008).

3.4.3 Synthesis: the relationship between psychological capital, positive coping and the mediation effect of emotional intelligence

Previous research has already suggested the link between psychological capital, wellness and positive coping. In particular, a study by Rabenu et al. (2017) found psychological capital to

have a strong positive relationship with both wellbeing and coping behaviour (in particular, change and acceptance behaviours). Thus, their findings suggest in the context of this study that an attorney's psychological resources may give rise to their ability to adapt to challenges while framing their position in a more positive manner, instead of trying to change the stressors. Khan et al. (2011) postulate a high correlation between all the sub-constructs of psychological capital and problem-solving (a positive coping behaviour). In the context of the legal profession, this would mean that an attorney with high levels of hope and optimism would be able to mitigate their stress; a resilient attorney may be deemed an effective problem-solver and self-efficacy would afford an attorney the trust in their own resources to navigate the challenges.

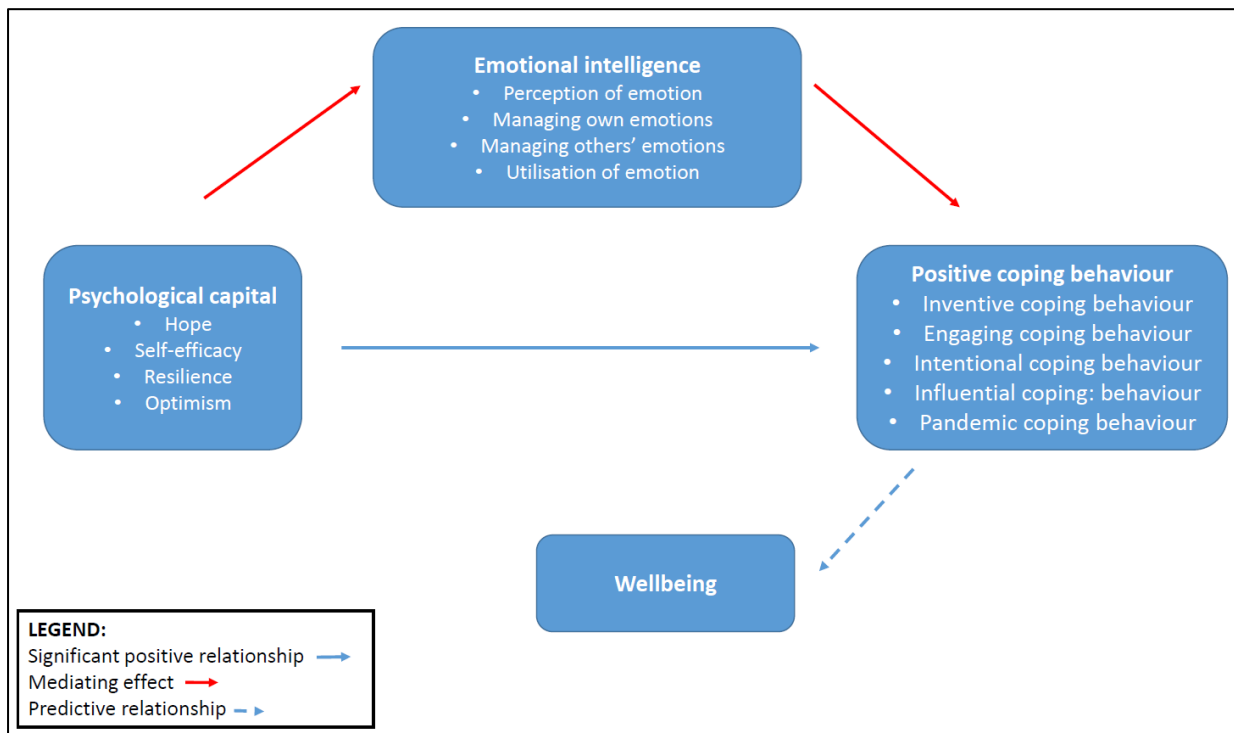
As the literature review on psychological capital suggests, the concept refers to those resources an individual employs to improve their performance, motivation and development. Positive coping refers to an individual's ability to navigate a challenge by means of behaviours that create meaning for the individual. Positive coping would typically involve inventive, engaging and intentional behaviours. Emotional intelligence is an interpersonal skill which involves the ability to use, manage and understand one's own emotions, as well as the emotions of others. More specifically, the trait emotional intelligence model centres around the following dimensions:

- wellbeing (sub-factors include happiness and optimism)
- self-control (stress management being a sub-factor)
- emotionality (which involves emotional awareness functions), and
- sociability (an individual's utilisation of emotions).

These dimensions of the trait emotional intelligence model all support and complement the definitions and models of psychological capital and wellbeing. For instance, optimism is a sub-construct of psychological capital, whereas self-control, emotionality and sociability relate to positive coping behaviours such as inventive and engaging behaviours. The trait emotional intelligence theory even addresses wellbeing, in that happiness is to be deemed an outcome of the subjective wellbeing theory. As such, it can be anticipated that emotional intelligence will fulfil a mediating function in this study, given the established link between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour as discussed above. The purpose of a mediating variable is to link the independent and the dependent variables. This is then presented to clarify and explain the relationship between the other two variables. Research has already established the mediation effect of emotional intelligence on hope and optimism (Di Fabio et al., 2018).

In summary, the findings in this section confirm the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping. High levels of the psychological capital constructs (hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism) may assist an individual to cope with work-related stress and this, in turn, may promote wellbeing. As such, it is expected that this study will indicate a positive relationship between psychological capital and positive coping. This relationship will be mediated by emotional intelligence, which is illustrated in Figure 3.6.

Figure 3.6
Conceptual Research Model



Source: Author's own work

3.5 EVALUATION AND SYNTHESIS

This section provides an evaluation of the literature on the influence of psychological capital and emotional intelligence on positive coping and wellbeing, in addition to the effect of socio-demographic variables on the relationship. It also draws conclusions from the reviewed literature.

3.5.1 Defining the constructs

It is evident from the research and the literature review that psychological capital (and its sub-constructs hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism) are all theoretically distinct concepts. Psychological capital theory is valued in this regard and has held water over the years. In

reviewing the literature, the relationship between the psychological capital sub-constructs and wellbeing and positive coping is apparent.

However, the definition of emotional intelligence is vague, as a result of the various emotional intelligence theories and subsequent approaches. Trait emotional intelligence is well defined, although its link with personality requires further investigation in order to distinguish it as a distinct construct. Conversely, emotional intelligence is deemed to be a mental function by the ability model and employs cognitive and objective measures of emotional intelligence. As this study will depend on self-report and subjective means to acquire information, the ability model will not be used in this study. Finally, the mixed model of emotional intelligence is also loosely defined, perhaps as a result of the multiple theories it encompasses and as theory borrows characteristics from the trait and ability models. For this reason, the mixed model will not be applied in this study.

3.5.2 Relationship between psychological capital and emotional intelligence

The literature has adequately addressed the relationship between psychological capital and emotional intelligence. Research indicates that there is a positive relationship between the sub-constructs of resilience, self-efficacy and emotional intelligence, whereas literature points to the mediating effect of emotional intelligence for optimism and hope.

3.5.3 Relationship with positive coping and wellbeing

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there is currently no research material available on the associations between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour for attorneys specifically. That said, emotional intelligence levels have previously been linked to an individual's selected coping strategies (Saklofske et al., 2007). Research indicates a link between burnout and poor coping behaviours in attorneys (Turan, 2015), whereas in general, positive emotions and psychological capital facilitate adaptive coping behaviour in chronic stress situations (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). Attorneys generally demonstrate lower levels of emotional intelligence than other professionals (Buchanan et al., 2017). This unfortunately creates a burden for human resource professionals and industrial psychologists in the industry, as they need to recognise, develop and employ emotionally intelligent attorneys in leadership positions who can steer their respective firms to success in a competitive and challenging marketplace. Increased levels of emotional intelligence will benefit the attorneys' practice, as emotional intelligence will enhance the emotional engagement experience for the client (International Bar Association, 2019). Furthermore, those firms that endeavour to continuously develop and strengthen their attorneys' psychological strengths (such as the psychological capital sub-constructs of hope, self-

efficacy, resilience and optimism) will assist the individual to effectively manage and navigate the occupational hazards of their profession.

The literature suggests that psychological capital and emotional intelligence have a direct influence on an individual's wellbeing and at least a modest influence on a person's positive coping behaviour. In reality, very little can be done to limit the type of stressors attorneys are exposed to, but if equipped with the necessary psychological resources – which can be developed over time - the attorney will be able to approach the challenge with a positive coping strategy. As such, assessment of an attorney's psychological capital and emotional intelligence levels may lend itself to predictive measures for attorneys' coping strategies.

3.5.4 Moderation effect of socio-demographic variables

Research has found no significant relationship between age and psychological capital. Similar findings have been obtained for the moderation effect on emotional intelligence: the research material delivered mixed results. Thus, it is anticipated that age may not have a significant influence on the study.

Previous studies (Avey, 2014; Vantieghe & Van Houtte, 2015; Younas et al., 2020; Ze-Wei et al., 2015) have found mixed results on the moderating effect of gender on psychological capital. Overall, men appear to display higher levels of psychological capital than women (Zubair & Kamal, 2015), however, when assessing at sub-construct level (i.e. hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism) the results were mixed. Women appeared to score higher on emotional intelligence than men (Cabello et al., 2016; Fischer et al., 2018).

Mixed findings have been presented by previous research papers on the effect of race on psychological capital (Du Plessis & Barkhuizen, 2011). The different racial groups appear to score stronger on the different sub-constructs of psychological capital (e.g. a study postulated that black individuals tend to score higher on resilience, whereas their white counterparts scored higher on hope). Research results for emotional intelligence are mixed (Roberts et al., 2001), with no conclusive findings on the effect of race on the construct.

A positive relationship between job tenure was found for both psychological capital (for the sub-construct self-efficacy, specifically) (Zubair & Kamal, 2015) and emotional intelligence (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Siegling et al., 2014). Research suggests that those with higher job tenure will display greater scores on these two constructs. Given that there is a positive relationship for job tenure with all the constructs of the study (i.e. positive coping, wellbeing, psychological capital and wellbeing), it is expected that high tenure individuals in this study will show positive results.

Research by Du Plessis and Barkhuizen (2011) seems to suggest that job level has a positive relationship with most of the sub-constructs of psychological capital. Those individuals at a higher job level will typically display greater scores on hope, optimism and resilience. Similar findings have been posited for emotional intelligence, that is, a higher job level would suggest greater emotional intelligence capacity (Bartlett, 2015; Pillay et al., 2013). Again, considering the greater approach of this study, job level appears to have a positive relationship with almost all constructs of the study (i.e. wellbeing, psychological capital and emotional intelligence), which suggests that attorneys in a senior role will display positive results in this study.

The evaluation and synthesis section concludes the literature review on psychological capital and emotional intelligence.

3.5.5 Review of the central hypothesis

The central hypothesis of this study is that the antecedent variables (psychological capital) will have a positive relationship with the outcome variable (positive coping behaviour) through emotional intelligence (as a mediating variable). The hypothesis further assumes that the relationship between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour is moderated by the individual's socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, race, tenure and job level). The relationship is more positive for certain socio-demographic groups than others. Groups will also differ significantly regarding their job levels. As such, the literature review has provided sufficient supportive evidence for the central hypothesis.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter was dedicated to reviewing the literature on the conceptualisation of psychological capital and emotional intelligence, as well as their relationship with positive coping and wellbeing. Additionally, the influence of sociodemographic variables on psychological capital and emotional intelligence was discussed. Furthermore, the chapter served to provide a theoretical integration of the literature and address the implications of the relationships between the variables. The chapter concluded with an evaluation and synthesis of the results of the literature review.

The next chapter focuses on the research method.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHOD

This chapter frames the empirical investigation with the intention of describing the research sample and the statistical strategies used to achieve the empirical aims. The chapter will address the following steps of the empirical study, after which it will end with a summary:

Step 1: Choosing and justifying the research approach

Step 2: Determination and description of the sample

Step 3: Choosing and motivating the psychometric battery

Step 4: Ethical considerations and administration of psychometric battery

Step 5: Capturing of the criterion data

Step 6: Formulation of the research hypotheses

Step 7: Statistical processing of the data

4.1 RESEARCH METHOD

The study followed a cross-sectional quantitative research design. Although a cross-sectional approach is often the subject of scrutiny, the study has benefitted from this type of design as follows:

- The cross-sectional quantitative research design was an efficient use of the researcher's resources and is useful in studies where the subject is in the early stages of research (Spector, 2019).
- The cross-sectional design is suitable in studies assessing the occurrence of a behaviour in a population group (Spector, 2019).
- A cross-sectional study can be repeated over time to assess whether any trends become evident (Spector, 2019).

Generally, cross-sectional studies employing mediation analysis are seen to contribute new theoretical insights in exploratory research (Disabato, 2016). It is important to emphasise that the research design employed mediation analysis for explanation purposes and not mediation for design (i.e. true causal effects over time) purposes. Cross-sectional mediation analysis for explanation gives insight into the probable reason for outcomes (i.e. positive coping behaviour), and as such helps generate ideas for future longitudinal mediational designs (Mitchell & Maxwell, 2013).

The research made an attempt to establish the relationship between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour, which has not been investigated previously in the legal profession. Accordingly, a cross-sectional design ensured a cost-effective, efficient measure to provide initial evidence on the subject matter. In time, an ensuing longitudinal study can be done to draw deeper causal conclusions.

The limitations of this approach are as follows:

- *Common method variance.* The researcher had to be mindful of measurement biases, which may be as a result of the effects of other constructs on the relationships found between the variables (Spector, 2019).
- *Causal conclusions.* All the study variables were assessed during the same arbitrary point in time and may not be a representative snapshot of the population (Spector, 2019).

4.2 DETERMINATION AND DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE

Convenience sampling was applied to N = 3000 attorneys registered on the professional LinkedIn website, the professional community pages on social media applications, namely Facebook and Reddit.. The attorneys were contacted via these websites for voluntary participation in the survey.

The rule of thumb of 10 observations per variable was applied in determining the minimum size of the sample. This study explored 11 variables, which implied a minimum requirement of n = 110 useable questionnaires. A final sample of 144 respondents (n = 144) completed the survey, yielding a response rate of 5%. The sample consisted of different age, gender and race groups, as well as tenure and job titles. Table 4.1. summarises the characteristics of the sample.

Table 4.1*Biographical Distribution of Sample*

Item	Category	Percentage
Age	25–30 years old	54.9
	31–45 years old	42.4
	46–55 years old	2.1
	56+ years old	0.7
	Total	100.0
Gender	Male	29.2
	Female	70.8
	Total	100.0
Race	African	20.8
	Coloured	11.8
	Indian	18.8
	White	48.6
	Total	100.0
Job title	Candidate Attorney	5.8
	Associate	49.6
	Senior Associate	19.0
	Director/Executive/Partner	23.1
	Consultant	2.5
	Total	100.0
Tenure	Less than one year	10.4
	1–5 years	49.3
	6–15 years	33.3
	16–25 years	4.2
	26+ years	2.8
	Total	100.0
Marital status	Single	54.2
	Married	38.9
	Separated/divorced	6.9
	Total	100.0
Highest qualification	Degree	52.8
	Postgraduate degree	47.2
	Total	100.0
Employment status	Permanent	74.5
	Fixed-term contract	8.0
	Self-employed	17.5
	Total	100.0

N = 144

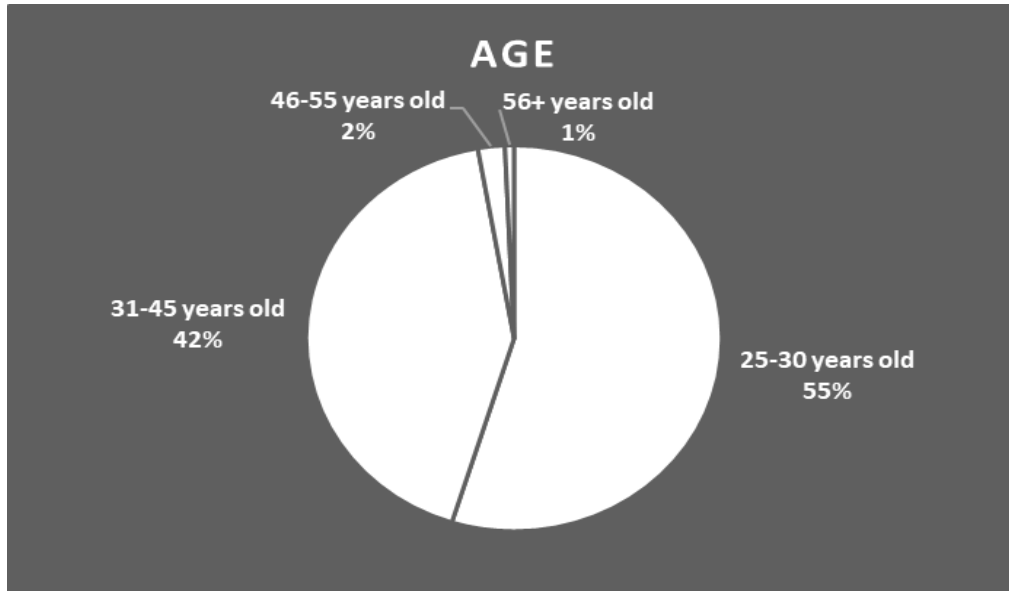
4.2.1 Sample composition by age

As depicted in Table 4.1, participants ranged from 25 to 58 years of age, with a mean age of 31 years and a standard deviation of 6.2. In total, 97% of the sample was below the age of 47 years. The majority of the participants were between 25 and 30 years old (54.9%), followed

by the group of 31–45 year olds (42.4%), making this a young sample. Those aged between 46 and 55 years old only made up 2.1% of the participants, with one participant indicating that they were older than 56 years. The age distribution for the survey is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1

Sample Distribution by Age Group



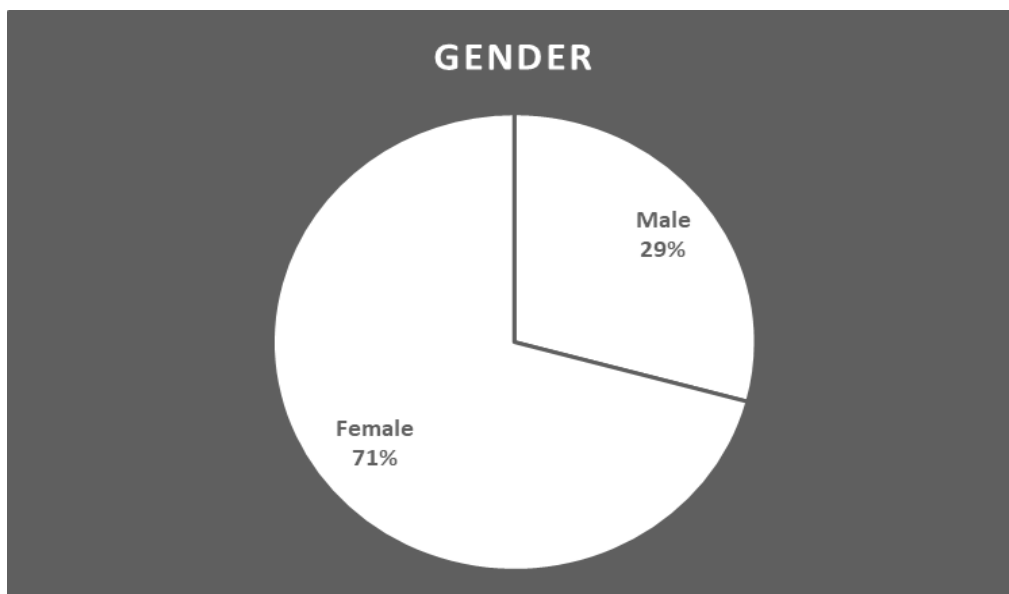
N = 144

4.2.2 Sample composition by gender

Regarding gender, 70.8% of participants were female, while 29.2% were male.

Figure 4.2

Sample Distribution by Gender Group



N = 144

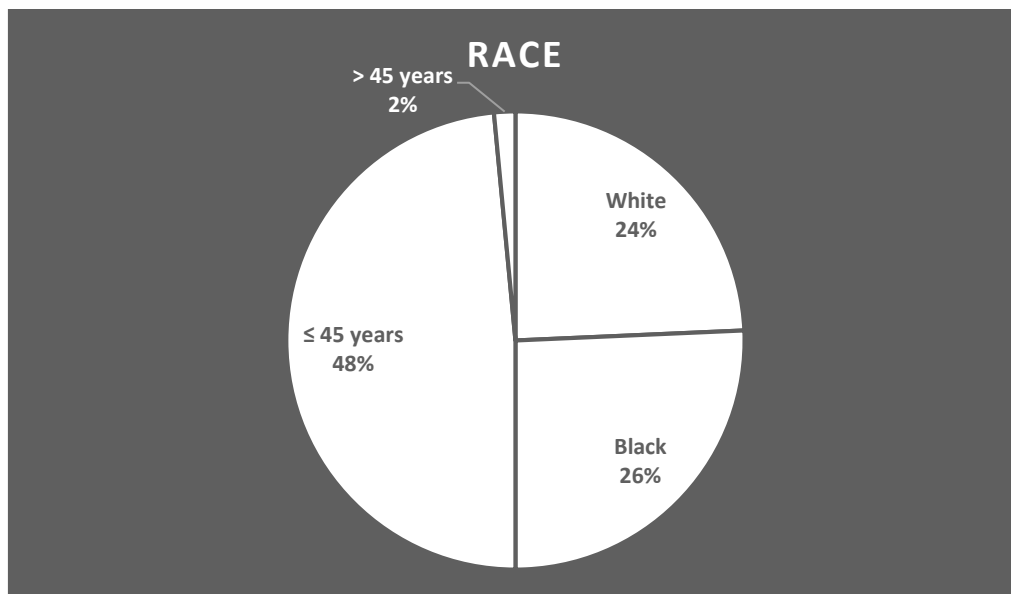
Among attorneys in South Africa, males are the dominant gender group, making up 60% of the profession (LSSA, 2019). The gender distribution of the survey is illustrated in Figure 4.2.

4.2.3 Sample composition by race

The sample was relatively evenly balanced between white (48.6%) and black (51.4%) participants, which is illustrated in Figure 4.3. This distribution is in line with the national attorney distribution of 56% white and 44% black (African, Indian and coloured) (LSSA, 2019).

Figure 4.3

Sample Distribution by Racial Group



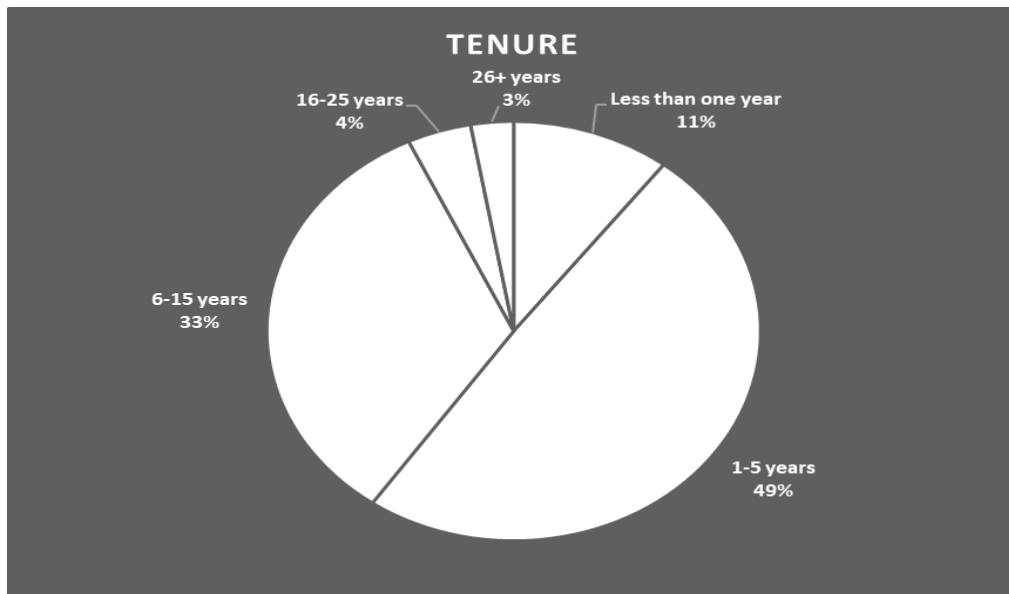
N = 144

4.2.4 Sample composition by tenure

Regarding job tenure, the largest group in the sample indicated 1–5 years' tenure (49.3%), followed by 6–15 years (33.3%), while 10.4% of participants indicated tenure of less than a year. Long tenure was in the minority, with only 4.2% indicating tenure of between 16 and 25 years and 2.8% indicating tenure of over 26 years. Overall, 72% of the sample had less than 15 years' tenure. Given the young sample, the tenure distribution is plausible. Figure 4.4 shows the distribution of job tenure groups.

Figure 4.4

Sample Distribution by Job Tenure Group



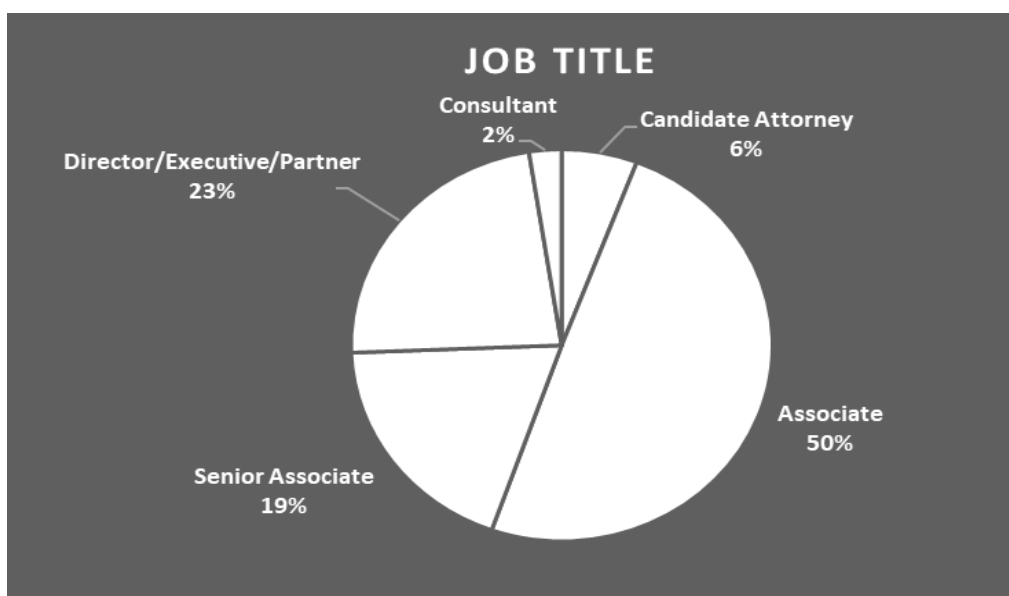
N = 144

4.2.5 Sample composition by job title

As Table 4.1 suggests and Figure 4.5 demonstrates, the majority of participants (49.6%) hold an associate position at their firm. This is followed by 23.1% who indicated that they hold the title of director/executive/partner and 19% in senior associate positions. Candidate attorneys made up 5.8% of the sample, whereas consultants made up 2.5% of the sample. Thirteen participants did not indicate their job level.

Figure 4.5

Sample Distribution by Job Title Group



N = 144

4.2.6 Sample composition by marital status

Figure 4.6

Sample Distribution by Marital Status Group

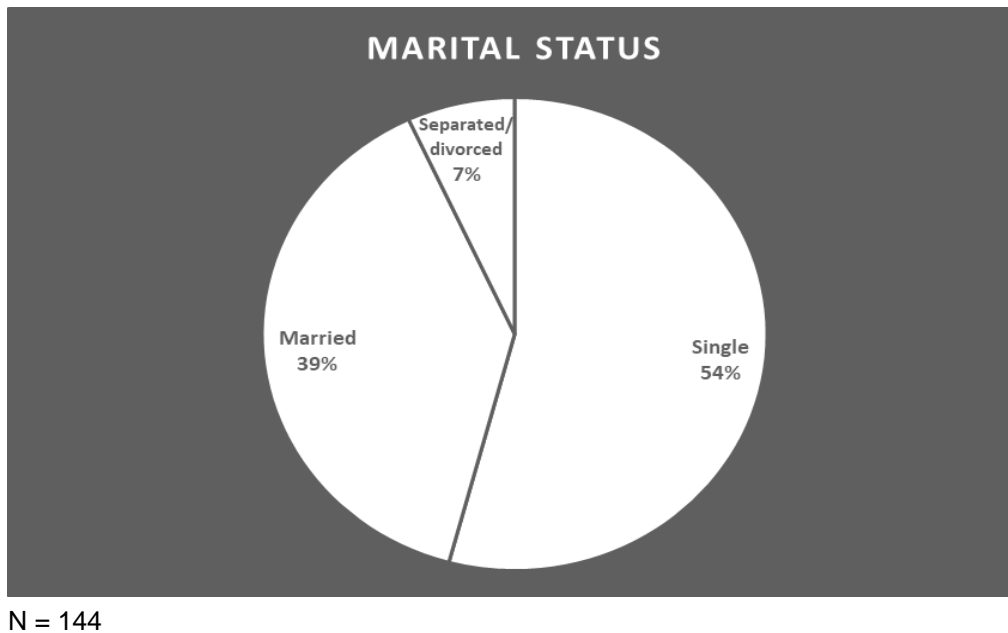


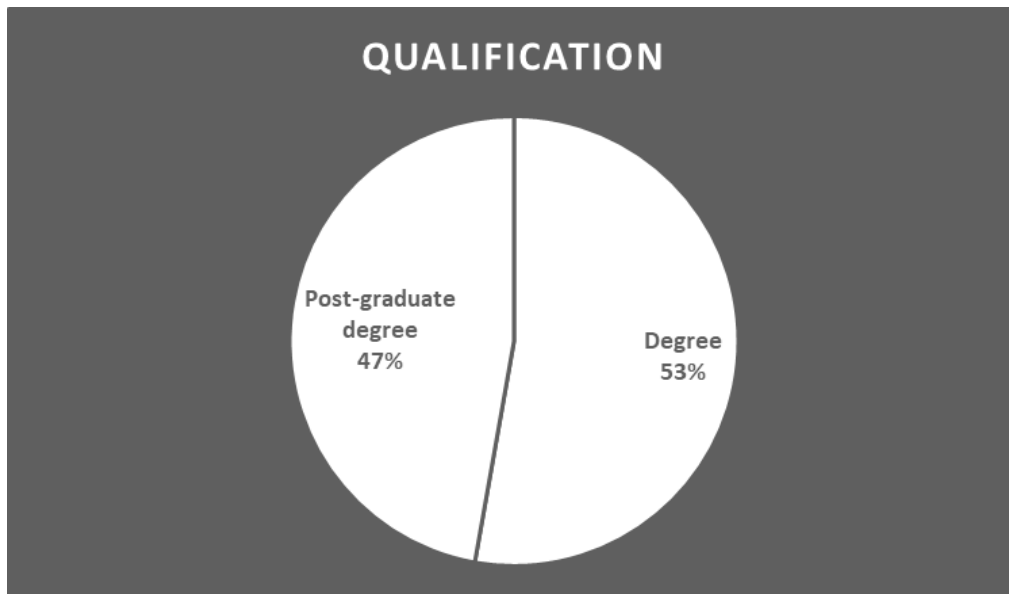
Figure 4.6 presents the marital status distribution of the participants, with 54.2% of the participants indicating that they were single, followed by 38.9% indicating that they were married. Of the participants, 6.9% were separated or divorced. Given the young sample, the marital status distribution is likely.

4.2.7 Sample composition by level of qualification

Participants were also asked to confirm their level of qualification. According to the responses, 52.8% of participants indicated that they held a university degree, while as Figure 4.7 illustrates, the balance of the participants (47.2%) had completed a postgraduate degree. The distribution is plausible, as the legal profession requires a formal legal qualification (LLB degree or similar) upon admission.

Figure 4.7

Sample Distribution by Qualification Group



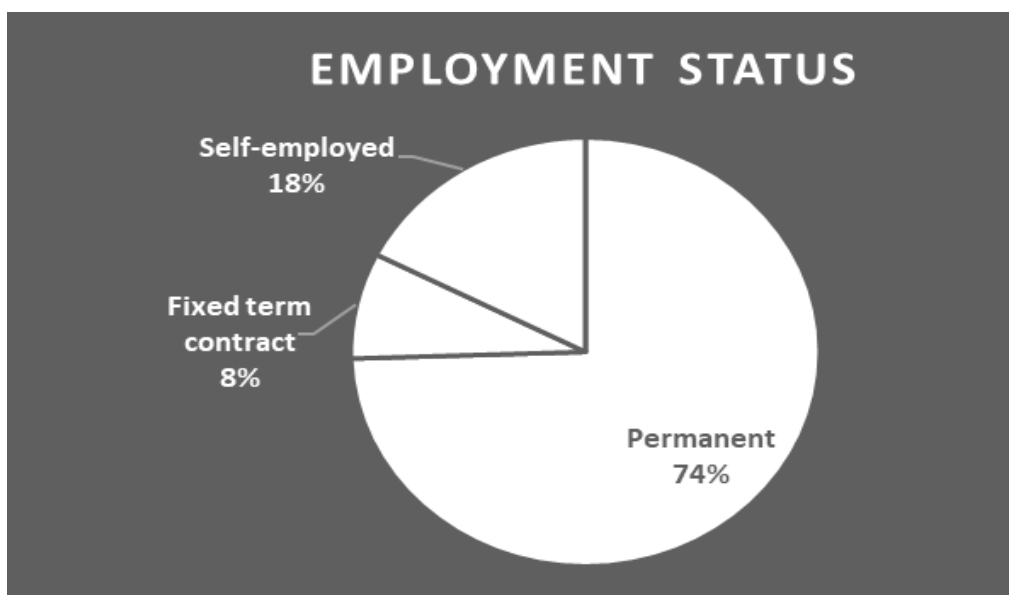
N = 144

4.2.8 Sample composition by employment status

Figure 4.8 illustrates the distribution of employment status among the participants. The majority of the participants (74.5%) indicated permanent employment. This was followed by 17.5% who were self-employed and 8% who were on fixed-term contracts. Seven participants did not indicate their employment status.

Figure 4.8

Sample Distribution by Employment Status Group



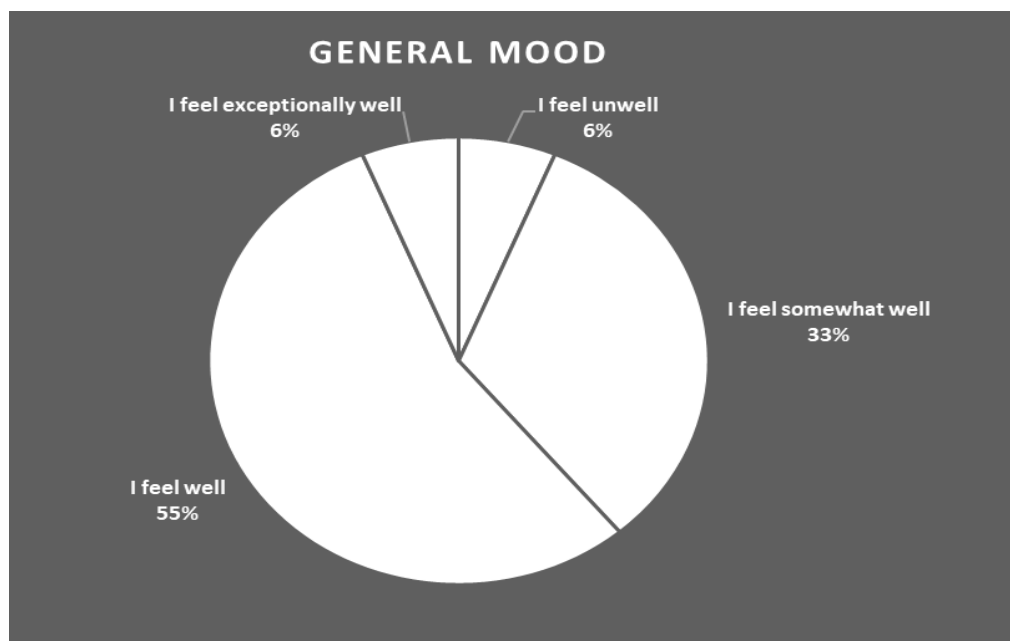
N = 144

4.2.9 Sample composition by general mood

Participants' general mood was also surveyed, as the questionnaire was made available during the Covid-19 pandemic. The mood questions were used as a checkpoint to assess whether the mood aspect affected the completion of the questionnaire. Accordingly, 54.9% of participants indicated that they felt well or exceptionally well (6.3%), while others indicated that they were feeling only somewhat well (32.6%). A small percentage (6.3%) said that they were feeling unwell where their general mood was concerned. Figure 4.9 illustrates the general mood distribution.

Figure 4.9

Sample Distribution by General Mood Group



N = 144

In summary, the sample's biographical profile shows the main sample characteristics as follows:

- The majority of the sample was between the ages of 25 and 30 (54.9%).
- The sample was relatively evenly balanced between white (48.6%) and black (51.40%) participants.
- Females represented 70.8% of the sample.
- 54.2% was single.
- 52.8% of the sample held a degree.
- Most participants were permanently employed (74.5%).
- The sample was mostly made up of associates (49.6%).

- 49.3% had 1–5 years of job tenure and, overall, 72% of the sample had less than 15 years' tenure.
- 55% of participants indicated that in terms of their general mood they felt well.

4.3 CHOOSING AND MOTIVATING THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

The study employed the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ), the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) and the Positive Coping Behaviour Inventory during the data collection process. These psychometric batteries will now be discussed.

4.3.1 Psychological Capital Questionnaire

The Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) (Luthans et al., 2007) was employed to measure the participants' psychological capital resources.

4.3.1.1 Rationale and description of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire

The PCQ (Luthans et al., 2007) is an introspective psychological inventory. The questionnaire consists of 24 items relating to an individual's psychological capital. The PCQ was developed by Fred Luthans, Bruce Avolio and James Avey with the goal of measuring and evaluating the psychological capital dimensions, namely:

- *Hope*. This dimension refers to a person's ability to persist in attaining their goals and, if required, to redirect their route towards these goals in order to succeed. This dimension is measured by six items on the scale.
- *Self-efficacy*. This refers to an individual's ability to have the necessary assurance to tackle and employ the necessary effort to do well at challenging tasks. This dimension is measured by six items on the scale.
- *Resilience*. This dimension refers to a person's ability to endure and recover when faced with challenges and is measured by six items on the scale.
- *Optimism*. The last dimension of psychological capital refers to an individual's ability to create positive expectations of success; now and in the future. This dimension is measured by six items on the scale.

4.3.1.2 Validity and reliability of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire

In four separate studies, Luthans, Avolio et al. (2007) confirmed satisfactory reliability of the instrument, which yielded Cronbach's alphas of .88, .89, .89, and .89 respectively. One of the studies (Luthans et al., 2007) also confirmed a synergetic effect between the sub-constructs, as they found a higher reliability for the complete assessment than its individual sub-scales. Overall, they established that the instrument had good construct validity. Roberts et al. (2011)

later demonstrated satisfactory levels of internal consistency for the overall measurement scale and subscales.

4.3.1.3 Administration and interpretation of the Psychological Capital Questionnaire

The PCQ is a self-report measure which employs a six-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree. The instrument scale measures the constructs of hope (e.g. *At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my work goals*), resilience (e.g. *I usually take stressful things at work in my stride*), optimism (e.g. *When things are uncertain for me at work I usually expect the best*) and self-efficacy (e.g. *I feel confident contacting people outside the company to discuss problems*). These four constructs are equally weighted with six items each. The PCQ assessment can be administered to individuals or groups and takes between 10-15 minutes to complete, with accompanying instructions which are self-explanatory. There is no supervision required. Item responses are summed together to obtain the overall PCQ score. Higher scores on the questionnaire correspond to greater psychological capital abilities.

4.3.1.4 Motivation for using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire

The objective of this study was to explore the extent to which an attorney's psychological resources may predict the type of their positive coping behaviour, with psychological capital being one of the relevant research constructs. The study treated psychological capital as a psychological resource construct that can explain the variance in the positive coping behaviour of attorneys in South Africa. The PCQ was designed for working adults (Luthans et al., 2007) and the assessment is generally regarded as the most common tool for assessing psychological capital capabilities. Although the test was developed in the United States, it is commonly used in South Africa (Oakland, 2004). A study by Görgens-Ekermans and Herbert (2013) attempted to establish internal and external validation evidence within the South African context, ultimately showing evidence of internal and external validity, which supports the findings of another local study by Du Plessis and Barkhuizen (2011), which was conducted a few years prior.

4.3.2 Assessing Emotions Scale

The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009) was utilised to measure the participants' emotional intelligence.

4.3.2.1 Rationale and description of the assessing emotions questionnaire

The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009) is a self-report inventory, comprising 33 items within four dimensions which are used to measure emotional intelligence traits. The sub-constructs of the scale include the perception of emotions (10 items, e.g. *I am*

aware of my emotions as I experience them); managing own emotions (9 items, e.g. *I expect good things to happen*); managing others' emotions (8 items, e.g. *I like to share my emotions with others*) and the utilisation of emotions (6 items, e.g. *when I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me*). Schutte et al. (2009) developed the assessment from Salovey and Mayer's (1990) conceptualisation of emotional intelligence.

4.3.2.2 Validity and reliability of the assessing emotions questionnaire

The AES instrument is a popular research tool, as validity and reliability have been proven in numerous studies, (Schutte et al., 2009). Studies on its validity indicate both convergent and divergent validity (Coetzee & Beukes, 2010). For reliability, the reports of test-retest correlations and internal consistency are also adequate, as the Cronbach's alpha coefficients obtained were between .76 and .84 (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2011; Schutte et al., 1998). Locally, as the AES has not been standardised for South African populations, Coetzee and Beukes (2010) conducted scale reliability tests for the sample group and determined that the internal consistency coefficients gathered for each sub-scale were moderate: perception of emotion (0.65); managing own emotions (0.56); managing others' emotions (0.58); and lastly, utilisation of emotions (0.54).

4.3.2.3 Administration and interpretation of the assessing emotions questionnaire

The items of the AES are positioned on a five-point ranging Likert scale. For each statement, participants are required to indicate their level of agreement on five points, namely: (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) neither agree nor disagree; (4) agree; (5) strongly agree. Total scale scores are calculated by reverse coding items 5, 28 and 33 and then summing all items, with a total score ranging from 33 to 165. A higher score would mean greater emotional intelligence. No supervision is required as the instructions are self-explanatory. On average, it would take a participant five minutes to complete this psychological battery.

4.3.2.4 Motivation for using the assessing emotions questionnaire

The objective of this study was to explore the extent to which an attorney's psychological resources may predict the type of their positive coping behaviour, with emotional intelligence being one of the relevant research constructs. According to Schutte et al. (1998), the AES is deemed most appropriate for working individuals who are keen to reflect on emotional functioning topics. Additionally, the AES battery is generally regarded as one of the most common tools used for assessing emotional intelligence. Although the AES has not been standardised for the South African population, the psychometric properties of the battery are deemed satisfactory for the purpose of this study, as they are in accordance with the directives provided by Nunnally (1978) for measuring broad-based trends.

4.3.3 Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory

The Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory (PCBI) (Coetzee et al., 2017) was utilised to measure positive coping.

4.3.3.1 Rationale and description of the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory

The Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory (PCBI), developed by Marx (2016), further refined by Coetzee et al. (2017) and later tested for possible effects of pandemic influence (Coetzee, 2020), is a self-reporting measurement tool. The shortened version consists of 29 items within five dimensions which are used to measure individual coping behaviour strategies. The five dimensions consist of

- *inventive coping (4 items), namely: (1) I can manage unfamiliar problems effectively, (2) I feel confident about overcoming most of my problems, (3) I usually devise a plan to deal positively with stressful events and (4) I find positive meaning in most difficult situations;*
- *engaging coping (5 items), namely: (1) I feel happy, joyful and excited most of the time, (2) I usually feel positive and hopeful, no matter what the situation and circumstances are, (3) most people would describe me as a happy person, (4) I feel energetic and interested in my work most of the time and (5) I feel capable of handling difficult situations;*
- *intentional coping (10 items), namely: (1) I feel confident in handling my negative emotions, (2) I am able to persevere no matter what the situation is, (3) I am able to bounce back from adversity, (4) I feel that I learn from difficult situations, (5) I can overcome difficult situations, (6) I know what my strengths are, (7) I usually concentrate on what is right, what works, and what is improving in my life, (8) I constantly strive to improve my ability to deal with difficult situations, (9) I have endurance during difficult situations and (10) I usually adjust positively to any kind of situation;*
- *influential coping (4 items), namely: (1) I usually adapt quite quickly, (2) I am not scared of new or unknown situations, (3) I am not afraid to expose myself to risks, (4) I have sufficient social support; and*
- *pandemic coping (6 items), namely: (1) The Covid-19 pandemic is a time to reboot my outlook on life, (2) The COVID-19 pandemic brought opportunities to make my talents available to those who need them, (3) Practising gratitude, patience and hopefulness during the COVID-19 pandemic helped me cope, (4) I successfully rearranged facets of my life to help me cope with the changes and challenges of the COVID-19 pandemic, (5) I identified several opportunities*

during the COVID-19 period to assist other people and (6) I successfully coped with the challenges I faced during the COVID-19 period.

4.3.3.2 Validity and reliability of the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory

Coetzee et al. (2017) confirmed satisfactory reliability and internal structural validity levels for the PCBI instrument, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of between .78 and .96.

4.3.3.3 Administration and interpretation of the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory

The 23 items of the shortened PCBI assessment battery are positioned on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (definitely disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). No supervision is required as the accompanying instructions are self-explanatory and it would take a participant approximately five minutes to complete this psychological battery.

The scoring for each of the dimensions is calculated as follows, with a high score indicating an individual's preference for the coping style:

- The total score for the inventive coping dimension comprises the scores of items 1 to 4.
- The total score for the engaging coping dimension comprises the scores of items 5 to 9.
- The total score for the intentional coping dimension comprises the scores of items 10 to 19.
- The total score for the influential coping dimension comprises the scores of items 20 to 23.
- The total score for the influential coping dimension comprises the scores of items 24 to 29.

4.3.3.4 Motivation for using the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory

The positive coping behaviour of participants had to be measured, as the objective of this study was to explore the extent to which an attorney's psychological resources may predict the type of their positive coping behaviour. The assessment battery was developed in South Africa and is therefore suitable for the South African population. Furthermore, as the PCBI tool was designed for working adults, it confirmed the suitability of the assessment tool.

4.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

The validity and reliability of self-report measures are common concerns among researchers, as these tests may be subject to response bias and are also frequently subject to intentional

or subconscious social desirability response bias (Krumpal, 2013). In particular, self-report measures are deemed poor indicators of actual ability and only tender an indication of an individual's perceived abilities. They are also greatly dependent on the participant's integrity and self-awareness. Nonetheless, due to uncomplicated administration and easy access to the instruments, self-report measures are the most prevalent method for conducting psychology-related research. By the same token, as this researched focused on psychological resources, coping behaviour and emotional intelligence, self-report measures were deemed to be most appropriate.

Common method variance is commonly found in applied statistics and generally applied to social science studies and psychometrics (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). Common method variance refers to the variance that can be attributed to the measurement method instead of the measured constructs (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015; Podsakoff, 2003; Richardson et al., 2009). The bias produced by common method variance, referred to as common method bias, occurs when the projected relationship between two constructs might be exaggerated (Malhotra et al., 2017). Common method variance has its roots in approaches that involve the use of only one type of item, context, respondent, measurement context or item characteristics (Reio, 2010). Podsakoff (2003) established four sources of common method variance, namely: (1) utilising the same respondent to gain information for both the dependent and independent variables; (2) how the items are presented to the respondents; (3) the framework in which items are placed on the form; and finally, (4) the circumstantial impacts of such things as location, media and time on the measurement of the constructs (Chang et al., 2020). Common method variance may also be an outcome of participant tendencies such as response bias, which refers to the influence participants have over their responses when responding on a survey on different measures (Liang et al., 2007).

Social desirability is another well-known challenge. Social desirability involves the tendency of respondents to give answers which they deem to be more acceptable or which they consider will make them look good (Krumpal, 2013). Additionally, positive or negative affectivity is another potential challenge when utilising self-report measures. This approach the respondents' view of themselves and of the world in general (Watson & Clark, 1984). It goes without saying that the participants' temporary mood state may also have an impact on how they answer the questionnaire (Podsakoff, 2003) and, as such, the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on the responses cannot be overlooked. Lastly, common method bias would be another limitation. Common method bias involves the possibility that respondents find the items complex, abstract or ambiguous, which causes difficulty in answering the questionnaire

and may lead to them developing their own understanding of the unclear items, leading to an increase in random responding or systematic response tendencies (Podsakoff, 2003).

4.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is a set of moral principles that speaks to the quality of research procedures. In particular, ethics relates to the adherence to professional, legal and social obligations (De Vos et al., 2011). The “golden rule” of ethics, to “treat others as you yourself would like to be treated”, is the underlying basis for all ethical considerations (Veal, 2017). As such, the following ethical considerations will be adhered to: fairness, honesty, the openness of intent, disclosure of methods and the ends for which the research was executed, maintaining continuous respect for and the integrity of the participants, guaranteed privacy, obtaining informed consent, confidentiality and ensuring anonymity (Neuman, 2011; Veal, 2017).

An ethical clearance certificate (Appendix 1, reference number: RudmanMD_2020_CEMS_IOP_011) was obtained from the research ethics committee of the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology at University of South Africa. Additionally, the ethical principles and policies of the legal governing body were adhered to. The Law Society of South Africa principles which were used as a basis for this research include honesty, impartiality, confidentiality and respect.

Practically, the researcher adhered to the ethical considerations by securing the information by voluntary participation, obtaining informed consent from the participants and ensuring that the questionnaire’s introduction addressed the purpose for the study. Furthermore, names were omitted from the questionnaire, which ensured complete anonymity and confidentiality. Lastly, all the information obtained from the questionnaire was presented as per the prescribed guidelines.

Further, the researcher also considered the South African legislative requirements. In accordance with section 8 of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998, the psychometric battery were deemed scientifically reliable, valid, fair and free from discrimination. In addition, the researcher complied with the Protection of Personal Information (“POPI”) Act 4 of 2013 in conjunction with the King III Code on Good Governance, in sections pertaining to data collection principles. The data mining techniques used in this research complied with two legislative imperatives: (1) the right to access material if the information is required for the exercise or protection of a right, and (2) the right to protection of personal information to the extent that the limitation of access is sensible and justifiable (Republic of South Africa, 2013).

4.6 ADMINISTRATION OF THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

As the target population in this study, namely attorneys, has easy access to online facilities and frequents professional networking sites, an electronic survey was considered an appropriate means of distributing the measuring instrument. Participants were invited to respond to the questionnaire voluntarily via LinkedIn and other social media applications, including Facebook and Reddit. As a result of the disruptions caused by the global pandemic, the survey did not have an expiry date and ran over a period of 12 months. The convenience sample approach had numerous advantages, such as flexibility, convenience, cost efficiency, ease of access for participants and a better response rate (Hanaysha, 2016).

The assessment battery included a biographical questionnaire, the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 2009), the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ) (Luthans et al., 2007) and the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory (PCBI) (Coetzee et al., 2017), which were all integrated into one electronic questionnaire. The survey was uploaded on Lime Survey, an online statistical survey web application. The cover letter of the survey included an explanation of the ethical considerations, advised that participation was voluntary, requested informed consent, assured participants of total anonymity and confidentiality and listed the contact details of the researcher. All the collected data was stored electronically and only accessed by a Lime Survey administrator to ensure the security and authenticity of the data. The final Lime Survey questionnaire data was presented in Excel format, which allowed for computer scoring to eliminate the likelihood of human error.

4.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The raw survey data was presented in an electronic format, which was cleansed of any incomplete questionnaires. The remaining usable questionnaires were then analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, Version 27; 2020) for the mediation and moderation analyses. Statistical procedures comprised three stages, namely descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and inferential statistics.

4.7.1 Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics were used to calculate frequencies, central tendency, standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness, as well as to test for assumptions. The descriptive statistics also included calculations for reliability and validity using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. For a scale or item to be considered reliable, a Cronbach alpha's coefficient of .70 or higher is required (Brown, 2015).

4.7.2 Correlation statistics

A correlation analysis was used to determine the strength and direction of the relationships between the constructs. In this case, Spearman's correlation measures were used and the significance value was set at $p \leq 0.05$ (95% confidence interval level).

4.7.3 Inferential statistics

Mediation analysis, using Hayes' PROCESS Version 3.5.3 (2018) model was used to determine whether emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour. Additionally, using Hayes' PROCESS Version 3.5.3 (2018) hierarchical regression model, a moderation analysis was conducted to determine

- whether the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) would moderate the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour, and
- whether the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) would moderate the relationship between the emotional intelligence variables and positive coping behaviour.

Lastly, the Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon test was performed to determine whether significant differences existed on the overall scales and subscales of the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, tenure, job level) with regard to psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

4.8 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Goodwin and Goodwin (2016) define a research hypothesis as a proposed description or explanation for a phenomenon. It is deemed a logical construct which is inserted between a research problem and a research solution, in an effort to suggest an answer to the research question (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2016). Therefore, a research hypothesis is a rational, cautious proposal regarding the relationship between variables (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2016). In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the research hypotheses were formulated and then tested using with the relevant statistical procedure, as summarised in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2*Research Hypotheses*

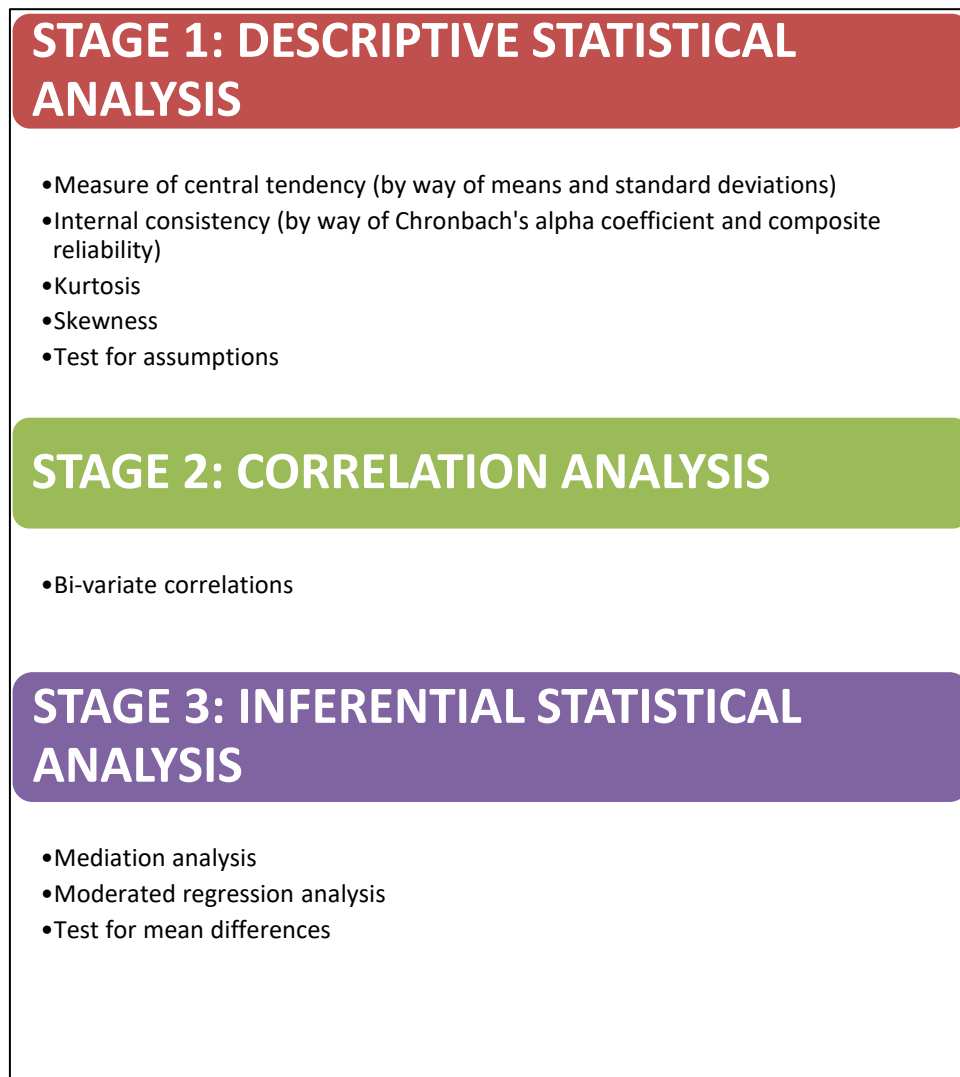
Research Aim	Research Hypothesis	Statistical Procedure
<p>Research aim 1: To assess the empirical inter-relationships between psychological capital (the independent variable), positive coping behaviour (the dependent variable) and emotional intelligence as the mediating variable.</p>	<p>H1: There is a statistically positive relationship between the antecedent variable (psychological capital), the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) and positive coping behaviours (dependent variable).</p>	<p>Bi-variate correlations</p>
<p>Research aim 2: To assess whether the effect of the independent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence.</p>	<p>H2: The effect of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence (mediating variable).</p>	<p>Mediation analysis – PROCESS Hayes</p>
<p>Research aim 3: To assess (1) the effect of the independent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour), and (2) the effect of emotional intelligence (the mediating variable) on positive coping behaviour (dependent variable) when moderated by individuals' age, gender, race, tenure and job level characteristics.</p>	<p>H3: The effect of (1) the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) and (2) the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is significantly moderated by individuals' age, gender, race, tenure and job level.</p>	<p>Hierarchical moderated regression PROCESS Hayes</p>
<p>Research aim 4: To assess whether attorneys from different socio-demographic groups (age, gender, race, tenure, job level) differ significantly with regard to psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.</p>	<p>H4: Attorneys from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups differ significantly regarding their psychological capital and emotional intelligence resources. This means that certain socio-demographic groups will display greater levels of psychosocial resources and positive coping behaviour than other groups.</p>	<p>Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon test for significant mean differences</p>

4.9 STATISTICAL PROCESSING OF THE DATA

The researcher employed statistical procedures involving descriptive statistical analysis, correlation analysis and inferential statistical analysis. The process involved three stages and is depicted in Figure 4.10 below.

Figure 4.10

Statistical Processing of Data



Source: Author's own work

4.9.1 Stage 1: Descriptive statistical analysis

The process of descriptive statistical analysis involves the use of statistical procedures on the research sample in an effort to summarise the random variables in a meaningful way (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016). These procedures will now be discussed.

4.9.1.1 Internal consistency reliability analysis of each scale

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used in this study to determine the internal consistency reliability of the three research instruments and the average degree of correlation between these items. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is a score between 0 and 1, with a higher score indicating higher reliability (Cho & Kim, 2015). For a scale or item to be considered reliable, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 or higher is required (Brown, 2015).

In addition to the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, composite reliability measures were used to measure the internal consistency of the scale items, as in some cases the Cronbach's alpha coefficient may draw incorrect assumptions. In essence, composite reliability measures the difference of total scale score variance relative to the total amount of score variance (Brunner & Süß, 2005). A reasonable threshold for composite reliability is .70 or higher (Shen et al., 2013).

4.9.1.2 Means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis

The mean (or average) is calculated by adding the sum of the responses and then dividing this number by the total number of responses (Sykes et al., 2016). The standard deviation is calculated to give insight on the variation in the sample (Sykes et al., 2016) and is done by measuring the variation of an item from the group mean value, which essentially means that standard deviation is the average of these deviations (Field, 2015; Sykes et al., 2016). A small standard deviation shows that the data points are spread closely together around the mean (Field, 2015; Sykes et al., 2016) and in a normal distribution sample most of the scores would typically fall between +1 and -1 standard deviations from the mean (Field, 2015; Sykes et al., 2016). By contrast, a large standard deviation would indicate that the data set is sprawled away from the mean (Field, 2015; Sykes et al., 2016).

Normality tests are performed to establish whether the data set is displaying a normal or non-normal distribution by testing for skewness and kurtosis. Skewness is the degree of asymmetry in a distribution and often reveals extreme scores in that distribution (Sykes et al., 2016), whereas kurtosis describes how scores are concentrated in the centre of the distribution, in the lower and upper tails (ends) and the shoulders (which is the area between the centre and the tails) of a distribution (Sykes et al., 2016). In particular, kurtosis indicates how pointed (leptokurtic) or flat (platykurtic) a data set is: distributions with kurtosis of < 3 are platykurtic (Pallant, 2016), while distributions with kurtosis > 3 are leptokurtic (Pallant, 2016). A positive/right skew in the data indicates that the mean is greater than the median, whereas a negative/left skew specifies that the mean is less than the median (Pallant, 2016). Accordingly, kurtosis designates the shape of a probability distribution (Bonett & Wright, 2000).

4.9.1.3 Tests for assumptions

The purpose of this study was to make valid interpretations from the sample data. However, a researcher may encounter some challenges when a sample from a larger population is used to deliver specific values that apply to the entire population. For this reason, this study employed the following statistical methods to establish the level of confidence at which certain inferences could be made about the research results:

Accuracy of data entered into the data file and missing values

Accuracy refers to how close the measurements are to the true value (Sykes et al., 2016). The participants completed the survey electronically and their input was stored electronically to ensure data accuracy and authenticity. The final data file was presented in Excel format, which allowed for computer scoring on SPSS to eliminate the likelihood of human error.

Missing values in a survey data set can occur for a number of reasons: the participant did not record an answer to the question, a missing value as a result of the survey design (e.g. posing gender-related questions to females would lead to men skipping the questions, resulting in missing values), as well as data entry and processing errors, such as an interrupted interview (Kaiser, 2014). Missing values compromise the statistical power and efficiency of the study data by reducing the amount of available data to be analysed, ultimately distorting the population inferences and affecting the reliability of the results (Kwak & Kim, 2017).

There are three common approaches for handling missing values:

(1) Complete case analysis which removes all the missing values and only utilises the variable data observed at each time point for analysis.

(2) Available case analysis, which only includes the data available for each analysis. This approach allows for a larger sample size than in the complete case analysis approach. However, varying sample sizes between the variables used in the analysis would be a consequence of this approach.

(3) Imputation analysis, a technique that replaces the missing values with substituted values that were obtained from a statistical analysis to produce a complete data set (Kwak & Kim, 2017).

There is no general or universal approach for handling missing values. This study employed SPSS for statistical analysis calculations and it is common for the system to apply the

complete case analysis approach and automatically exclude the missing values from analysis. Although the simplicity of this approach is advantageous, the main disadvantage is the challenge of drawing statistical inferences during analysis (Kwak & Kim, 2017).

It remains good practice to report missing values and to account for these values during the statistical analysis (Gorard, 2020). In this study, employment status had seven missing values while job title had 23 missing values. The complete case analysis approach for missing values was subsequently applied.

Ratio of cases to independent variables

A minimum number of cases is required to test multiple independent variables when performing a multivariate inferential statistical analysis. As a result, a minimum sample size is required to ensure a matching number of dependent variables (Austin & Steyerberg, 2015). In this study, the minimum sample size was determined by the formula $n > 50 + 8m$, where m represents the number of independent variables (MacCallum et al., 1996). For this study, with $m = 11$, the aforementioned formula equates to a sample size of $n = 138$, which is below the sample size of $N = 144$. Therefore, the study sample size of $N = 144$ was regarded as acceptable.

Outliers

An outlier refers to an individual data point which differs from the other individual data points in a data set (Zimek et al., 2012). An outlier test would enable the researcher to determine if an outlier value has occurred accidentally or is due to a particular reason such as a defective measurement tool (Montgomery et al., 2015).

Normality, linearity and homoscedasticity

The multivariate normality assumption is derived from the notion that each variable must have a normal distribution from which the multivariate normal distribution follows (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016), while the assumption of linearity proposes a linear relationship between all dependent variable pairs and all covariate pairs across all the groups (Harrell, 2015). In this study, the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistical tests were utilised to test for normality. As the significance values of the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were smaller than the applicable alpha cut-off point ($\leq .05$), it was assumed that the data was not normally distributed which justified the use of non-parametric tests for data analysis (Ho & Yu, 2015).

Homoscedasticity centres on the degree of variability between dependent variables of a quantitative nature and have to be equivalent over a sequence of independent

variables (Yang & Mathew, 2017). In this study, homoscedasticity was tested by assessing the degree to which scores were spread from the regression line and from each other.

Multicollinearity and singularity

Multicollinearity points to a state of extreme redundancy between the respective variables when two or more independent variables are strongly correlated with one another. Multicollinearity takes place when $r \geq .80$ (Cohen, Cohen et al., 2013). On the other hand, singularity emerges when a perfect correlation among the variables is present ($r = 1.00$) (Cohen, Cohen et al., 2013). In this study, the correlations between the independent variables were checked to test for multicollinearity and singularity.

4.9.2 Stage 2: Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis was the second step in the descriptive statistical analysis process and was used to test research hypothesis H1, namely:

H1: There is a statistically positive relationship between the antecedent variable (psychological capital), the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) and positive coping behaviours (dependent variable).

Correlation refers to the link between variables; more specifically, where they move together (Sykes et al., 2016). Correlation analysis is the statistical methods employed to describe and measure the relationship between a set of variables (Rovai et al., 2013). Bi-variate correlation was used to detail the direction and the strength of the linear relationship between the variables. In addition, the researcher administered tests for normality to assess the distribution of scores. This distribution determined whether Pearson product-moment correlation (parametric) or Spearman rho correlation (non-parametric) techniques should be utilised (Pallant, 2016). As the data distribution was not normalised, a non-parametric technique was employed and the cut-off for significance levels was set at $p \leq .05$. The correlation coefficient ranges from -1.00 to +1.00 and the direction of the relationship is indicated by the sign of the coefficient (i.e. the negative sign indicates a negative relationship and the positive sign indicates a positive relationship and the closer to 0, the weaker the relationship). Furthermore, practical effect sizes were utilised to establish whether the relationship between two variables was statistically significant. The practical effect sizes for significant correlations will be $r = .10$ (small practical effect); $r = .30$ (medium practical effect) and $r = .50$ (large practical effect).

In research, each test of significance starts with the null hypothesis (H0). This method is used to interpret the statistical relationship of a sample. The null hypothesis posits that there is no relationship in the population and that any relationship in the sample is simply due to sampling error. Conversely, the alternative hypothesis (H1) suggests that there is a relationship in the population and that this relationship is reflected in the sample.

In this process, a Type II error transpires when the null hypothesis is false but erroneously fails to be rejected and is often referred to as a false negative (Rovai et al., 2013). Although it is impossible to completely avoid Type II errors, they can be limited by increasing the sample size. A Type I error (also referred to as the significance level) occurs when the null hypothesis is true but is rejected (Rovai et al., 2013). Type I errors can be limited by utilising the Bonferroni correction (a conservative approach whereby the researcher controls Type I errors with numerous comparisons) or Holm's sequential Bonferroni correction, which is a more powerful and uniform tool, as its intention is to control the family-wise error rate (Rovai et al., 2013). In this study, the researcher made an effort to limit Type I and Type II errors by setting a conservative level of significance. The significance level refers to significance in terms of giving specific probability after a null hypothesis is rejected (Huck, 2016); in other words, how rare one's research results are. As a standard, statistical significance is set at $p \leq .05$ (Miah, 2016) and this was applied in this study.

4.9.3 Stage 3: Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics are employed by researchers to draw conclusions which extend beyond the data alone (Veal, 2017) and were applied by means of mediation analysis and moderated regression analysis.

4.9.3.1 Mediation analysis

Mediation analysis represented the second stage of the inferential statistical analysis. Hayes' (2018) PROCESS procedure (version 3.5.3) for SPSS was applied to perform the mediation analysis, in order to determine whether emotional intelligence significantly mediates the relationship between the independent variable (psychological capital) and the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour). Bootstrapping was performed with 5000 boot samples and the confidence intervals of the upper bounds (ULCI) and lower bounds (LLCI) were calculated at a 95% confidence interval.

This stage tested research hypotheses H2, namely:

H2: The effect of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence (mediating variable).

4.9.3.2 Moderated regression analysis

Moderated regression analysis was the third stage of the inferential statistical analysis. Researchers employ hierarchical moderated regression analysis to establish whether the relationship between a predictor variable and a criterion variable will be moderated by another predictor variable (which is also known as the moderator or moderating variable) (Draper & Smith, 2014). In this study, Hayes' (2018) PROCESS procedure (version 3.5.3) for SPSS was applied to perform the moderated regression analysis to determine if the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) moderated the predictive power of psychological resources in predicting positive coping behaviour.

The levels of statistical significance (Fp) were defined in the following manner: $Fp < .001$, $Fp < .01$ with $Fp < .05$ as the limit for rejecting the null hypotheses. As per research standard, the effect size (f^2) was set at 0.10 (small effect size), 0.25 (medium effect size) and 0.40 (large effect size) respectively. Finally, the R^2 mediation effect was calculated in order to assess the strength and significance of the relationship. The study was guided by Cohen, Cohen et al. (2013) to assess the extent of the relationship as follows:

Small practical effect size: $R^2 \leq .12$

Moderate practical effect size: $R^2 \geq .13 \leq .25$

Large practical effect size: $R^2 \geq .26$.

This stage tested research hypothesis H3, namely:

H3: The effect of (1) the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) and (2) the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is significantly moderated by individuals' age, gender, race, tenure and job level.

4.9.3.3 Tests for significant mean differences

Tests for significant mean differences were used to test research hypothesis 4:

H4: Attorneys from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups differ significantly regarding their psychological capital and emotional intelligence resources. This means that certain socio-demographic groups will showcase greater levels of psychosocial resources and positive coping behaviour than other groups.

As the data did not meet the criterion for the assumption of normality, the significant mean differences had to be calculated by using non-parametric measures. As such, the Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon test was used to test for significant mean differences in the socio-demographic variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) regarding participants' levels of psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour. The Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon test starts by ranking each of the variable means, after which it compares the ranked means to establish any significant differences. According to Hair et al. (2010), the significant level for the tests of mean differences is considered valid and significant when $p \leq .05$. Cohen's practical effect (Cohen's d) was also determined in an effort to describe the extent of the effects as follows: $d = .20$ (small effect), $d = .50$ (medium effect) and $d \geq .80$ (large effect).

4.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the first six steps of the empirical investigation were discussed. These included a description of the sample, the choice of and motivation for the relevant psychometric test batteries, as well as the ethical considerations, administration and scoring of the test batteries. Additionally, the steps for capturing of the criterion data and the hypotheses in the research questions were also formulated. The chapter concluded with a discussion and reasoning of the methods used to process statistical data. Chapter 5 will report on the research results.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH RESULTS

This chapter discusses the results of the statistical analysis that emerged from the techniques applied to test the research hypotheses. In particular, the detailed results of the descriptive, correlational and inferential statistics will be discussed. The chapter will close with a conclusion on the research hypotheses.

5.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

This section of the chapter reports on the descriptive statistics, namely the means, standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness and the internal consistency reliability coefficients for the three scales used in this study: Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory (PCBI), Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) and the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ).

5.1.1 Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory

The 29 items of the PCBI assessment battery are positioned on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (definitely disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The scales measures the sub-constructs of inventive coping, engaging coping, intentional coping and influential coping. The construct of pandemic coping was added to assess the effect of the pandemic on the participants. Table 5.1 provides the descriptive information computed for the PCBI in this study.

Table 5.1

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients of the PCBI

PCBI variables	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability
Inventive coping	4.62	1.31	-.36	-.13	.87	.87
Engaging coping	4.83	1.28	-.61	.08	.87	.87
Intentional coping	5.15	1.14	-.84	1.55	.93	.92
Influential coping	4.89	1.38	-.67	.06	.81	.80
Pandemic coping	4.61	1.28	-.29	.00	.87	.87
Overall positive coping behavioural inventory (PCBI)	4.80	1.13	-.66	1.07	.97	.97

Note: N = 144

The mean scores for the PCBI ranged between 4.61 and 5.15, indicating that the sample generally scored on the mid-range to higher end of the scale. The participants scored the highest on the intentional coping subscale (mean = 5.15; SD = 1.14) and the lowest on the

pandemic coping subscale (mean = 4.61; SD = 1.28) and the inventive coping subscale (mean = 4.62; SD = 1.31). The skewness and kurtosis scores for the PCBI were -.66 and 1.07 respectively. Skewness measures the symmetry of the distribution: hence, the PCBI value of -.66 indicates that data was slightly skewed to the left, which means that the left tail of the distribution was slightly longer than the right tail. The kurtosis value of 1.07 for the PCBI suggests a leptokurtic distribution, which means that the distribution was heavy tailed, suggesting a non-normal distribution of scores.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the PCBI subscales ranged between $\alpha = .81$ and $\alpha = .93$, and the overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the overall scale was $\alpha = .97$. The composite reliability coefficients ranged between CR = .78 and CR = .95 for the PCBI subscales, and the composite reliability coefficient for the scale was found to be CR = .97 overall. Both the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient values were above $> .70$, which suggests good internal consistency reliability.

5.1.2 Assessing Emotions Scale

The items of the AES are positioned on a five-point Likert scale and participants had to indicate their level of agreement for each statement, namely: (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) neither agree nor disagree; (4) agree; (5) strongly agree. Total scale scores are calculated by reverse coding items 5, 28 and 33 and then summing all the items, with a total score ranging from 33 to 165. A higher score would mean greater emotional intelligence. Table 5.2 provides the descriptive information computed for the AES in this study.

Table 5.2

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients of the AES

AES variables	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability
Perception of emotion	4.56	.83	-2.16	6.95	.90	.90
Managing own emotions	4.38	.82	1.34	3.32	.85	.85
Managing others' emotions	4.56	.77	-1.73	6.56	.76	.78
Utilisation of emotion	4.61	.79	-1.69	6.09	.80	.81
Overall assessing emotions scale (AES)	4.51	.69	-2.34	9.57	.94	.94

Note: N = 144

The mean scores for the AES subscales ranged between 4.38 and 4.61 and the overall mean score of the scale was 4.51, indicating that the sample generally had high scores on the scale. The participants scored the highest on the Utilisation of Emotions subscale (mean = 4.61; SD = .79) and the lowest on the Managing Own Emotions subscale (mean = 4.38; SD = .77). The

skewness and kurtosis scores for the AES were -2.34 and 9.57 respectively. Skewness measures the symmetry of the distribution and a skewness score of zero specifies a normal distribution. In this instance, the score of -2.34 indicates that data was highly skewed to the left, which means that the left tail of the distribution was much longer than the right tail. On the other hand, kurtosis suggests how peaked or flat a distribution is. A zero value points to a normal distribution, whereas the AES value in this study (9.57) suggests a leptokurtic distribution, which means that the distribution was heavy tailed, suggesting a non-normal distribution of scores.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the AES subscales ranged between $\alpha = .76$ and $\alpha = .90$ and the overall scale was measured at $\alpha = .94$. The composite reliability (CR) coefficients for the AES subscales ranged between CR = .78 and CR = .90 and the CR coefficient for the overall scale was CR = .94. The values of the internal reliability coefficients were all above $> .70$ and were therefore deemed acceptable, as reliability coefficients of $.70$ or greater are deemed good (Costa et al., 2015).

5.1.3 Psychological Capital Questionnaire

The PCQ uses a six-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (6) strongly agree. The instrument scale measures the constructs of hope, resilience, optimism and self-efficacy. These four constructs were equally weighted with six items each. Table 5.3 provides the descriptive information computed for the PCQ in this study.

Table 5.3

Descriptive Statistics: Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis and Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients of the PCQ

PCQ variables	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability
Self-efficacy	4.62	1.02	-1.39	2.49	.88	.89
Hope	4.21	.95	-.97	1.80	.88	.89
Resiliency	4.73	.83	-1.87	5.65	.84	.84
Optimism	3.93	1.04	-.67	.11	.82	.84
Overall psychological capital questionnaire (PCQ)	4.40	.83	-1.51	4.21	.94	.93

Note: N = 144

The mean scores for the PCQ subscales ranged between 3.93 and 4.73, indicating that the sample generally scored on the higher end of the scale. The overall mean score of the PCQ scale was 4.40. The participants scored the highest on the Resiliency subscale (mean = 4.73; SD = .83) and the lowest on the Optimism subscale (mean = 3.93; SD = 1.04). The skewness and kurtosis scores for the PCQ were found to be -1.51 and 4.21 respectively. Skewness

measures the symmetry of the distribution; hence, the PCQ value of -1.51 indicates that the data was highly skewed to the left, which means that the left tail of the distribution was longer than the right tail. The kurtosis value of 4.21 for the PCQ suggests a leptokurtic distribution, which means that the distribution had heavy tails, suggesting a non-normal distribution of scores.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the PCQ subscales ranged between $\alpha = .82$ and $\alpha = .88$, and the overall scale scored between $\alpha = .94$. The composite reliability coefficients ranged between $CR = .84$ and $CR = .89$ for the PCQ subscales, which overall recorded $CR = .93$. Both the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient values were above $> .70$, which suggests good internal consistency reliability.

In summary, the acceptable range for the Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the composite reliability coefficient is $> .70$ (Nunnally, 1978). All three scales proved to have high internal consistency reliability as their overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient were above $> .70$.

5.2 CORRELATION STATISTICS

Bi-variate correlations were performed to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationship between the PCBI, AES and PCQ variables, using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, Version 27; 2020). The correlation statistics were performed to achieve empirical research aim 1.

- Empirical research aim 1: To assess the empirical inter-relationships between psychological capital (the independent variable), positive coping behaviour (the dependent variable) and emotional intelligence as the mediating variable

Table 5.4 reports on the correlation coefficients.

5.2.1 Correlation between the scales

The overall PCQ and AES scales showed significant positive correlations at $r = .53$, with a large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. In terms of the psychological capital variables, the AES showed significant positive correlations, ranging from $r = .35$ (resiliency), medium practical effect, $p \leq .001$, to $r = .55$ (optimism), all with a large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. Regarding the emotional intelligence variables, the PCQ displayed significant positive correlations, ranging from $r = .21$ (perception of emotion), small practical effect, $p \leq .001$, to $r = .68$ (managing own emotions) with a large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. The bi-variate correlations were all below $< .80$, which is

the threshold for potential issues of multicollinearity. The significant correlations did not show multicollinearity among the scale variables.

Table 5.4

Correlations Between the AES, PCQ and PCBI Subscales and Overall Scales

Variables	Self-efficacy	Hope	Resiliency	Optimism	PCQ scale	Inventive	Engaging	Intentional	Influential	Pandemic	PCBI scale	Perception of emotion	Managing own emotions	Managing others emotions	Utilisation of emotion	Managing emotions	AES scale
Self-efficacy	1.00																
Hope	.56**	1.00															
Resiliency	.42**	.61**	1.00														
Optimism	.54**	.72**	.53**	1.00													
PCQ scale	.79**	.87**	.71**	.84**	1.00												
Inventive	.47**	.64**	.58**	.63**	.69**	1.00											
Engaging	.53**	.61**	.55**	.59**	.67**	.72**	1.00										
Intentional	.52**	.62**	.55**	.62**	.67**	.70**	.78**	1.00									
Influential	.48**	.47**	.48**	.49**	.56**	.64**	.53**	.63**	1.00								
Pandemic	.38**	.51**	.45**	.51**	.52**	.56**	.63**	.65**	.59**	1.00							
PCBI scale	.58**	.74**	.57**	.72**	.78**	.80**	.80**	.87**	.72**	.67**	1.00						
Perception of emotion	.28**	.17*	0.14	.19*	.21**	0.14	.27**	.28**	.17*	.30**	.24**	1.00					
Managing own emotions	.48**	.63**	.48**	.71**	.68**	.62**	.62**	.65**	.50**	.52**	.69**	.38**	1.00				
Managing others emotions	.22**	.34**	.22**	.32**	.30**	.24**	.25**	.34**	.25**	.32**	.30**	.47**	.50**	1.00			
Utilisation of emotion	.22**	.20*	0.13	.29**	.24**	.21*	.26**	.30**	.27**	.34**	.29**	.39**	.49**	.51**	1.00		
Managing emotions during Covid	.35**	.47**	.44**	.52**	.51**	.49**	.54**	.49**	.39**	.61**	.50**	.41**	.60**	.40**	.27**	1.00	
AES scale	.42**	.49**	.35**	.55**	.53**	.47**	.53**	.57**	.42**	.54**	.56**	.71**	.83**	.74**	.65**	.69**	1.00

Note: N = 144

** . $p < .01$ statistically highly significant

* . $p < .05$ statistically significant

The overall PCQ and PCBI scales presented significant positive correlations at $r = .78$, also with a large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. In terms of the psychological capital variables, the PCBI showed significant positive correlations, ranging from $r = .58$ (self-efficacy) to $r = .74$ (hope), all with a large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. Regarding the positive coping behaviour variables, the PCQ also displayed significant positive correlations, ranging from $r = .52$ (pandemic coping) to $r = .69$ (inventive coping), all with a large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. The bi-variate

correlations were all below $< .80$, which is the threshold for potential issues of multicollinearity. The significant correlations did not show multicollinearity among the scale variables.

The overall AES and PCBI scales demonstrated significant positive correlations at $r = .56$, with a highly practical effect, $p \leq .001$. In terms of the emotional intelligence variables, the PCBI showed significant positive correlations, ranging from $r = .242$ (perception of emotion), small practical effect, $p \leq .001$, to $r = .69$ (managing own emotions), with a large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. Regarding the positive coping behaviour variables, the AES displayed significant positive correlations, ranging from $r = .42$ (influential coping), medium practical effect, $p \leq .001$, to $r = .57$ (intentional coping), with a large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. The bi-variate correlations were all below $< .80$, which is the threshold for potential issues of multicollinearity. The significant correlations did not show multicollinearity among the scale variables.

However, some variables between the scales did not show any significant relationships. Firstly, the AES subscale, utilisation of emotions, did not display a significant relationship with the PCQ subscale, resiliency at $r = .13$. Similarly, the AES subscale, perception of emotions, did not demonstrate a significant relationship with inventive coping behaviour, a PCBI subscale at $r = .14$. This outcome suggests that these variables are not significantly associated.

5.2.2 Correlation between the PCBI and its subscales

The correlations between the PCBI and its sub-dimensions were significantly positive. The significantly positive correlation between PCBI and its variables was the highest for intentional coping ($r = .87$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$), followed by inventive coping ($r = .80$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$), engaging coping ($r = .80$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$), influential coping ($r = .72$, large practical effect, $p \leq .001$) and lastly, pandemic coping ($r = .67$, large practical effect, $p \leq .001$). The significantly positive correlations between the PCBI variables ranged from $r = .53$ between influential coping and engaging coping (large practical effect, $p \leq .001$) to $r = .78$ between intentional coping and engaging coping (large practical effect, $p \leq .001$). The bi-variate correlations provided evidence of convergent validity.

5.2.3 Correlation between the AES and its subscales

The correlations between the AES and its sub-dimensions were significantly positive. The correlation between AES and the AES variables was the highest for managing own emotions ($r = .83$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$), followed by managing others' emotions ($r = .74$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$), perception of emotions ($r = .71$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$), managing emotions during Covid ($r = .69$, large practical effect, $p \leq .001$) and lastly, utilisation

of emotion ($r = .65$, large practical effect, $p \leq .001$). The significantly positive correlations between the AES variables ranged from $r = .27$; small practical effect, $p \leq .001$ to $r = .60$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. The bi-variate correlations provided evidence of convergent validity.

5.2.4 Correlation between the PCQ and its subscales

The correlations between the PCQ and its sub-dimensions were moderately to significantly positive. The correlation between PCQ and its variables was the highest for hope ($r = .87$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$), followed by optimism ($r = .84$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$), self-efficacy ($r = .79$; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$) and lastly, resiliency ($r = .71$, large practical effect, $p \leq .001$). The significantly positive correlations between the PCQ variables ranged from $r = .42$ between resiliency and self-efficacy; medium practical effect, $p \leq .001$, to $r = .72$ between hope and optimism; large practical effect, $p \leq .001$. The bi-variate correlations provided evidence of convergent validity.

Given these findings, the correlation results provided evidence in support of research hypothesis H1:

- Research hypothesis H1: There is a statistically positive relationship between the antecedent variable (psychological capital), the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) and positive coping behaviours (dependent variable).

5.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

In this section , the following inferential statistics were performed:

- Mediation analysis
- Moderated regression analysis
- Tests for significant mean differences

When inferential statistics are applied to the research material, the researcher can make comparisons, the conclusions of which allow the researcher to make inferences to the larger population beyond the research sample (Ali & Bhaskar, 2016; Simpson, 2015). However, the main goal of inferential statistics is to test or answer the hypotheses as part of the process for making rational conclusions about the research results (Ali & Bhaskar, 2016).

5.3.1 Mediation analysis

Mediation analysis was performed to achieve research aim 2:

- Research aim 2: To assess whether the effect of the independent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence.

Mediation analysis involves the presence of an intermediate variable between an independent variable and a dependent variable, which transmits the causal effect of the independent variable onto the dependent variable (Agler & De Boeck, 2017). In simple terms, the mediation analysis assesses whether a third intermediate variable can explain the relationship between two variables. This study used the PROCESS Procedure (Hayes, 2018) for SPSS Version 3.5.3 to perform the mediation analysis. Table 5.5 reports the mediation analysis results.

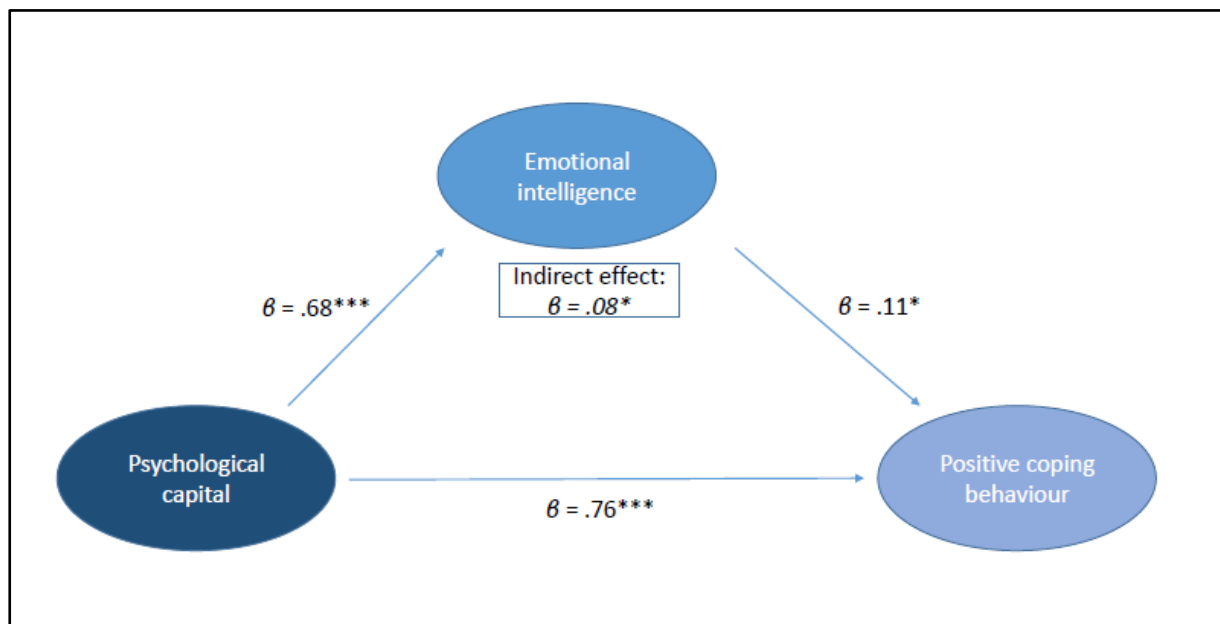
Table 5.5

Mediation Results: Emotional Intelligence as Mediator in the Link Between Psychological Capital and Positive Coping Behaviour

Variable	Standardised β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	F	p	R ²
Psychological capital	.76	.07	14.83	.000	.90	1.17	215.38	.000	.71
Emotional intelligence	.11	.09	1.97	.05	-.001	.37	-	-	-
<i>Standardised indirect effect:</i> Emotional intelligence	.08	.03	-	-	.01	.14	-	-	-

Figure 5.1

Indirect (Mediating) Effect of Emotional Intelligence



Notes: *** $p = .000$, * $p = .05$. standardised indirect effect $\beta = .08$ (LLCI = .01; ULCI = .14)

Table 5.5 and Figure 5.1 report the results of a mediation analysis applied to investigate the hypothesis that emotional intelligence mediates the effect of psychological capital on positive coping behaviour. The results indicated that psychological capital was a significant direct predictor of positive coping behaviour ($\beta = .76$, $SE = .07$, $p = .000$). As shown in Figure 5.1, psychological capital ($\beta = .57$, $SE = .11$, $p = .000$) had a significant and positive direct effect on emotional intelligence, which in turn had a positive and significant direct effect on positive coping behaviour. The direct effect of emotional intelligence on positive coping behaviour was close to significant, $p = .051$. The more stringent LLCI (-.001) and ULCI (.37) including zero indicated that the direct effect is not significant. However, because of the small sample size and the exploratory nature of the research the direct effect, $p = .051$, was regarded as significant for the purposes of this research. The standardised mediating (indirect) effect of emotional intelligence ($\beta = .08$, LLCI .01; ULCI .14) was significant. Emotional intelligence is therefore an important mechanism for enhancing positive coping behaviour. Approximately 71% of the variance in positive coping behaviour was accounted for by the predictors ($R^2 = .71$; large practical effect).

The mediation results provided evidence in support of research hypothesis 2:

- Research hypothesis 2: The effect of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence (mediating variable).

5.3.2 Moderated regression analysis

Moderated regression analysis was performed to achieve research aim 3:

- Research aim 3: The effect of (1) the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) and (2) the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is significantly moderated by individuals' age, gender, race, tenure and job level.

The moderated regression analysis was performed by using the PROCESS Procedure (Hayes, 2018) for SPSS Version 3.5.3. In this study, the purpose of the moderated regression analysis was to determine the extent of the interaction (moderation) effects between the sociodemographic variables (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) and the predictor variables in predicting positive coping behaviour. For parsimony reasons, Table 5.6 reports only the significant moderated regression analysis results which included just the socio-demographic variables of race and tenure. The following dummy codes were used:

Race: white = 0 (low race); black = 1 (high race)

Tenure: < 15 years = 0 (low tenure); > 15 years = 1 (high tenure)

Table 5.6

Significant Moderated Regression Results for Dependent Variable: Positive Coping Behaviour

<i>Variable</i>	β	SE	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	F	p	R ²	ΔR^2	f ²
Emotional intelligence (AES): A	1.01	.10	9.72	.00	.80	1.22	41.83	.00	.40	-	.66
Tenure: B	.02	.21	.09	.93	-.39	.43	-	-	-	-	-
Interaction effect: A*B	.84	.41	2.03	.04	.02	1.66	4.13	.04	-	.00	-
Psychological capital (PsyCap): A	1.29	.10	13.16	.00	1.10	1.48	128.43	.00	.71	-	2.45
Race: B	-.09	.10	-.86	.39	-.29	.12	-	-	-	-	-
Interaction effect: A*B	-.26	.12	-2.09	.04	-.50	-.01	4.38	.04	-	.01	-

Note: N = 144

Table 5.6 shows that for emotional intelligence and tenure, the moderated regression model was significant ($F = 4.13$; $p \leq .05$; $R^2 = .04$) and explained 4% (small practical effect) of variance in positive coping behaviour. Emotional intelligence had a significant positive main effect on positive coping behaviour ($\beta = 1.01$; $SE = .10$, $p = .00$; $LLCI = .80$; $ULCI = 1.22$). Tenure did not have a significant main effect on positive coping behaviour; however, the interaction effect between emotional intelligence and tenure in predicting positive coping behaviour was significant ($\beta = .84$; $SE = .41$, $p = .04$; $LLCI = .02$; $ULCI = 1.66$).

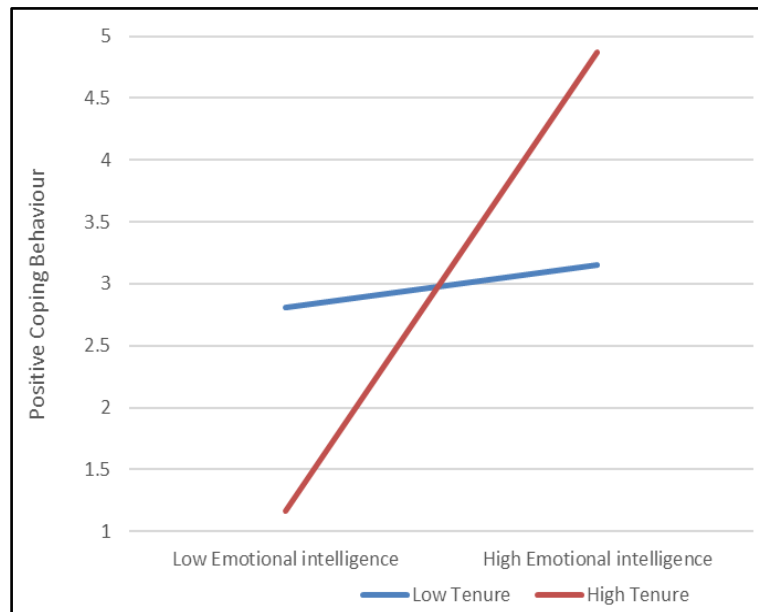
Figure 5.2 further illustrates the nature of the interaction effect ($f^2 = .66$; large practical effect). It was observed that those with ≥ 15 years' tenure and high levels of emotional intelligence also displayed significantly higher levels of positive coping behaviour than those participants with less than 15 years' tenure and high levels of emotional intelligence. Participants with low emotional intelligence also had significantly low levels of positive coping behaviour, especially the participants with more than 15 years' tenure.

Table 5.6 illustrates that for psychological capital and race, the moderated regression model was significant ($F = 4.38$; $p \leq .05$; $R^2 = .71$) and explained 71% (large practical effect) of variance in positive coping behaviour. Psychological capital had a significant positive main effect on positive coping behaviour ($\beta = 1.29$; $SE = .10$, $p = .00$; $LLCI = 1.10$; $ULCI = 1.48$). Race did not have a significant main effect on positive coping behaviour; however, the

interaction effect between psychological capital and race in predicting positive coping behaviour was significant ($\beta = -.26$; $SE = .12$, $p = .04$; $LLCI = -.50$; $ULCI = -.01$).

Figure 5.2

Interaction Diagram: Emotional Intelligence x Tenure

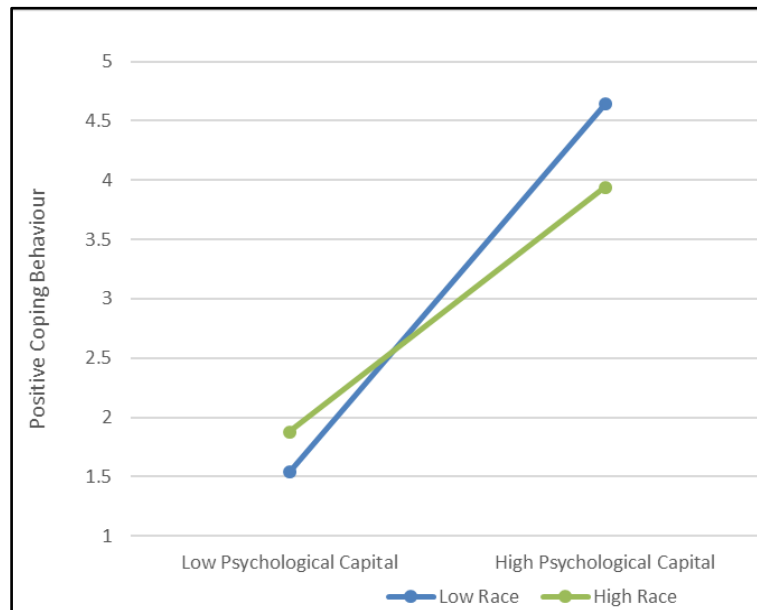


Note: Tenure: <15 years = 0 (low tenure); >15 years = 1 (high tenure)

An examination of the interaction plot in Figure 5.3 shows that white participants with a high level of psychological capital also displayed slightly higher levels of positive coping behaviour than black participants with high levels of psychological capital. White and black participants with low psychological capital levels also had significantly low levels of positive coping behaviour.

Figure 5.3

Interaction Diagram: Psychological Capital x Race



Note: Race: white = 0 (low race); black = 1 (high race)

In summary, the moderated regression analysis provided only partial evidence in support of research hypothesis H3:

- Research hypothesis 3: The effect of (1) the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) and (2) the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is significantly moderated by individuals' age, gender, race, tenure and job level.

5.3.3 Tests for significant mean differences analysis

Tests for significant mean differences were performed to achieve research aim 4:

- Research aim 4: To assess whether attorneys from different socio-demographic groups (age, gender, race, tenure, job level) differ significantly with regard to psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, Version 27; 2020) was used to perform the Mann-Whitney U (non-parametric) statistical procedure for analysis. For parsimony reasons, Table 5.7 reports only the significant mean differences.

Table 5.7*Significant Mann-Whitney U Test Results*

Variable	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	p	Source of difference	Mean	SD	Cohen d
Age								
Pandemic coping	91.50	9961.50	-2.29	.02	≤ 45 years (N = 140)	4.57	1.26	1.37
					> 45 years (N = 4)	6.08	.92	
Gender								
Perception of emotion	1714.00	2617.00	-1.89	.06	Males (N = 42)	4.38	.96	.29
					Females (N = 102)	4.63	.77	
Tenure								
Self-efficacy	360.00	9405.00	-2.44	.02	≤ 15 years (N = 134)	4.57	1.03	.81
					> 15 years (N = 10)	5.28	.71	
Resiliency	357.00	9402.00	-2.47	.01	≤ 15 years (N = 134)	4.69	.83	.87
					> 15 years (N = 10)	5.28	.48	
Engaging coping	275.00	9320.00	-3.11	.00	≤ 15 years (N = 134)	4.75	1.28	1.19
					> 15 years (N = 10)	5.95	.62	
Intentional coping	390.00	9435.00	-2.20	.03	≤ 15 years (N = 134)	5.10	1.16	.86
					> 15 years (N = 10)	5.87	.53	
Pandemic coping	271.00	9316.00	-3.14	.00	≤ 15 years (N = 134)	4.52	1.26	1.18
					> 15 years (N = 10)	5.78	.82	

Note: N = 144

Overall, the results showed no significant differences for the moderating variables race and job level. However, the following significant observations were made, as summarised in Table 5.7:

5.3.3.1 Age

The age group ≤ 45 years (M = 4.57; SD = 1.26) scored significantly lower than the age group > 45 years (M = 6.08; SD = .92; d = 1.37; large practical effect size) on pandemic coping. No significant differences were observed between the age groups with regard to the psychological capital variables (i.e. self-efficacy, hope, resiliency and optimism).

5.3.3.2 Gender

Females (M = 4.63; SD = .77) scored slightly higher than males (M = 4.38; SD = .96; d = .29; small practical effect size) on perception of emotion. Again, no significant differences were observed between the gender groups concerning the psychological capital variables (i.e. self-efficacy, hope, resiliency and optimism), nor the positive coping behaviour attributes.

5.3.3.3 Tenure

Two PCQ variables displayed similar, significant results. On self-efficacy, the tenure group ≤ 15 years (M = 4.57; SD = 1.03) scored slightly lower than the job tenure group > 15 years

($M = 5.28$; $SD = .71$; $d = .81$; large practical effect size). Similar results were found for resiliency, where the job tenure group ≤ 15 years ($M = 4.69$; $SD = .83$) scored slightly lower than the job tenure group > 15 years ($M = 5.28$; $SD = .48$; $d = .87$; large practical effect size).

The same trend was seen with three PCBI variables where similar significant results were noted. On engaging coping, the job tenure group ≤ 15 years ($M = 4.75$; $SD = 1.28$) scored lower than the job tenure group > 15 years ($M = 5.95$; $SD = .62$; $d = 1.19$; large practical effect size). Likewise, for intentional coping, the job tenure group ≤ 15 years ($M = 5.10$; $SD = 1.16$) scored lower than the job tenure group > 15 years ($M = 5.87$; $SD = .53$; $d = .86$; large practical effect size). Finally, pandemic coping was documented in the same way: the job tenure group ≤ 15 years ($M = 4.52$; $SD = 1.26$) scored lower than the job tenure group > 15 years ($M = 5.78$; $SD = .82$; $d = 1.18$; large practical effect size).

In summary, the test for significant mean differences provided only partial evidence in support of research hypothesis H4:

- Research hypothesis 4: Attorneys from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups differ significantly regarding their psychological capital and emotional intelligence resources. This means that certain socio-demographic groups will showcase greater levels of psychosocial resources and positive coping behaviour than other groups.

5.4 DECISIONS REGARDING THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

This section includes the main findings of relevance to the research hypotheses, as indicated in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8*Summary of the Main Findings Relating to the Research Hypotheses*

Research Aim	Research Hypothesis	Statistical Procedure	Evidence Yes / No / Partial
Research aim 1: To assess the empirical inter-relationships between psychological capital (the independent variable), positive coping behaviour (the dependent variable) and emotional intelligence as the mediating variable.	H1: There is a statistically positive relationship between the antecedent variable (psychological capital), the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) and positive coping behaviours (dependent variable).	Bi-variate correlations	Yes
Research aim 2: To assess whether the effect of the independent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence.	H2: The effect of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence (mediating variable).	Mediation analysis – PROCESS Hayes	Yes
Research aim 3: To assess (1) the effect the effect of the independent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour), and (2) the effect of emotional intelligence (the mediating variable) on positive coping behaviour (dependent variable), when moderated by individuals' age, gender, race, tenure and job level characteristics.	H3: The effect of (1) the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) and (2) the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is significantly moderated by individuals' age, gender, race, tenure and job level.	Hierarchical moderated regression PROCESS Hayes	Yes
Research aim 4: To assess whether attorneys from different socio-demographic groups (age, gender, race, tenure, job level) differ significantly with regard to psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.	H4: Attorneys from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups differ significantly regarding their psychological capital and emotional intelligence resources. This means that certain socio-demographic groups will showcase greater levels of psychosocial resources and positive coping behaviour than other groups.	Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon test for significant mean differences	Partial

5.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research results. The first section dealt with descriptive statistics in which the means, standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness and the internal consistency reliability coefficients of the PCBI, AES and PCQ scales were computed. This section was followed by the correlation analysis, which reported on the strength and magnitude of the relationships between the PCBI, AES and PCQ scales. This was followed by the section on inferential statistics, which included the results of the mediation analysis, the moderated regression analysis and the test for the significant mean differences. The chapter closed with

a summary of the main findings regarding the research hypotheses. Chapter 6 discusses of the research results and closes with the researcher's recommendations.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a discussion on, and the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of, the study. The chapter begins by discussing the conclusions pertaining to the aims of the study and the research hypotheses. This section is followed by a discussion of the limitations of both the literature review and the empirical results of the study. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and the practical application of the findings in the legal industry.

6.1 DISCUSSION

In this section, the biological and descriptive profile of the sample and the research aims of the study will be discussed.

6.1.1 Biographical and descriptive profile of sample

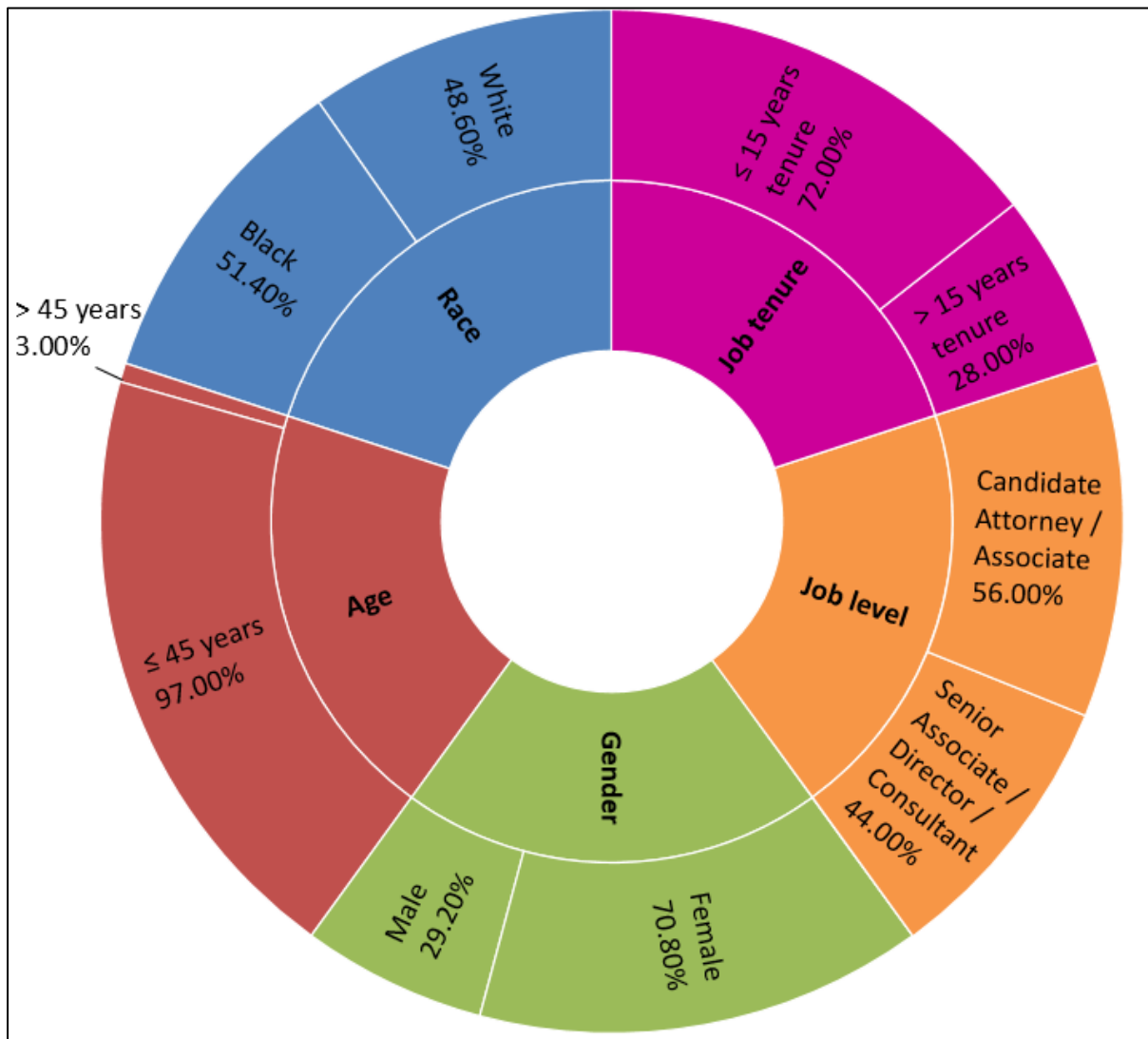
The profile of the sample is illustrated in Figure 6.1. The biographical profile revealed a young demographic, with more than half of the participants aged between 25 and 30 years. In view of this, 54.2% of participants also unsurprisingly indicated that they were single. Although no South African figures are available for the age profile of the attorney profession, American statistics suggests that the median age of attorneys is 47.5 years (American Bar Association, 2017). Additionally, the Law Society of the United Kingdom reported the average age for entry to the profession was 29.6 years (Law Society, 2020). Assuming that the South African legal profession mirrors a similar age demographic, the sample may be underrepresented by older attorneys and future research should cast a wider net on all age groups in an effort to draw more informed conclusions.

The sample presented a relatively even split between white (48.6%) and black participants (51.4%). Statistics from the Law Society of South Africa (2019) suggest that the participation rate was on par with the racial distribution of the profession in South Africa, of which 56% are white. Against this backdrop, the sample was not representative, but rather reflected the typical race profile of attorneys.

The majority of the participants were female (70.8%). According to the LSSA (2019), the gender distribution of the profession is dominated by males (61%). In view of this, males were underrepresented and future occupational research should aim to increase the number of male participants to produce more representative samples.

Figure 6.1

The Main Characteristics of the Sample Profile



Source: Author's own work

The sample's sociodemographic profile also indicated that almost half of the research participants were employed as associates (49.6%), which corresponded with the age demographic of the sample. No information is available on the job level distribution of attorneys in South Africa, but it is deemed good practice to maintain a low partner, high associate ratio to maximise profits (Turner, 2017). Against this background, the sample was considered not to be representative, but rather reflected the typical age profile of attorneys.

Lastly, the tenure profile of the sample suggested that most participants held less than 15 years' tenure (72%), with almost half (49.3%) only having one to five years' tenure. According to a survey by Robert Walters (Business Tech, 2021), these results are in line with movements within the South African industry, as the average tenure among legal professionals is currently

just over two years. These findings suggest that the sample was not representative, but rather reflected the typical tenure profile of attorneys.

6.1.2 Descriptive statistics: interpretation of the results

The study produced interesting results on each of the scales. The participants scored high on all three scales which, practically, suggests that the participants had a relatively strong positive coping behaviour capability profile, seemingly supported by adequate psychological resources (psychological capital and emotional intelligence).

The research results indicated that the participants' levels of positive coping behaviour were above average and the participants particularly displayed great levels of intentional coping behaviour. This finding suggests that the participating attorneys felt confident in their efforts and capabilities to conscientiously take part in positive, purposeful and adaptive behaviours. This outcome is plausible, as the participating attorneys also scored high on self-efficacy. Self-efficacy involves intentionality, a sense of control and agentic goal pursuit (Luthans et al., 2007), which ties in with the actions associated with intentional coping behaviour.

The sample of participants scored well above average for emotional intelligence. Above all, they scored highest on the utilisation of emotion construct, which involves applying emotions and moods during problem-solving activities. This result is encouraging, as emotional intelligence is considered to be a predictor of wellbeing (Zeidner et al., 2012). Interestingly, these results conflict with previous studies which found that attorneys generally exhibit lower levels of emotional intelligence (Kelton, 2015; Muir, 2016). However, these studies were conducted in the United States and their findings may not apply to the local attorney population.

In addition, the results pointed out that the participants displayed adequate levels of psychological capital. This outcome is encouraging, as psychological capital is related to performance, wellbeing, turnover intention and happiness in the workplace (Choi & Lee, 2014). The participants scored highest on resiliency, which suggests that they are able to recover quickly from setbacks and challenges. This a surprising finding, as it conflicts with previous research which found that attorneys generally score lower on resiliency than the general population (MacEwen, 2013). Seligman (2002) proposed that an attorney's weakened levels of resiliency is due to their professional disposition to lean towards pessimism. A possible reason for the conflicting outcome of this study could be because the previous research was not conducted locally and that perhaps South African attorneys are more resilient than their international counterparts. Another reason may be that the participants were not objective in their responses to the self-assessment and may have overplayed their resiliency levels. The

psychological capital results also revealed low levels of optimism among the participating attorneys. These results are in line with literature: pessimism is considered an important trait of successful attorneys (Pasyk, 2019) and the legal profession rewards pessimism by virtue of its function (Daicoff, 2004; Seligman et al., 2001). This perspective ultimately gives rise to potential wellbeing challenges, as research suggests that there is a strong relationship between coping flexibility, optimism, mental health problems and wellbeing (Reed, 2016).

6.1.3 Research aim 1: correlations

Research aim 1 was to assess the empirical inter-relationships between psychological capital (the independent variable), positive coping behaviour (the dependent variable) and emotional intelligence as mediating variable.

6.1.3.1 The relationship between emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour

Emotional intelligence was measured using the AES instrument, which had five subscales, namely, perception of emotion, managing own emotions, managing others' emotions, utilisation of emotions and managing emotions during Covid. Positive coping behaviour was measured by employing the PCBI scale, which consisted of five subscales, namely, inventive coping, engaging coping, intentional coping, influential coping and pandemic coping. As illustrated in Table 5.4 in Chapter 5, a significant and positive relationship exists between emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

Emotional intelligence significantly and positively predicted participants' positive coping behaviour. These results suggest that participants with high levels of emotional intelligence are likely to have high levels of positive coping behaviour, which is supported by Jung and Yoon (2016), who found that in the workplace certain elements of emotional intelligence presented a positive relationship with the inventive coping behaviours. However, there was no significant relationship between inventive coping and perception of emotion. These findings imply that the participants' awareness and observation of their own emotions and those of others, may not necessarily result in inventive coping activities such as positive problem-solving behaviours. Despite these findings, managing own emotions displayed a highly significant positive relationship with the positive coping behaviour subscales of inventive coping, engaging coping and intentional coping. This means that a participant, when managing their own emotions efficiently, would display greater levels of positive problem-solving behaviour (inventive coping), a happy and engaged attitude (engaging coping) and intentionally occupy themselves in positive goal-orientated behaviours (intentional coping). These findings are supported by research conducted by Coetzee and Harry (2014), which found that individuals who confidently managed their own emotions had higher levels of

motivation and a willingness to plan for future career prospects, took control of their careers and showed a willingness to pursue career-related endeavours. Furthermore, managing their own emotions was found to play a key role in problem-solving and positive coping behaviours and a predictor of their ability to set career-related goals (Coetzee & Beukes, 2010).

The results on the relationship between emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour provided evidence in support of hypothesis H1.

6.1.3.2 The relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour

Table 5.4 in Chapter 5 is relevant to this section. Psychological capital was measured using the PCQ instrument, which had four subscales, namely hope, self-efficacy, resiliency and optimism. The results indicated that a significant and positive relationship exists between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour. Furthermore, all the psychological capital attributes were overall positively related.

Psychological capital significantly and positively predicted participants' positive coping behaviour. These results suggest that participants with high levels of psychological capital are likely to have high levels of positive coping behaviour. In particular, the subscale hope displayed a significant positive relationship with inventive coping, engaging coping and intentional coping. Similarly, optimism presented a significant positive relationship with inventive coping and intentional coping. Practically, this means that legal professionals with high levels of hope and optimism are likely to display high levels of positive problem-solving behaviour (inventive coping) and conscious goal-directed actions (intentional coping). Attorneys with high levels of optimism would then also be likely to produce positive emotions in stressful conditions. These findings are supported in research which indicates that the constructs of positive emotion, intrinsic motivators and cognition (such as optimism and hope) are integral to positive coping behaviour (Marx, 2016; Proyer et al., 2014). More specifically, optimism was found to be a determinant factor of the type of coping behaviour employed and was positively associated with coping behaviours when facing adversity (Scheier et al., 1986).

The results on the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour provided evidence in support of hypothesis H1.

6.1.3.3 The relationship between psychological capital and emotional intelligence

As Table 5.4 in Chapter 5 suggests, a significant and positive relationship was found between psychological capital and emotional intelligence. In particular, the study showed a significant positive relationship between the psychological capital subscale of optimism and the managing own emotions subscale. This suggests that attorneys with high levels of optimism

would be likely to navigate and manage their own emotions successfully. Previous studies have established the relationship between emotional intelligence and optimism: Di Fabio et al. (2018) posited that optimism positively predicts higher levels of emotional intelligence, whereas Augusto-Lando et al. (2011) established that emotional intelligence is an antecedent of optimism.

On the other hand, the research results indicated that there was no significant relationship between the resiliency and perception of emotions subscales, as well as resiliency and utilisation of emotion subscales. These findings indicate that an attorney's levels of resilience will not have any influence on how they note (others' and their own) emotions and manage their own emotions. These findings are in contrast to previous research findings, which suggested that emotional intelligence is directly connected to resilience (Armstrong et al., 2011; Matthews et al., 2002).

The results on the relationship between psychological capital and emotional intelligence provided evidence in support of hypothesis H1.

As to significant findings, positive relationships were found across the board between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviours. This suggests that if psychological capital constructs and emotional intelligence capabilities were effectively managed and developed in the workplace, there would be an increase in the utilisation of positive coping behaviours by attorneys, as positive emotion constructs (such as emotional intelligence), intrinsic motivators (such as self-efficacy) and cognition (hope and optimism) form an integral of positive coping behaviour (Marx, 2016; Proyer et al., 2014). The industrial psychologists and human resource professionals employed at law firms would need to apply wellbeing strategies with a focus on psychological resource interventions which may be beneficial in such a high stress and demanding environment.

6.1.4 Research aim 2: mediation analysis

Research aim 2 was to assess whether the effect of the independent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence.

Table 5.5 and Figure 5.1 in Chapter 5 are of relevance to this section. It's important to note that, for the purposes of this study, the mediation analysis was only used for explanatory purposes and that no cause-effect relations were established. However, as the mediation analysis is a causal model, the possibility of influence from other factors cannot be discredited or ignored and the causation findings have been interpreted with great care. The research

results yielded full support for the research hypothesis, which assumed that the effect of psychological capital on positive coping behaviour was mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence. The mediation analyses suggested that emotional intelligence mediated the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour. Higher levels of emotional intelligence are likely to promote positive coping behaviours, thus increasing the positive effect of psychological capital on positive coping behaviour. In other words, legal professionals with high levels of psychological capital were positively associated with high levels of emotional intelligence, which, in turn, was also positively associated with positive coping behaviour. Emotional intelligence is therefore an important mechanism for enhancing positive coping behaviour in this relationship dynamic. These findings are corroborated by Di Fabio et al. (2018) who posited that the link between hope (a psychological capital construct) and positive coping is mediated by emotional intelligence. On a practical level, the results imply that those attorneys who display high levels of psychological resources (hope, self-efficacy, resiliency, optimism and emotional intelligence) are more inclined to demonstrate higher levels of positive coping behaviours and, as a result, are likely to have an increased sense of wellbeing. The relationship between psychological resources, coping, mental health and wellbeing has been established (Reed, 2016) and, according to Garrosa and Moreno-Jimenez (2013), positive coping behaviours can result in general wellbeing, personal and professional growth and increased abilities, which highlights the importance of addressing low levels of emotional intelligence among attorneys in the workplace.

For the industrial psychologists and human resource professionals working in the legal industry, this suggests the importance of focused emotional intelligence interventions. Previous studies suggest that although emotional intelligence levels for adults are generally fixed, emotional intelligence is not a rigid construct (Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013) and can be improved upon, and that these interventions prove valuable in the workplace (Hodzic et al., 2018). At the very least, emotional intelligence awareness interventions would assist a great deal in making the attorneys mindful of the role of emotions in positive coping behaviours and wellbeing.

6.1.5 Research aim 3: moderation analysis

Research aim 3 was to assess (1) the effect of the independent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour), and (2) the effect of emotional intelligence (the mediating variable) on positive coping behaviour (dependent variable), when moderated by individuals' age, gender, race, tenure and job level characteristics.

Table 5.6 in Chapter 5 is of relevance to this section. In the assessment of the effect of psychological capital on positive coping behaviour, the results showed no significant moderating effects for the sociodemographic variables of age, gender, job tenure and job level. However, the interaction effect between psychological capital and race in predicting positive coping behaviour was significant. In particular, the results demonstrated that white participants with a high level of psychological capital also had slightly higher levels of positive coping behaviour than black participants with high levels of psychological capital. This is in contrast with the outcome of an American study, which found that black individuals engaged in more positive coping strategies (Sun et al., 2010). A possible reason for this may be attributed to the African culture, which values broader social community support and reliance (ubuntu), which perhaps requires less emphasis on their own individual coping behaviours (Molose et al., 2019). For industrial psychologists and human resource professionals, these findings suggest that firms should take race into account when developing wellbeing strategies pertaining to psychological capital enhancement interventions for their attorneys. In this way, by enhancing their levels of hope, self-efficacy, resiliency and optimism, law firms may see an increase in positive coping behaviours.

Additionally, the evaluation of the moderating effects of sociodemographic variables on the relationship between emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour suggested no significant moderating effects for age, gender, race and job level. However, the moderating effect between emotional intelligence and tenure was significant. More specifically, attorneys with high tenure (15 years or more) and high levels of emotional intelligence also showed significantly higher levels of positive coping behaviour than those participants with low tenure (less than 15 years' tenure) and high levels of emotional intelligence. These findings are supported in the existing research literature. Laal and Aliramaie (2010) found that job tenure had a positive relationship with positive coping behaviour in the workplace and a positive link to professional wellbeing (Maggiori et al., 2013). A possible explanation for the nature of the interaction may be that attorneys with higher job tenure are likely to have more autonomy and, over time, have learnt to be more structured as a result of their vast work experience. Practically, this implies that law firms should take job tenure into account when developing wellbeing strategies pertaining to emotional intelligence training interventions for their attorneys. This way, by enhancing their emotional intelligence levels, law firms may see an increase in positive coping behaviours.

6.1.6 Research aim 4: tests for significant mean differences

Research aim 4 was to assess whether attorneys from different socio-demographic groups (age, gender, race, tenure, job level) differ significantly with regard to psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

Table 5.7 in Chapter 5 is of relevance to this section. In the assessment of the effect of socio-demographic groups on positive coping behaviour, emotional intelligence and psychological capital, the results only revealed no significant moderating effects for the variables age, gender and tenure. Age only showed a significant effect on pandemic coping, revealing that the participants who were older than 45 coped better with the pandemic pressures than their younger counterparts. These findings are supported by studies conducted by Carstensen et al. (2020) and Klaiber et al. (2021), who found that in the peak of Covid anxiety, older people reported less distress than their younger counterparts. The findings of these studies suggest that emotional development and aging may be positively related. In other words, older people may have a higher threshold for acceptance due to their vast life experiences, whereas the younger groups are still learning about how to cope with disappointments and setbacks. These findings suggest that law firms should actively engage with their younger attorneys while the pandemic continues to have an impact on our everyday lives. Firm leadership should encourage frequent check-ins by line managers, and human resource professionals and industrial psychologists should remind attorneys of their employee assistance programmes on offer and run pandemic-specific education programmes, wherever possible.

As for gender, women scored significantly better on perception of emotion, an emotional intelligence subscale. Perception of emotion entails the ability to read and recognise non-verbal cues such as body language and facial expressions, as well as awareness and understanding of one's own emotions. These findings are supported by previous research, which showed that women are more sensitive to emotional expressions in social interactions (Chen et al., 2018). However, in a study by Fischer et al. (2018) which investigated the gender differences for emotional intelligence and subtle emotional cues in particular, they only found slight differences between the gender groups and posited that gender differences may have been overstated in previous studies, perhaps due to the application of different methodologies and samples. Given the results of this study, human resource professionals and industrial psychologists may benefit from targeted emotional intelligence training for male attorneys, with a specific focus on body language and other non-verbal cues.

Lastly, concerning tenure, the study found significant differences for psychological capital and positive coping behaviour. Interestingly, highly tenured attorneys (> 15 years) performed better

in all the cases where significant differences were found. The participants with high tenure scored higher on engaging coping, intentional coping and pandemic coping. These subscales entail the capacity to engage and adjust in positive ways during the pandemic (pandemic coping), the ability to produce and sustain positive emotions in a self-efficacious manner during demanding circumstances (engaging coping) and self-efficacious capacity to conscientiously participate in positive goal-directed behaviours (intentional coping). Given the results of tenure on these coping subscales, it is not surprising that the high tenure group also performed better on self-efficacy and resiliency, two of the subscales of psychological capital. These findings are supported by Suhonen (2019) who found a positive link between self-efficacy, as well as a study by Singh (2017), who found greater adaptive coping styles among police officers with longer job tenure than their junior (constable) counterparts. Within the legal profession, these findings suggest that those individuals with longer tenure are likely to apply adaptive coping strategies to challenging circumstances and job stress. For human resource professionals and industrial psychologists, this means that by fostering and focusing on retention strategies and succession planning, law firms may develop a culture of positive coping behaviours and resilient and self-efficacious attorneys.

6.1.7 Integration and evaluation

As the literature study highlighted, South African attorneys find it difficult to deal with career-related pressures (Thornton, 2014; Tsai et al., 2009; Seligman et al., 2001), which is likely to result in poor wellbeing. In this study, consistent with the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 1998, 2002), essential psychological resources were identified as being essential for attorneys in order to achieve positive coping behaviour and ultimately general wellbeing. From the interaction between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour, certain relationship dynamics emerged which produced some useful information for comment, and for making recommendations for wellbeing practices within the legal profession.

The conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 1998, 2002) posits that stress occurs when there is a threat of a loss of resources, a net loss of resources and a lack of gained resources where the spending of resources occurred. From this perspective, the psychological capital and emotional intelligence resources of attorneys relate to their positive coping behaviour in the ultimate pursuit of gaining outcome resources. Conversely, a threat of loss of psychological resources, a lack in these psychological resources or spending too much of these resources in the quest of positive coping behaviours and wellbeing will result in stress. Furthermore, building on the basic tenets of the conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 1998, 2002), it is postulated that attorneys who already have certain psychological

resources are able to accrue other resources, which results in the gain of outcome resources, namely, positive coping behaviour and wellbeing. On the other hand, if an attorney lacks certain psychological resources, they may find it challenging to attain other psychological resources and engage in positive coping behaviours; this net loss of resources will cause distress for the attorney (Hobfoll, 2002). Lastly, should an attorney over-invest in behaviours related to the acquisition of psychological resources, it may exhaust some of their positive coping behaviour resources, resulting in a poor sense of wellbeing (Strauss et al., 2017).

Regarding the socio-demographic variables in this study, gender showed a significantly positive relationship between female attorneys and emotional intelligence. These findings suggest that gender could have an impact on an attorney's ability to develop emotional intelligence capabilities. For male attorneys, the lack of emotional intelligence competencies could have a negative influence on their ability to achieve outcome resources, namely, positive coping behaviour and wellbeing. As such, law firms should provide male attorneys with adequate support, such as appropriate emotional intelligence training interventions.

Additionally, the research results revealed that race was significantly related to positive coping behaviour. These findings suggest that an attorney's racial demographic could be connected to the behaviours they employ to cope in challenging circumstances, regardless of their existing level of psychological resources. Practically, this means that human resource professionals and industrial psychologists need to provide black attorneys with greater support in developing and understanding positive coping behaviours. From a conservation of resources theory perspective, black attorneys may feel distress when their spent psychological resources (whether psychological capital resources or emotional intelligence) result in a lack of newly gained resources (positive coping behaviours), which would ultimately result in a poor sense of wellbeing.

Lastly, as a socio-demographic variable, tenure proved impactful on multiple fronts. High tenure presented a significantly positive relationship for emotional intelligence, positive coping behaviour and two of the psychological capital constructs, namely, self-efficacy and resiliency. In accordance with the conservation of resources theory, attorneys with high tenure would be in a position to accrue multiple resources (resource gain), putting them in a positive resource gain spiral. Human resource professionals and industrial psychologists will need to be mindful of this relationship and appreciate the apparent ease with which highly tenured attorneys cope, as well as conversely understanding the challenges linked to low tenure. For the latter group, targeted interventions should teach new attorneys how to gain benefit from utilising their psychological resources to potentially contribute to their positive coping behaviours and ultimately enhance their sense of wellbeing.

As the study results show, emotional intelligence is an important factor in attaining positive coping behaviours. The research results indicate that attorneys are generally well equipped with emotional intelligence competencies, as they scored above average on all the sub-constructs. Of all the emotional intelligence elements, the research suggests that attorneys find managing their own emotions the hardest, which requires control of their own mood and feelings and the expression of emotion in appropriate ways and at the appropriate times. These findings are corroborated by the American Bar Association (2017). Fortunately, this skill can be improved. In recent years, law profession councils have also recommended that emotional intelligence training is included in undergraduate curriculums (Buchanan et al., 2017), which will equip junior attorneys with the necessary emotional skillset to support positive coping behaviour in the workplace. This study supports this recommendation: the first few years of a young attorney's career is occupied with technical skills training and the billable hour, leaving little room for soft skills training. By equipping law students with knowledge and emotional intelligence know-how, new lawyers can possibly approach this demanding profession with greater ease.

The study was able to establish the positive relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviours. The research results indicate that attorneys generally consider themselves to be resilient and self-efficacious, but lacking in optimism. This result is well supported in the literature (Daicoff, 2004; Seligman, 2002). Fortunately, optimism can be improved upon (Schneider, 2001). However, environmental factors play a role and a tense and dysfunctional environment is not conducive for an optimistic mindset in a workplace setting (Aymans et al., 2020). For human resource professionals, industrial psychologists and career coaches, these results suggest that attorneys should be encouraged to engage in positive internal dialogue practices and applying positive thinking patterns concerning past, present and future scenarios. They should also be provided with the necessary support, given the high pressure environment of the legal profession.

The study's central research hypothesis theorised that psychological capital will have a positive relationship with positive coping behaviour through emotional intelligence and that the relationship between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour is moderated by the individual's socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, race, tenure and job level). It further posited that the relationship would be more positive for certain socio-demographic groups than others and that these groups will also differ significantly regarding the construct variables. The research was able to successfully demonstrate the positive relationship between psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour. Moreover, the investigation brought to light the influence of

socio-demographic factors on this relationship, which highlights that human resource professionals and industrial psychologists would need to develop targeted training interventions and that a blanket approach for all attorneys may prove futile. The research suggested that race and tenure plays a particularly influential role in the relationship between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour. Interestingly, job level did not have an influence on any of the variables, which is supported by previous research on positive coping and wellbeing specifically (Rao & Chandraiah, 2012). In practical terms, this suggests that positive coping behaviour is not linked to any particular title and that positive coping behaviours will not necessarily develop naturally as an attorney climbs the corporate ladder.

Counter-intuitively, gender did not present an impact on positive coping behaviour (and ultimately, wellbeing). This finding goes against the common opinion that men cope better than women in the workplace, which has been substantiated by previous studies (Akhtar & Kroener-Herwig, 2018; Blau & Khan, 2017; Hampel & Petermann, 2005; Roper, 2014; Tamres et al., 2002). This outcome suggests that Although the profession has been seeing a torrent of female attorneys leaving practice, it is likely not due to coping concerns, but perhaps due to a lack of work–life balance and childcare hurdles, as often stipulated in the exit interviews of outgoing female attorneys (Law Careers, 2020).

In conclusion, these research discoveries may assist human resource professionals and industrial psychologists in understanding how the sociodemographic elements enhance or inhibit positive coping behaviours, given certain psychological resources. The research results may enable human resource professionals and industrial psychologists to develop supportive mechanisms in light of the findings on variances for the predictor variables and highlight possible unfounded biases against certain sociodemographic groups which they need to be wary of and accordingly mitigate within the profession. In particular, because little research is available on wellbeing practices within the legal industry, the study offers practical information on the influence of psychological resources on positive coping behaviour and theory for reference by other researchers. The research outcomes are expected to provide a deeper understanding of the relationships between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour, as well as the interaction effects between psychological capital and the sociodemographic variables in predicting positive coping behaviour. This level of information may enlighten better training interventions and employee support practices within the profession. The researcher hopes that the outcomes, conclusions and recommendations of this study will be regarded in a constructive light and ultimately contribute to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in the legal profession and beyond.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

This section discusses the research inferences, which are constructed on both the literature review and the empirical study, in line with the research aims outlined in Chapter 1.

6.2.1 Conclusions relating to the literature review

The general aim of this research was to conceptualise wellbeing within the legal industry and to explore the elements, nature and theoretical relationship of psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour. Furthermore, the research aimed to outline the implications of these relationship dynamics in the context of employee wellness in the legal profession. Below, the conclusions concerning to the relationship dynamics between the variables will be discussed by referencing each of the specific literature research aims of the study.

6.2.1.1 Research aim 1

- To conceptualise wellbeing in the legal profession context and the constructs of the research literature, namely psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour.

The first research aim was achieved in Chapter 2. Based on the literature review, the following conclusions were drawn about wellbeing in the legal profession:

- (a) Wellbeing in the legal profession is complex and challenging
 - Attorneys display higher than average rates of depression and anxiety than the general population (Krill et al., 2018).
 - The profession presents the highest rate of suicide (Krill, 2018; Latham, 2011).
 - Up to 20% of attorneys suffer from alcoholism and substance abuse. The rate of addiction amid attorneys is 2.5 to 3.5 times higher than the American average, with attorneys under the age of 30 most at risk (Krill et al., 2016).
- (b) The nature of the profession challenges an attorney's sense of wellbeing
 - The profession is troubled with challenging circumstances such as long hours (Thornton, 2014; Tsai et al., 2009) and demanding clients (Seligman et al., 2001). However, as it is a high-achieving profession, it is considered a weakness to show any symptoms of stress (Rottenberg, 2012)
 - Among attorneys, wellbeing is diminished by feelings of incompetence, lack of autonomy, high job demand and workload (Krause & Chong, 2019).

- Success is measured by the number of billable hours and, as a result, work–life balance and general wellbeing practices are not easily attained in a legal position (Thornton, 2014).
- The legal profession is considered to be a detached and cold environment. This background, paired with the long working hours in such a hostile setting, creates feelings of discontent for legal professionals (Hardy, 2008).

Based on the literature review findings it was apparent that the legal profession faces many wellbeing challenges and that wellbeing interventions are much needed and overdue. If human resource professionals and industrial psychologists could fully comprehend and understand the elements that lead to positive coping behaviour and wellbeing, namely, psychological capital, emotional intelligence and sociodemographic variables, they would be better prepared to implement policies, develop strategies and implement interventions that meet the needs of a practising attorney.

6.2.1.2 Research aim 2

- To explore the implications of the theoretical relationship dynamics between psychological capital constructs, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour on attorney wellbeing initiatives.

The second aim was achieved in Chapter 3 and the following inferences were made:

- (a) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between psychological capital and emotional intelligence
 - The literature review demonstrated a clear positive relationship between emotional intelligence and the psychological capital constructs of hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism (Armstrong et al., 2011; Augusto-Lando et al., 2011; Batool et al., 2014; Matthews et al., 2002; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014; Saricam et al., 2015). Additionally, the research material was able to prove a positive link between wellbeing and psychological capital (Culbertson et al., 2010; Datu & Valdez, 2016), as well as wellbeing and emotional intelligence (Sanchez-Alvarez et al., 2016).
- (b) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour
 - From the literature review findings, a positive relationship between the psychological capital constructs and positive coping behaviour was evident

(Balmer et al., 2014; Carver et al., 2001; Dorsett et al., 2017; Hatchett & Park, 2004; Piergiovanni & Depaula, 2018; Scheenen et al., 2017).

- (c) Conclusions relating to the theoretical relationship between emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour and the theoretical mediating role played by emotional intelligence in the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour
- The literature study revealed a direct and indirect relationship between emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour, as well as supporting evidence for the mediating role of emotional intelligence for some of the psychological capital constructs (Fabio et al., 2018).
- (d) Conclusions on the theoretical moderating role played by the sociodemographic variables in the relationship between the research variables
- Individuals from different sociodemographic backgrounds (i.e. age, gender, race, tenure and job level) may vary significantly in their ability to nurture and develop the necessary positive coping behaviours to achieve a sense of wellbeing. Likewise, these differences may have an impact on the individual's ability to maintain their psychological resources to engage in positive coping behaviours and ultimately develop a sense of wellbeing.

6.2.1.3 Research aim 3

- To establish the implications of the relationship dynamics between the psychological capital constructs, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour for attorney wellbeing initiatives.

To be successful in the legal profession, an attorney requires a set of unfortunate traits, which have been labelled the "lawyer personality" (Krieger & Sheldon, 2014). These traits, the tough nature of the schooling received at university level, together with certain unforgiving aspects of the law practice, contribute to an attorney's distress. It comes as no surprise then, that the current mental health landscape within the legal industry is unsustainable (Buchanan et al., 2017). As the literature indicated, the nurturing and development of psychological resources traits is likely to result in positive coping behaviours which will contribute to an attorney's sense of wellbeing. The practices within the profession are flawed and outdated and it would require an enormous intervention within the industry to facilitate long-term and sustainable change. For this reason, the researcher suggests that charity starts at home: if industrial psychologists and human resource professionals could adopt the necessary soft skills strategies, policies

and interventions within their own firms, the profession could make great strides in educating and encouraging the right sort of coping mechanisms to enhance overall wellbeing.

6.2.2 Conclusions relating to the empirical study

This study had five research aims, namely:

- To assess the empirical inter-relationships between psychological capital, positive coping behaviour and emotional intelligence as the mediating variable
- To assess whether the effect of psychological capital on positive coping behaviour is mediated by an individual's level of emotional intelligence
- To assess the effect of psychological capital on positive coping behaviour, as well as the effect of emotional intelligence on positive coping behaviour, when moderated by individuals' age, gender, ethnic, tenure and job level characteristics
- To assess whether attorneys from different socio-demographic groups differ significantly with regard to psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour
- To formulate conclusions and recommendations for industrial psychologists and human resource professionals in regard to attorney wellbeing practices in the legal profession.

6.2.2.1 Conclusions on research question 1

- What are the empirical inter-relationships between psychological capital (the antecedent variable), positive coping behaviour (the dependent variable) and emotional intelligence as the mediating variable, as demonstrated in a sample of South African attorneys employed in the legal industry?

This research question aimed to test research hypothesis 1, which posited that there is a statistically positive relationship between the antecedent variable (psychological capital), the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) and positive coping behaviours (dependent variable). Based on the empirical results, the correlation analysis results indicated the positive relationship between these variables, meaning that these variables move in tandem: an increase in psychological capital capacity would result in greater levels of positive coping behaviour and the other way around. In conclusion, this means that where attorneys are displaying low level of positive coping behaviour, industrial psychologists and human resource professionals could look at emotional intelligence and psychological capital interventions in an effort to improve their positive coping capability in order to improve their sense of wellbeing.

6.2.2.2 Conclusions on research question 2

- What are the effects of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) when mediated by an individual's level of emotional intelligence (mediating variable)?

This research question aimed to provide supportive evidence for research hypothesis 2, which postulated that the effect of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is mediated by an attorney's level of emotional intelligence (mediating variable). As the literature study indicated, there is still limited empirical evidence that emotional intelligence plays a mediating role in the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour, even though the positive relationship between psychological capital constructs (Armstrong et al., 2011; Augusto-Lando et al., 2011; Batool et al., 2014; Matthews et al., 2002; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014; Saricam et al., 2015) and positive coping behaviour (Balmer et al., 2014; Carver et al., 2001; Dorsett et al., 2017; Hatchett & Park, 2004; Piergiovanni & Depaula, 2018; Scheenen et al., 2017) has been well established.

However, from the outcome of the current study it can be concluded that emotional intelligence intervenes in the relationship and acts as the middle man between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour. Consequently, the importance of emotional intelligence cannot be understated, as emotional intelligence capabilities will influence an attorney's ability to cope with work-related pressures (Martinez, 1997). For attorneys to achieve the required level of positive coping behaviour, industrial psychologists and human resource professionals need to ensure that emotional intelligence support initiatives are developed, continuously updated and implemented, as the research results suggest that a reduced level of emotional intelligence could diminish the positive link between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour.

6.2.2.3 Conclusions on research question 3

- What are the effects of the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) and the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour), when moderated by individuals' race, gender, age, tenure and job level characteristics?

This research question aimed to test research hypothesis 3, which hypothesised that the effect of (1) the antecedent variable (psychological capital) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) and (2) the mediating variable (emotional intelligence) on the dependent variable (positive coping behaviour) is significantly moderated by individuals' age, gender,

race, tenure and job level. The empirical results proved the moderating effect of socio-demographic characteristics in the research dynamics by means of mediation modelling and moderated regression analysis. As a moderator variable, the socio-demographic variables will interact with psychological capital and emotional intelligence attributes in predicting or explaining levels of positive coping behaviour.

It can be concluded that race plays an influencing role in the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour. This research outcome suggests that white participants may engage in positive coping behaviour with greater ease than their black colleagues, even when both groups are equipped with the same levels of psychological capital capabilities. In other words, where a white attorney and black attorney may both display the same high levels of hope, self-efficacy, resilience and optimism, the white attorney is more likely to engage in greater levels of positive coping behaviour and it cannot be assumed that a black attorney will display the same levels of positive coping behaviour. The reason for this is not apparent and would require investigation in future studies. However, for human resource professionals and industrial psychologists working in the industry, this implies that black attorneys may require guidance and coaching on the employment of positive coping behaviours. Furthermore, the conclusion can be drawn that attorneys' job level plays no part in the relationship between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour. This suggests that some targeted soft skills training, based on an attorney's job level, may be misdirected and that firms need to steer clear of assumptions about seniority and positive coping behaviour in the workplace. This suggests that attorneys can thrive in the workplace, regardless of their position or rank.

6.2.2.4 Conclusions on research question 4

- Do individuals from different socio-demographic groups differ significantly regarding their psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour?

This research question aimed to provide supportive evidence for research hypothesis 4, which theorised that attorneys from different age, gender, race, tenure and job level groups differ significantly regarding their psychological capital and emotional intelligence resources. This means that certain socio-demographic groups will showcase greater levels of psychosocial resources and positive coping behaviour than other groups. The empirical results partially evidenced the difference for the socio-demographic groups by way of a test for significant mean differences.

From the research outcome, it can be concluded that tenure influences the psychological capital constructs of self-efficacy and resiliency. Thus, it can be expected that tenured

attorneys have learnt the ropes of practice and are familiar of what is expected of them and their function and, as such, have developed the skills of self-efficacy and resiliency over time. Furthermore, gender and tenure have an influence on emotional intelligence constructs. The study outcome suggests that highly tenured female attorneys are likely to report better levels of positive coping behaviours (and consequently a greater sense of wellbeing) and, accordingly, law firms may need to implement targeted emotional intelligence interventions for newly appointed male attorneys, as they may be struggling with positive coping behaviours and possibly report being in a state of distress.

The research results showed that age influenced positive coping behaviour, in that older attorneys were coping better with the demands of the pandemic than their younger colleagues. These findings are supported by the literature (Carstensen et al., 2020; Klaiber et al., 2021). As young attorneys are at the highest risk for depression and other psychological disorders (Misvek et al., 2018), it can be concluded that the Covid-19 pandemic will have an adverse effect on those attorneys with pre-existing mental health conditions (Heim et al., 2019), and industrial psychologists and human resource professionals will have to take cognisance of this link while applying their wellbeing strategies during the pandemic. Additionally, tenure also appeared to have a significant impact on positive coping behaviour and it can be concluded that tenure may hold the key to positive coping behaviours in the profession. Herein, conversely, potentially also lies the main culprit in the professions' battle towards positive coping behaviour: South African attorney's average tenure is approximately two years (Business Tech, 2020). Consequently, human resource professionals and industrial psychologists in the industry will need to endeavour to understand the reasons for attorneys leaving their positions and revisit their retention strategies in an effort to combat this high turnover statistic. This also highlights the importance of recruitment practices and the person–job match: hiring the right person at the right time for the right team and position may result in a long-term appointment who is likely to display healthy and positive coping behaviours, which will result in a greater sense of wellbeing.

6.3 LIMITATIONS

The limitations of the literature review and the empirical study are discussed below.

6.3.1 Limitations of the literature review

The exploratory research into the relationship between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour within South Africa's legal industry was limited by the following features:

- Many different kinds of resources constitute psychological resources, however this study only explored the variables of psychological capital (i.e. hope, self-efficacy, resiliency and optimism) and emotional intelligence. Consequently, this study was unable to deliver a complete overview of the psychosocial resources which may potentially influence positive coping behaviour and wellbeing practices.
- Although numerous research studies have focused on psychological resource variables and the effect of socio-demographic variables, research specific to the South African legal profession is sparse.
- Limited research was available on positive coping behaviour and its constructs. To this extent, the researcher had to base the majority of the literature background on the work done on one prior study.
- The research was conducted within the context of employee wellbeing and, consequently, the perspective, findings and interpretations of the study were made within the confines of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

6.3.2 Limitations of the empirical study

The results of the empirical study could be limited by the following:

- All the measuring instruments employed in this study (i.e. the PCQ, AES and PCBI) are self-report questionnaires, which involve the perspectives and experiences of the participants. As a result, these self-report questionnaires may have prejudiced the validity of the research outcome.
- The research sample was drawn from the South African legal industry only, which means that the research outcome has limited generalisability to other occupations or countries.
- Although the sample size (N = 144) was adequate to investigate the effects of the socio-demographic groups on the psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour variables within the legal industry, a larger and more representative sample of the different socio-demographic groups could have resulted in more meaningful comparisons and evaluation. The small sample size of the present study also limits the generalisability to the total population.
- The sample involved mainly young, female participants, which limited the generalisability of the results.

- Psychological resources were limited to psychological capital and emotional intelligence; if other variables had been included, the research results might have been different.
- For socio-demographic variables, the study only included age, gender, race, tenure and job level. In this regard the options were vast and different socio-demographic variables might have resulted in different research outcomes.
- The study was conducted by way of convenience sampling, which could mean the likelihood of biased results and of under- or over-representation of the population. As a consequence, the generalisability of the research findings is limited.
- The mediation analysis was only used for explanatory purposes and thus no cause–effect relations could be established. Longitudinal studies would be needed in larger samples to establish the cause–effect relationship.

Despite these limitations, the study was able to examine the effect of psychological resources on positive coping behaviour within the legal industry. Although the research was exploratory in nature, the results of this study may be considered as a first step in the development of wellbeing research within the South African legal industry.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

In light of the research findings, conclusions and limitations, the following recommendations for organisational psychology and further research in the field are discussed.

6.4.1 Recommendations for practice

In examining the relationship between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour, the research results demonstrated some significant relationship dynamics. The outcome of the study may contribute to the development and improvement of the following individual and organisational wellbeing interventions:

- Organisations need to develop and appreciation and an understanding of the predictive influence of socio-demographic groups (Akhtar & Kroener-Herwig, 2018; Carstensen et al., 2000; Maggiori et al., 2013) and psychological resources (Balmer et al., 2014; Carver et al., 2001; Datu & Valdez, 2016; Dorsett et al., 2017; Hatchett & Park, 2004; Krok, 2015; Piergiovanni & Depaula, 2018; Sanchez-Alvarez et al., 2016; Scheenen et al., 2017) on positive coping behaviour and wellbeing. Human resource professionals and industrial psychologists need to consider this insight, as it may prove a valuable consideration for employee development and personnel

selection purposes. From the research results, one is likely to find the greatest display of positive coping behaviours among white attorneys with high tenure. These results suggest that industrial psychologists and human resource professionals would need to develop group-specific interventions to strengthen the coping profile of the legal profession, particularly for new and black attorneys. Additionally, while the Covid-19 pandemic is in play, young attorneys will need to be addressed, as the research results showed that the older attorneys were coping better with the pandemic-specific challenges than their younger counterparts.

- The present study outcome indicates that industrial psychologists and human resource professionals will need to formally address optimism intervention measures for young attorneys, male and female attorneys, black and white attorneys and attorneys with low tenure, as these groups all scored low on the construct. These interventions will aid wellbeing in the workplace, as optimism is linked to positive coping behaviour (Carver et al., 2001; Di Fabio et al., 2018; Hatchett & Park, 2004)
- Industrial psychologists and human resource professionals need to be aware of their organisations' biases and assumptions with regard to socio-demographic groups and address these as they occur. For example, the research results in this study demonstrated that job level had no influence on any of the variables, including positive coping behaviour, an outcome supported by previous research (Rao & Chandraiah, 2012). Often, organisations wrongly believe that seniority brings about better coping mechanisms by virtue of the role and the dynamics and considerations which were brought about at the time of the promotion. However, the results suggest that even the most senior incumbent can engage in poor and unhealthy coping behaviours. These results also suggest that senior individuals should not be overlooked during the development and implementation of positive coping behaviour interventions.
- For existing employees, organisations need to appreciate the value of 360° appraisal and feedback methods. These methods are particularly helpful in identifying where employees are lacking or struggling with some elements of their psychological resource capabilities (including emotional intelligence), which could prompt the organisation's human resource professional or industrial psychologist to engage in the necessary interventions, as these elements can be developed, coached and trained.
- The study outcome proved the predictive influence of an employee's psychological resources on positive coping behaviour and wellbeing, as supported by the literature (Culbertson et al., 2010; Datu & Valdez, 2016; Sanchez-Alvarez et al., 2016).

Consequently, these findings suggest the need for organisations to employ psychometric assessments during the personnel selection process to test for psychological resource capacities. However, organisations need to do so in accordance with the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 and avoid bias during the selection process.

- As psychological resources and positive coping behaviour work in tandem (Culbertson et al., 2010; Datu & Valdez, 2016; Sanchez-Alvarez et al., 2016), human resource professionals and industrial psychologists need to encourage and enforce regular conversations between line managers and their subordinates. Should an employee point out that they are struggling, the organisation should set in motion the necessary psychological resource interventions in an effort to assist the employee. During the Covid-19 pandemic, this approach is of particular importance, as it has been a cause of great stress and anxiety for many individuals. For this purpose, Luthans et al. (2006) developed the PsyCap Intervention training model (PCI) for the workplace. The aim of this intervention is to grow an individual's levels of hope, self-efficacy, resiliency and optimism overall, but also in isolation. This existing resource could be utilised by organisations to assist their employees in their wellbeing endeavours.

6.4.2 Recommendations for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology

Based on the research outcomes, the following recommendations can be made for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology:

- The literature review for the current study produced a valuable basis for investigating the interrelationships between psychological capital, emotional intelligence, positive coping behaviour and the influence of the socio-demographic elements on these variables for the legal profession. In support, the empirical study confirmed that these interrelationships and research outcomes could be used as a framework for Industrial and Organisational Psychology in future.
- The study established a positive relationship between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour, which can be included as a wellbeing construct, as the link was well recognised in the literature review (Balmer et al., 2014; Carver et al., 2001; Datu & Valdez, 2016; Dorsett et al., 2017; Hatchett & Park, 2004; Krok, 2015; Piergiovanni & Depaula, 2018; Sanchez-Alvarez et al., 2016; Scheenen et al., 2017). Consequently, industrial psychologists and human resource professionals could employ the appropriate interventions to increase wellbeing among employees in the workplace.

- The research highlighted the impact of socio-demographic factors (age, gender, race, tenure and job level) on psychological resources, positive coping behaviour and wellbeing as a whole. These findings indicate that an organisation's wellbeing strategies will not be successful if a one-size-fits-all approach is applied to its diverse and multifaceted workforce. Industrial psychologists and human resource professionals need to be cognisant of the various socio-demographic considerations during their efforts to create a happy and healthy working environment.

6.4.3 Recommendations for future research

The researcher can make the following recommendations for future research:

- This study concentrated on the relationship between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour within the legal profession specifically. Future research can broaden the scope to include other occupational categories to obtain more insights into the relationship between these variables.
- The moderation effect of socio-demographic groups in this study was limited to age, gender, race, tenure and job level. Future research should take account of more sociodemographic variables and their influence on the relationship between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour.
- The study utilised a cross-sectional research methodology for explanation purposes. Future research could include longitudinal studies to gain greater insights into the interaction between variables and to establish the true causal effects of the mediation analysis.
- This study was conducted during the Covid-19 pandemic, which may have had an unconscious effect on the participants' state of mind at the time of completing the questionnaire. Future research may want to explore the relationship dynamics between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour when the world is in a post-pandemic state.
- The research sample was small and consisted mainly of a young, female population. Future research may want to draw on larger heterogeneous samples to increase the generalisability of the study.
- This research paper utilised the PCQ, AES and PCBI scales only to measure psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour respectively. Future research should consider using other scales for greater insight into the relationship between these variables.
- One of the research outcomes indicated that race had an impact on the relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour. In particular, white

participants utilised greater levels of positive coping behaviours than their black counterparts, even when both groups displayed high levels of psychological capital. As the reason for this result is not apparent, future research could explore these dynamics in greater detail.

6.5 EVALUATION OF THE STUDY

This study makes a contribution to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology on a theoretical, empirical and a practical level.

6.5.1 Contribution to theory

On a theoretical level, the study offers a better understanding of the constructs of psychological capital (embodied by hope, self-efficacy, resiliency and optimism), emotional intelligence (represented by perception of emotion, management of own emotions, management of the emotion of others and utilisation of emotion) and their effect on an individual's positive coping behaviour (embodied by inventive coping, engaging coping, intentional coping and influential coping). The research pointed to certain significant relationships and created awareness that legal professionals possess different levels of psychological resources and positive coping behaviour, which are all in turn influenced by socio-demographic factors, ultimately having an impact on their sense of wellbeing.

From a South African perspective, the literature review on the psychological resources and coping behaviour of legal professionals, and the challenges they face within the industry, assisted in obtaining a greater understanding of wellbeing within this local industry specifically, where little has been documented to date. The study outcome will also contribute to the body of knowledge relating to the psychological resources involved in engaging in positive coping behaviours which may increase an individual's wellbeing in the workplace.

The research results also relate to Hobfoll's (1989) conservation of resources theory. The findings propose that, during times of distress when the psychological resources of attorneys are low, the attorney is likely to engage in unhealthy coping behaviours. An attorney will, however, in an effort to attain wellbeing, attempt to improve (or gain) on their psychological resources. Resource losses will result in further unhealthy coping behaviours, whereas resource gains will result in positive coping behaviours and, as a result, a sense of wellbeing. This theory highlights the importance of industrial psychologists and human resource professionals guiding and supporting attorneys with the relevant psychological resource interventions, as this could positively influence their sense of career wellbeing.

6.5.2 Contribution to research

From an empirical perspective, the study brought to light the mediating effect of emotional intelligence on the positive relationship between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour. Furthermore, it revealed the (moderating) influence of the socio-demographic factors on psychological capital, emotional intelligence and positive coping behaviour. Prior to this study, no research had been conducted on the predictive value of psychological resources (psychological capital and emotional intelligence), positive coping behaviour and the effect of socio-demographic variables within South Africa's legal industry. Given the country's diverse workforce, the effect of the demographic elements (such as race and tenure) may prove a valuable consideration in the future design and development of wellbeing strategies for South African industrial psychologists and human resource professionals in particular.

The research revealed tenure to be the most influential demography, presenting influence on emotional intelligence, positive coping behaviour and psychological capital constructs. This finding highlights the degree of caution and care industrial psychologists and human resource professionals need to exercise in their selection processes (to select the right person for the right job in an effort to achieve longevity in the role). Furthermore, industrial psychologists and human resource professionals will need to apply this information in the development of organisations' wellbeing strategies and interventions for existing employees.

Furthermore, the research was conducted during the Covid-19 pandemic, the impact of which may only be evident in years to come. The findings in this study may assist with the development and discussions in future papers on the psychological consequences of the pandemic on professionals in the workplace. In conclusion, the empirical study findings were original in terms of the study outcome and they contribute to the current literature on the predictive value of psychological resources on positive coping behaviour. The empirically tested interrelationships could be beneficial in enhancing an organisation's wellbeing.

6.5.3 Contribution to practice

Within the South African context and given the challenges within the legal industry, an increasingly diverse workforce puts pressure on industrial psychologists and human resource professionals to develop bespoke wellbeing initiatives to address the unique requirements of legal professionals. The research findings suggest that high and healthy levels of psychological resources (psychological capital and emotional intelligence) result in the use of positive coping behaviours. However, these variables work in tandem and, in adverse conditions, a reduction in the use of psychological resources will result in an attorney displaying fewer positive coping behaviours and likely finding themselves distressed.

The research results pointed to low optimism scores among the participants. Given the nature of the role and the fact that a level of pessimism is required for success in the profession (Daicoff, 2004), the results were unsurprising. However, low optimism levels do potentially signify low coping flexibility, and mental health and wellbeing concerns (Reed, 2016). Furthermore, this outcome cannot be ignored, as optimism was found by Scheier et al. (1986) to be a determinant factor of positive coping behaviour.

The interaction between the socio-demographic elements (age, gender, race, tenure and job level), psychological resources and positive coping behaviour presented interesting results. In particular, job level showed no effect on any of the psychological resources or positive coping behaviour variables, suggesting that it had little influence on an attorney's sense of wellbeing in this context. However, job tenure had the opposite effect and displayed influence on most of the psychological resource and positive coping behaviour constructs. Practically, this outcome suggests that although a longstanding attorney may employ positive coping behaviours in the face of adversity, one may not assume that this is as a result of his position or seniority within the firm. This is an important distinction, given that the legal profession has a set and well-defined career path.

Overall, industrial psychologists and human resource professionals need to take cognisance of the influence of socio-demographic variables to develop valuable and tailored wellbeing interventions, and perhaps more importantly, to avoid prejudices against certain sociodemographic groups. In summary, the study findings revealed the range of psychological resources utilised by attorneys in practice and how this relates to their positive coping behaviours, ultimately influencing their sense of wellbeing. The study hopes to contribute to the body of knowledge on the interaction between psychological resources and positive coping behaviour, which may guide future employee wellness initiatives.

6.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the outcomes of the study were integrated, which enabled the researcher to draw certain conclusions from the study relating to the research aims for both the literature review and the empirical study. Furthermore, the limitations of the research concerning the literature review and the empirical study were also deliberated. The researcher was able to offer recommendations for future research concerning the relationship dynamics between psychological capital and positive coping behaviour, the mediating effect of emotional intelligence and the moderating effects of the sociodemographic variables on this relationship. The chapter concluded by critically evaluating the study and research outcomes and their

theoretical, empirical and practical contribution to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

Accordingly, the following research aim was achieved in Chapter 6:

- Research aim 5: To formulate conclusions and recommendations for industrial psychologists and human resource professionals in regard to attorney wellbeing practices in the legal profession.

This concludes the research project.

REFERENCES

- Agler, R., & De Boeck, P. (2017). On the interpretation and use of mediation: Multiple perspectives on mediation analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology, 8*, 1984. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.01984>
- Aiken, L. S., West, S. G., & Reno, R. R. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Sage.
- Akhtar, M., & Kroener-Herwig, B. (2019). Coping styles and socio-demographic variables as predictors of psychological wellbeing among international students belonging to different cultures. *Current Psychology, 38*(3), 618–626. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-017-9635-3>
- Alexandrova, A. (2005). Subjective wellbeing and Kahneman's 'objective happiness'. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 6*(3), 301–324. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-005-7694-x>
- Ali, S. A. (2012). Sample size calculation and sampling techniques. *Journal of the Pakistan Medical Association, 62*(6), p. 624–626.
- Ali, Z., & Bhaskar, S. B. (2016). Basic statistical tools in research and data analysis. *Indian Journal of Anaesthesia, 60*(9), 662. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0019-5049.190623>
- Alkire, S. (2005). Why the capability approach?. *Journal of human development, 6*(1), 115-135. <https://doi.org/10.1080/146498805200034275>
- American Bar Association. (2017, October). *How emotional intelligence makes you a better lawyer*. <https://www.americanbar.org/news/abanews/publications/youraba/2017/october-2017/how-successful-lawyers-use-emotional-intelligence-to-their-advan/>
- Anand, S., & Sen, A. (1994). *Human Development Index: Methodology and measurement*. Human Development Occasional Papers (1992–2007).
- Anjum, G. (2020). Emotional burden in the times of COVID-19. In *Short Notes on the Economy During the COVID-19 Crisis* (pp. 16–21). Institute of Business Administration.
- Antoni, M. H., Lehman, J. M., Kilbourn, K. M., Boyers, A. E., Culver, J. L., Alferi, S. M., Yount, S. E., McGregor, B. A., Arena, P. L., Harris, S. D., Carver, C. S., & Price, A. A. (2001). Cognitive-behavioral stress management intervention decreases the prevalence of depression and enhances benefit finding among women under

- treatment for early-stage breast cancer. *Health Psychology*, 20(1), 20.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-6133.20.1.20>
- Anzalone, F. M. (2018). Lawyer and law student wellbeing. *American Association of Law Libraries Spectrum*, 22(4), 44–46.
- Augusto-Landa, J. M., Pulido-Martos, M., & Lopez-Zafra, E. (2011). Does perceived emotional intelligence and optimism/pessimism predict psychological well-being?. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 12(3), 463-474.
- Austin, D. S. (2015). Drink like a lawyer: The neuroscience of substance use and its impact on cognitive wellness. *Nevada Law Journal*, 15, 826–881.
- Austin, P., & Steyerberg, E. (2015). The number of subjects per variable required in linear regression analyses. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 68(6), 627–636.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2014.12.014>
- Aristotle. (2009). *The Nicomachean Ethics*. Oxford University Press.
- Armstrong, A. R., Galligan, R. F., & Critchley, C. R. (2011). Emotional intelligence and psychological resilience to negative life events. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51(3), 331–336. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2011.03.025>
- Arslan, G., Yildirim, M., Tanhan, A., Buluş, M., & Allen, K. A. (2020). Coronavirus stress, optimism-pessimism, psychological inflexibility, and psychological health: Psychometric properties of the coronavirus stress measure. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction*, 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11469-020-00337-6>
- Au, A., Shardlow, S. M., Teng, Y. U. E., Tsien, T., & Chan, C. (2013). Coping strategies and social support-seeking behaviour among Chinese caring for older people with dementia. *Ageing & Society*, 33(8), 1422–1441.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0144686X12000724>
- Augusto-Landa, J. M., Pulido-Martos, M., & Lopez-Zafra, E. (2011). Does perceived emotional intelligence and optimism/pessimism predict psychological wellbeing? *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 12(3), 463–474. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-010-9209-7>
- Avey, J. B. (2014). The left side of psychological capital: New evidence on the antecedents of PsyCap. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 21(2), 141–149.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051813515516>
- Avey, J. B., Reichard, R. J., Luthans, F., & Mhatre, K. H. (2011). Meta-analysis of the impact of positive psychological capital on employee attitudes, behaviors, and performance.

Human Resource Development Quarterly, 22(2), 127–152.

<https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.20070>

Avey, J. B., Wernsing, T. S., & Luthans, F. (2008). Can positive employees help positive organizational change? Impact of psychological capital and emotions on relevant attitudes and behaviors. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 44(1), 48–70. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0021886307311470>

Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2006). *The high impact leader: Authentic, resilient leadership that gets results and sustains growth*. McGraw-Hill.

Aymans, S. C., Kortsch, T., & Kauffeld, S. (2020). Gender and career optimism: The effects of gender-specific perceptions of lecturer support, career barriers and self-efficacy on career optimism. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 74(3), 273–289. <https://doi.org/10.1111/hequ.12238>

Balmer, G. M., Pooley, J. A., & Cohen, L. (2014). Psychological resilience of Western Australian police officers: Relationship between resilience, coping style, psychological functioning and demographics. *Police Practice and Research*, 15(4), 270–282. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15614263.2013.845938>

Baltes, P. B. (1997). On the incomplete architecture of human ontogeny: Selection, optimization, and compensation as foundation of developmental theory. *American Psychologist*, 52(4), 366. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.52.4.366>

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. Freeman.

Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 1–26. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.1>

Baron, P. (2015). Althusser's mirror: Lawyer distress and the process of interpellation. *Griffith Law Review*, 24(2), 157–180. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10383441.2015.1028125>

Barrow, M. (2018, February 7). Facing the taboo of mental health in the legal profession. *Raconteur*. <https://www.raconteur.net/risk-management/facing-taboo-mental-health-legal-profession>

Bartlett, S. (2015). *The relationship between emotional intelligence, work engagement, creativity and demographic variables* (Unpublished Master dissertation). University of South Africa, Pretoria.

- Batool, M., Niazi, S., & Ghayas, S. (2014). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of sense of humor and hope among adults. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, 40*(2), 270.
- Beck, C. J. A., Sales, B. D., & Benjamin, C. A. H. (1995). Lawyer distress: Alcohol-related problems and other psychological concerns among a sample of practicing lawyers. *Journal of Law and Health, 10*, 1–94.
- Beldoch, M. (1964). Sensitivity to expression of emotional meaning in three modes of communication, in J. R. Davitz et al. (Eds.), *The communication of emotional meaning* (pp. 31–42). McGraw-Hill.
- Ben-Shahar, T. (2007). *Happier: Learn the secrets to daily joy and lasting fulfillment* (Vol. 1). McGraw-Hill.
- Bergin, A. J., & Jimmieson, N. L. (2014). Australian lawyer wellbeing: Workplace demands, resources and the impact of time-billing targets. *Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 21*(3), 427–441. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13218719.2013.822783>
- Bergman, M. (2016). Positivism. In *The International Encyclopedia of Communication Theory and Philosophy* (pp. 1–5). Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118766804.wbiect248>
- Bernstein, C., & Trimm, L. (2016). The impact of workplace bullying on individual wellbeing: The moderating role of coping. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 14*(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v14i1.792>
- Betz, N. E., & Hackett, G. (1997). Applications of self-efficacy theory to the career assessment of women. *Journal of Career Assessment, 5*(4), 383–402. <https://doi.org/10.1177/106907279700500402>
- Bisel, R. S., & Adame, E. A. (2017). Post-positivist/functionalist approaches. *The International Encyclopedia of Organizational Communication, 1–22*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118955567.wbieoc168>
- Blackmon, S. K. M., Coyle, L. D., Davenport, S., Owens, A. C., & Sparrow, C. (2016). Linking racial-ethnic socialization to culture and race-specific coping among African American college students. *Journal of Black Psychology, 42*(6), 549–576. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798415617865>
- Blanchard-Fields, F., & Coats, A. H. (2008). The experience of anger and sadness in everyday problems impacts age differences in emotion regulation. *Developmental Psychology, 44*(6), 1547. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013915>

- Blau, F. D., & Kahn, L. M. (2017). The gender wage gap: Extent, trends, and explanations. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 55(3), 789–865. <https://doi.org/10.1257/jel.20160995>
- Blue, A. (2020, July 27). *Do you have 'pandemic fatigue'? How Covid-19 is sparking a mental health crisis*. World Economic Forum. <https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2020/07/pandemic-fatigue-Covid19-coronavirus-mental-health-crisis/>
- Blum, M. L., & Naylor, J. C. (1968). *Industrial psychology: Its theoretical and social foundations*. Harper and Row.
- Böhnke, P., & Kohler, U. (2008). *Wellbeing and inequality, research unit: Inequality and social integration*. Social Science Research Center Berlin (WZB) Discussion Papers, No. SP I, 201.
- Bonanno, G. A., Pat-Horenczyk, R., & Noll, J. (2011). Coping flexibility and trauma: The perceived ability to cope with trauma (PACT) scale. *Psychological Trauma: Theory, Research, Practice, and Policy*, 3, 117–129. <https://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0020921>
- Bonett, D. G., & Wright, T. A. (2000). Sample size requirements for Pearson, Kendall, and Spearman correlations. *Psychometrika*, 65, 23–28.
- Boyatzis, R. (2007). *The creation of the emotional and social competency inventory (ESCI)*. Hay Group.
- Brackett, M., Mayer, J., & Warner, R. (2004). Emotional intelligence and its relation to everyday behaviour. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(6), 1387–1402. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(03\)00236-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00236-8)
- Bradberry, T. R., & Su, L. D. (2006). Ability-versus skill-based assessment of emotional intelligence. *Psicothema*, 18(Suplemento), 59–66.
- Brafford, A. M. (2014). *Building the positive law firm: The legal profession at its best*. (Master's thesis). University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, United States.
- Brafford, A. M. (2018). *Wellbeing toolkit for lawyers and legal employers*. American Bar Association. https://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/administrative/lawyer_assistance/lsc_olap_wellbeing_toolkit_for_lawyers_legal_employers
- Brink, H., Van der Walt, C., & Van Rensburg, G. (2012). *Fundamentals of research methodology for health care professionals* (3rd ed.). Juta & Company.

- Britt, T. W., Crane, M., Hodson, S. E., & Adler, A. B. (2015). Effective and ineffective coping strategies in a low-autonomy work environment. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0039898>
- Brody, D. J., Pratt, L. A., & Hughes, J. P. (2018). *Prevalence of depression among adults aged 20 and over: United States, 2013–2016* (pp. 1–8). US Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics.
- Brown, T. A. (2015). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research* (2nd ed.). Guilford Publications.
- Brunner, M., & SÜß, H. M. (2005). Analyzing the reliability of multidimensional measures: An example from intelligence research. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *65*(2), 227–240. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164404268669>
- Buchanan, B., Coyle, J., Brafford, A., Campbell, D., Camson, J., Gruber, C., Harrell, T., Jaffe, D., Kepler, T., Krill, P., Lemons, D., Myers, S., Newbold, C., Reardon, J., Shaheed, D., Shely, L., Slease, W., & White, J. (2017). *The path to lawyer wellbeing: Practical recommendations for positive change*. The Report of the National Task Force on Lawyer Wellbeing, Part II, Recommendations for Law Schools. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3021218>
- Business Tech. (2018, July 29). *The 2 things crushing South Africa's wellbeing*. <https://businesstech.co.za/news/lifestyle/260631/the-2-things-crushing-south-africas-wellbeing/>
- Business Tech (2021, March 15). *This is how much money lawyers earn in South Africa*. <https://businesstech.co.za/news/business/381627/this-is-how-much-money-lawyers-earn-in-south-africa/>
- Cabello, R., Sorrel, M. A., Fernández-Pinto, I., Extremera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2016). Age and gender differences in ability emotional intelligence in adults: A cross-sectional study. *Developmental Psychology*, *52*(9), 1486. <https://doi.org/10.1037/dev0000191>
- Capasso, R., Zurlo, M. C., & Smith, A. P. (2018). Ethnicity, work-related stress and subjective reports of health by migrant workers: A multi-dimensional model. *Ethnicity & Health*, *23*(2), 174–193. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-017-0207-1>
- Carney, R. M., Freedland, K. E., Sheline, Y. I., & Weiss, E. S. (1997). Depression and coronary heart disease: A review for cardiologists. *Clinical Cardiology*, *20*(3), 196–200. <https://doi.org/10.1002/clc.4960200304>

- Carstensen, L. L., Pasupathi, M., Mayr, U., & Nesselroade, J. R. (2000). Emotional experience in everyday life across the adult life span. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 79(4), 644–655. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.79.4.644>
- Carstensen, L. L., Shavit, Y. Z., & Barnes, J. T. (2020). Age advantages in emotional experience persist even under threat from the Covid-19 pandemic. *Psychological Science*, 31(11), 1374–1385. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797620967261>
- Caruso, D. R., Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (2002). Relation of an ability measure of emotional intelligence to personality. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 79(2), 306–20.
- Carver, C., Scheier, M., Miller, C., & Fulford, D. (2009). Optimism. In S. Lopez & C. R. Snyder (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of positive psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 303–312). Oxford University Press.
- Carver, C. S., & Connor-Smith, J. (2010). Personality and coping. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 61, 679–704. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.093008.100352>
- Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (2001). *On the self-regulation of behavior*. Cambridge University Press.
- Carver, C. S., Pozo, C., Harris, S. D., Noriega, V., Scheier, M. F., Robinson, D. S., Ketcham, A. S., Moffat, F. L., & Clark, K. C. (1999). How coping mediates the effect of optimism on distress: a study of women with early stage breast cancer. In R. M. Suinn & G. R. VandenBos (Eds.), *Cancer patients and their families: Readings on disease course, coping, and psychological interventions* (pp. 97–127). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10338-005>
- Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K. (1989). Assessing coping strategies: A theoretically based approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56, 267–283. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.56.2.267>
- Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2013). Can you really improve your emotional intelligence. *Harvard Business Review*, 91, 37–41.
- Chan, J., Poynton, S., & Bruce, J. (2014). Lawyering stress and work culture: An Australian study. *University of New South Wales Law Journal*, 37, 1062.
- Chang, S. J., Van Witteloostuijn, A., & Eden, L. (2020). Common method variance in international business research. *Research Methods in International Business*, 385–398. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-22113-3_2

- Charles, S. T., Leger, K. A., & Urban, E. J. (2016). Emotional experience and health: What we know, and where to go from here. In A. D. Ong, & C. E. Löckenhoff (Eds.), *Emotion, aging, and health* (pp. 185–204). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/14857-010>
- Chen, S., Westman, M., & Hobfoll, S. E. (2015). The commerce and crossover of resources: Resource conservation in the service of resilience. *Stress and Health, 31*(2), 95–105. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2574>
- Chen, Y., Peng, Y., & Fang, P. (2016). Emotional intelligence mediates the relationship between age and subjective wellbeing. *The International Journal of Aging & Human Development, 83*(2), 91–107. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0091415016648705>
- Chen, X., Yuan, H., Zheng, T., Chang, Y., & Luo, Y. (2018). Females are more sensitive to opponent's emotional feedback: Evidence from event-related potentials. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience, 12*, 275. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2018.00275>
- Cherniss, C. (2000, April). Emotional intelligence: What it is and why it matters. In *Annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, LA* (Vol. 15).
- Cherniss, C. (2010). Emotional Intelligence: Toward clarification of a concept. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 3*, 110–126
- Cho, E., & Kim, S. (2015). Cronbach's coefficient alpha: Well-known but poorly understood. *Organizational Research Methods, 18*(2), 207–230. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428114555994>
- Choi, Y., & Lee, D. (2014). Psychological capital, big five traits, and employee outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 29*(2), 122–140. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-06-2012-0193>
- Christin, L. (2018, November 14). Meet your law firm's new director of lawyer wellbeing. *Attorney at Work*. <https://www.attorneyatwork.com/new-director-of-lawyer-wellbeing/>
- Clark, T. R. (2020, April 29). Emotional intelligence during the pandemic: 5 tips for leaders. *The Enterprise Project*. <https://enterpriseproject.com/article/2020/4/emotional-intelligence-crisis>
- Clearly, K. (2020, May 4). COVID-19: The pandemic's impact on mental health. *Spotlight*. <https://www.spotlightnsp.co.za/2020/05/04/Covid-19-the-pandemics-impact-on-mental-health/>

- Coats, A. H., & Blanchard-Fields, F. (2008). Emotion regulation in interpersonal problems: The role of cognitive-emotional complexity, emotion regulation goals, and expressivity. *Psychology and Aging, 23*, 39–51. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0882-7974.23.1.39>
- Coetzee, M. (2017). Working adults' positive coping and age: Their interaction effects on psycho-social career preoccupations. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 27*(6), 530–536. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2017.1399558>
- Coetzee, M. (2020). *Pandemic coping dimension of the Positive Coping Behavioural Inventory*. (Unpublished research report, University of South Africa).
- Coetzee, M., & Beukes, C. (2010). Employability, emotional intelligence and career preparation support satisfaction among adolescents in the school-to-work transition phase. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 20*(3), 439–446. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2010.10820396>
- Coetzee, M., & Harry, N. (2014). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of employees' career adaptability. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 84*(1), 90–97. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.09.001>
- Coetzee, M., & Schreuder, D. (2011). The relation between career anchors, emotional intelligence and employability satisfaction among workers in the service industry. *Southern African Business Review, 15*(3), 76–97.
- Coetzee, M., Marx, A. A., & Potgieter, I. L. (2017). Examining the construct validity of the positive coping behavioural inventory. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 43*(0), a1433. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v43i0.1433>
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2013). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2013). *Research methods in education*. Routledge.
- Colman, A. (2008). *A dictionary of psychology* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Compas, B. E., Connor-Smith, J. K., Saltzman, H., Harding Thomsen, A., & Wadsworth, M. E. (2001). Coping with stress during childhood and adolescence: Problems, progress and potential in theory and research. *Psychological Bulletin, 127*(1), 87–127. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0033-2909.127.1.87>
- Connor-Smith, J. K., & Flachsbart, C. (2007). Relations between personality and coping: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 93*(6), 1080. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.93.6.1080>

- Conte, J. M. (2005). A review and critique of emotional intelligence measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(4), 433–440. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.319>
- Cook, T. D., & Campbell, D. T. (1979). *Design and analysis issues for field settings*. Rand.
- Costa, D., Van, C., Abbott, P., & Krass, I. (2015). Investigating general practitioner engagement with pharmacists in home medicines review. *Journal of Interprofessional Care*, 29(5), 469–475. <https://doi.org/10.3109/13561820.2015.1012253>
- Cruwys, T., & Gunaseelan, S. (2016). “Depression is who I am”: Mental illness identity, stigma and wellbeing. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 189, 36–42. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2015.09.012>
- Culbertson, S. S., Fullagar, C. J., & Mills, M. J. (2010). Feeling good and doing great: The relationship between psychological capital and wellbeing. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 15(4), 421. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0020720>
- Dai, D. Y., & Sternberg, R. J. (Eds.). (2004). *Motivation, emotion, and cognition: Integrative perspectives on intellectual functioning and development*. Routledge.
- Daicoff, S. (1996). Lawyer, know thyself: A review of empirical research on attorney attributes bearing on professionalism. *American University Law Review*, 46, 1337.
- Daicoff, S. S. (2004). *Lawyer, know thyself: A psychological analysis of personality strengths and weaknesses*. American Psychological Association.
- Datu, J. A. D., & Valdez, J. P. M. (2016). Psychological capital predicts academic engagement and wellbeing in Filipino high school students. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 25(3), 399–405. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-015-0254-1>
- Davidson, R. J., Kabat-Zinn, J., Schumacher, J., Rosenkranz, M., Muller, D., Santorelli, S. F., Urbanowski, F., Harrington, A., Bonus, K., & Sheridan, J. F. (2003). Alterations in brain and immune function produced by mindfulness meditation. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 65(4), 564-570. <https://doi.org/10.1097/01.PSY.0000077505.67574.E3>
- Davis, T. (2019, January 2). What is wellbeing? Definition, types, and wellbeing skills. *Psychology Today*. <https://www.psychologytoday.com/za/blog/click-here-happiness/201901/what-is-wellbeing-definition-types-and-wellbeing-skills>
- Davis, S. K., & Humphrey, N. (2014). Ability versus trait emotional intelligence. *Journal of Individual Differences*. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1614-0001/a000127>
- Dawkins, S., & Martin, A. (2010). Is it all positive? A critical analysis of the current state of psychological capital research. *Australian and New Zealand Academy of Management*, 1, EJ.

- De Vibe, M., Solhaug, I., Rosenvinge, J. H., Tyssen, R., Hanley, A., & Garland, E. (2018). Six-year positive effects of a mindfulness-based intervention on mindfulness, coping and wellbeing in medical and psychology students; Results from a randomized controlled trial. *PloS One*, *13*(4). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0196053>
- De Vos, A. S., Delpont, C. S. L., Fouché, C. B., & Strydom, H. (2011). *Research at grass roots: A primer for the social science and human professions*. Van Schaik.
- De Wet. (2019, May 15). Almost half of female legal professionals in South Africa say they have been sexually harassed – and 73% have been bullied. *Business Insider*. <https://www.businessinsider.co.za/lawyers-and-advocates-are-being-bullied-and-sexually-harassed-in-south-africa-2019-5>
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). The general causality orientations scale: Self-determination in personality. *Journal of research in personality*, *19*(2), 109–134.
- Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. B. (2011). The job demands-resources model: Challenges for future research. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *37*(2), a974, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v37i2.974>
- Derksen, J., Kramer, I., & Katzko, M. (2002). Does a self-report measure for emotional intelligence assess something different than general intelligence? *Personality and Individual Differences*, *32*(1), 37–48. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(01\)00004-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(01)00004-6)
- Derryberry, D., Reed, M. A., & Pilkenton-Taylor, C. (2003). Temperament and coping: Advantages of an individual differences perspective. *Development and Psychopathology*, *15*(4), 1049–1066. [https://doi.org/10.1017.S0954579403000439](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0954579403000439)
- Desmet, P. M., & Pohlmeier, A. E. (2013). Positive design: An introduction to design for subjective wellbeing. *International Journal of Design*, *7*(3).
- Dhammika, K. S., Ahmad, F., & Sam, T. (2012). Job satisfaction, commitment and performance: Testing the goodness of measures of three employee outcomes. *South Asian Journal of Management*, *19*(2), 7–22.
- Di Fabio, A., Palazzeschi, L., Bucci, O., Guazzini, A., Burgassi, C., & Pesce, E. (2018). Personality traits and positive resources of workers for sustainable development: Is emotional intelligence a mediator for optimism and hope? *Sustainability*, *10*(10), 3422. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10103422>
- Diener, E. (1984). Subjective wellbeing. *Psychological Bulletin*. *95*(3), 542–575. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.95.3.542>

- Diener, E. (2000). Subjective wellbeing: The science of happiness and a proposal for a national index. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 34. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.34>
- Diener, E. (2013). The remarkable changes in the science of subjective wellbeing. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 8(6), 663–666. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691613507583>
- Diener, E., Oishi, S., & Lucas, R. E. (2002). Subjective wellbeing: The science of happiness and life satisfaction. In C.R. Snyder & S.J. Lopez (Ed.), *Handbook of positive psychology*. Oxford University Press.
- Diener, E., Sandvik, E., & Pavot, W. (2009a). Happiness is the frequency, not the intensity, of positive versus negative affect. In *Assessing Wellbeing* (pp. 213–231). Springer.
- Diener, E., Lucas, R., Helliwell, J. F., Schimmack, U., & Helliwell, J. (2009b). Wellbeing for public policy. Series in *Positive Psychology*.
- Disabato, D. (2016). The double standard against cross-sectional mediation. <http://www.daviddisabato.com/blog/2016/5/22/the-double-standard-against-cross-sectional-mediation>
- Ding, Y., Yang, Y., Yang, X., Zhang, T., Qiu, X., He, X., & Sui, H. (2015). The mediating role of coping style in the relationship between psychological capital and burnout among Chinese nurses. *Plos One*, 10(4), e0122128. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0122128>
- Docrat, S., Besada, D., Cleary, S., Daviaud, E., & Lund, C. (2019). Mental health system costs, resources and constraints in South Africa: A national survey. *Health Policy and Planning*, 34(9), 706–719. <https://doi.org/10.1093/heapol/czz085>
- Dodge, R., Daly, A., Huyton, J., & Sanders, L. (2012). The challenge of defining wellbeing. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 2(3), 222–235. <https://doi.org/10.5502/ijw.v2i3.4>
- Dogan, T., Totan, T., & Sapmaz, F. (2013). The role of self-esteem, psychological wellbeing, emotional self-efficacy, and affect balance on happiness: A path model. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(20), 1857–7431. <https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2013.v9n20p%25p>
- Dörnyei, Z., & Griffee, D. T. (2010). Research methods in applied linguistics. *TESOL Journal*, 1(1), 181–183. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2009.00223.x>
- Dorsett, P., Geraghty, T., Sinnott, A., & Acland, R. (2017). Hope, coping and psychosocial adjustment after spinal cord injury. *Spinal Cord Series and Cases*, 3(1), 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1038/scsandc.2017.46>

- Douglas, S., & Craig, C. (2006). On improving the conceptual foundations of international marketing research. *Journal of International Marketing*, *14*(1), 1–22.
<https://doi.org/10.1509%2Fjmk.14.1.1>
- Draper, N. R., & Smith, H. (2014). *Applied regression analysis*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Du Plessis, Y., & Barkhuizen, N. (2011). Psychological capital, a requisite for organisational performance in South Africa. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, *15*(1), 16–30. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajems.v15i1.122>
- Durrheim, K. (2010). Research design. In M. Terre Blanche, K. Durrheim, & D. Painter, (Eds.), *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences* (2nd ed., pp. 33–59). University of Cape Town Press.
- Duxbury, L., Higgins, C., Smart, R., & Stevenson, M. (2014). Mobile technology and boundary permeability. *British Journal of Management*, *25*(3), 570–588.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8551.12027>
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Guthrie, I. (1997). Coping with stress: The roles of regulation and development. In J. N. Sandier, & S. A. Wolchik, (Eds.), *Handbook of children's coping with common stressors: Linking theory, research, and intervention* (pp. 41–7). Plenum.
- Erdmann, G., & Janke, W. (2008). *Stressverarbeitungsfragebogen*. Hogrefe.
- Erikson, E. H. (1982). *The life cycle completed: A review*. WW Norton.
- Eurofound. (2015). *Job tenure in turbulent times*. Publications Office of the European Union.
https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/cros/system/files/28-2013-1-job_tenure_in_turbulent_times_0.pdf
- Field, A. (2015). *Discovering statistics using SPSS (and sex, drugs and rock-and-roll)* (5th ed.). Sage Publications.
- Figueroa, M. I., Contini, M., Lacunza, A. B., Levín, M., & Estévez, A. (2005). The coping strategies and its relation with the level of psychological wellbeing. A research with adolescents of low socioeconomic level of Tucuman (Argentina). *Anales de Psicología*. *21*, 66–72. <https://revistas.um.es/analesps/article/view/27171>
- Fink, A. (2010). *Conducting research literature reviews: From the internet to paper* (3rd ed.). Sage.
- Fischer, A. H., Kret, M. E., & Broekens, J. (2018). Gender differences in emotion perception and self-reported emotional intelligence: A test of the emotion sensitivity hypothesis. *PloS One*, *13*(1), e0190712. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0190712>

- Fish, D. (2018). *The mental-health crisis in law*. <http://lawandstyle.ca/law/cover-story-the-mental-health-crisis-in-law/>
- Flückiger, C., & Wüsten, G. (2008). *Ressourcenaktivierung: ein Manual für die Praxis*. Huber.
- Frost, J. (2019). *Regression analysis. An intuitive guide for using and interpreting linear models*. ebook.
- Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1980). An analysis of coping in a middle-aged community sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 219–239. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2136617>
- Folkman, S., & Moskowitz, J. T. (2000). Positive affect and the other side of coping. *American Psychologist*, 55(6), 647. <http://dx.doi.org.oasis.unisa.ac.za/10.1037/0003-066X.55.6.647>
- Folkman, S., & Moskowitz, J. T. (2004). Coping: Pitfalls and promise. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 55, 745–774. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.55.090902.141456>
- Forgeard, M. J. C., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2012). Seeing the glass half full: A review of the causes and consequences of optimism. *Pratiques Psychologiques*, 18(2), 107–120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.prps.2012.02.002>
- Forgeard, M. J. C., Jayawickreme, E., Kern, M., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2011). Doing the right thing: Measuring wellbeing for public policy. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 1(1), 79–106. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5502/ijw.v1i1.15>
- French, T. M. (1952). *The integration of behaviour. Vol. 1: Basic postulates*. University of Chicago Press.
- Furnes, B., & Dysvik, E. (2012). Therapeutic writing and chronic pain: Experiences of therapeutic writing in a cognitive behavioural programme for people with chronic pain. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 21(23–24), 3372–3381. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2702.2012.04268.x>
- Gardner, K. J., & Qualter, P. (2010). Concurrent and incremental validity of three trait emotional intelligence measures. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 62(1), 5–13. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00049530903312857>
- Garrosa, E., & Moreno-Jiménez, B. (2013). Burnout and active coping with emotional resilience. In *Burnout for Experts* (201–221). Springer.

- Ghaye, T. (2010). *Teaching and learning through reflective practice: A practical guide for positive action*. Routledge.
- Giberson, T. R. (2015). Industrial-organizational psychology and the practice of performance improvement. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 28(2), 7–26.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/piq.21191>
- Goldenberg, I., Matheson, K., & Mantler, J. (2006). The assessment of emotional intelligence: A comparison of performance-based and self-report methodologies. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 86(1), 33–45.
https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327752jpa8601_05
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. Bloomsbury.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (2001). An EI-based theory of performance. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace*. Jossey-Bass.
- Goleman, D. (2017). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review Classics*. Harvard Business Press.
- Goodwin, C. J., & Goodwin, K. A. (2016). *Research in psychology methods and design*. Wiley & Sons.
- Gorard, S. (2020). Handling missing data in numeric analyses. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 23(6), 651–660.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2020.1729974>
- Görgens-Ekermans, G., & Herbert, M. (2013). Psychological capital: Internal and external validity of the psychological capital questionnaire (PCQ-24) on a South African sample. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 39(2), 1–12.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i2.1131>
- Grant, S., & Langan-Fox, J. (2006). Occupational stress, coping and strain: The combined/interactive effect of the big five traits. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 41(4), 719–732. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2006.03.008>
- Gravetter, F. J., & Forzano, L. B. (2009). *Research methods for the behavioral sciences*. Cengage.
- Green, J. A., & Simon, R. A. (2019). Self-mastery: The pathway to peak performance and wellbeing in the law. *Southwestern Law Review*, 48, 207.
- Gruber, M. R., Sarigianni, C., Geiger, M., & Remus, U. (2018). "Do you plead connected?" *Understanding how lawyers deal with constant connectivity*. In *Proceedings of the*

51st Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences.

<https://doi.org/10.24251/hicss.2018.656>

- Guerra-Bustamante, J., León-del-Barco, B., Yuste-Tosina, R., López-Ramos, V. M., & Mendo-Lázaro, S. (2019). Emotional intelligence and psychological wellbeing in adolescents. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(10), 1720. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16101720>
- Gunduz, B., & Celikkaleli, O. (2009). Career self-efficacy on school counselors. *Mersin University Journal of Faculty of Education*, 5(1), 1–16.
- Hackman, J. R. (2009). The perils of positivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, 30(2), 309–319. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.587>
- Hair, J. F., Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Pearson Prentice-Hall.
- Hampel, P., & Petermann, F. (2005). Age and gender effects on coping in children and adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 34(2), 73–83. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-005-3207-9>
- Hanaysha, J. (2016). The importance of social media advertisements in enhancing brand equity: A study on fast food restaurant industry in Malaysia. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 7(2), 46.
- Hardy, W. (2008). *The unhappy lawyers*. www.willhardy.com.au.
- Harrell, F. (2015). *Regression modelling strategies: With applications to linear models, logistic and ordinal regression, and survival analysis*. Springer.
- Harzer, C., & Ruch, W. (2015). The relationships of character strengths with coping, work-related stress, and job satisfaction. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 6, 165. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2015.00165>
- Hatchett, G. T., & Park, H. L. (2004). Relationships among optimism, coping styles, psychopathology, and counselling outcome. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(8), 1755–1769. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2003.07.014>
- Hayes, A. F. (2017). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. Guilford Press.
- Hayes, A. F. (2018). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach* (2nd edition). The Guilford Press.

- Hayes, A. F., & Preacher, K. J. (2013). Conditional process modeling: Using structural equation modeling to examine contingent causal processes. In G. R. Hancock, & R. O. Mueller (coord.) *Structural equation modeling: A second course* (pp. 219–266). Information Age.
- Health Management. (2020, May 6). *COVID-19 and its impact on health and wellbeing*. <https://healthmanagement.org/c/hospital/news/Covid-19-and-its-impact-on-health-and-wellbeing>
- Heekin, M. M. (2014). Implementing psychological resilience training in law incubators. *Journal of Experiential Learning*, 1, 286.
- Heim, C. M., Entringer, S., & Buss, C. (2019). Translating basic research knowledge on the biological embedding of early-life stress into novel approaches for the developmental programming of lifelong health. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*, 105, 123–137. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psyneuen.2018.12.011>
- Hein, S. (2006). Critical review of Daniel Goleman. *Najdeno*, 18(07), 2016.
- Herman, K. C., Hickmon-Rosa, J. E., & Reinke, W. M. (2018). Empirically derived profiles of teacher stress, burnout, self-efficacy, and coping and associated student outcomes. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 20(2), 90–100. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1098300717732066>
- Ho, A. D., & Yu, C. C. (2015). Descriptive statistics for modern test score distributions: Skewness, kurtosis, discreteness, and ceiling effects. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 75(3), 365–388. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164414548576>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44(3), 513. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.44.3.513>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1991). Traumatic stress: A theory based on rapid loss of resources. *Anxiety Research*, 4(3), 187–197. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08917779108248773>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1998). *Stress, culture, and community: The psychology and philosophy of stress*. Plenum.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2001). The influence of culture, community, and the nested-self in the stress process: Advancing conservation of resources theory. *Stress: The International Journal on the Biology of Stress*, 50(3), 337–369. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1464-0597.00062>
- Hobfoll, S. E. (2002). Social and psychological resources and adaptation. *Review of General Psychology*, 6(4), 307–324. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.6.4.307>

- Hobfoll, S. E., & Schumm, J. A. (2009). Conservation of resources theory. Application to public health promotion. In R. J. DiClemente, R. A. Crosby, & M. C. Kegler (Eds.), *Emerging theories in health promotion: Practice and research* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Hobfoll, S. E., & Shirom, A. (2001). Conservation of resources theory: Applications to stress and management in the workplace. In R. T. Golembiewski (Ed.), *Handbook of organizational behavior* (2nd. ed., pp. 57–80). CRC Press.
- Hobfoll, S. E., Canetti-Nisim D., & Johnson, R. J. (2006). Exposure to terrorism, stress-related mental health symptoms, and defensive coping among Jews and Arabs in Israel. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 74*, 207–218.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-006X.74.2.207>
- Hobfoll, S. E., Stevens, N. R., & Zalta, A. K. (2015). Expanding the science of resilience: Conserving resources in the aid of adaptation. *Psychological Inquiry, 26*(2), 174–180.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/1047840X.2015.1002377>
- Hobfoll, S. E., Dunahoo, C. A., & Monnier, J. (1995). Conservation of resources and traumatic stress. In *Traumatic stress: From theory to practice* (pp. 29–47). Plenum Press. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-1076-9_2
- Hodzic, S., Scharfen, J., Ripoll, P., Holling, H., & Zenasni, F. (2018). How efficient are emotional intelligence trainings: A meta-analysis. *Emotion Review, 10*(2), 138–148.
<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1754073917708613>
- Hofmeyr, J., & Govender, R. (2015). *National reconciliation, race relations and social inclusion* (SARB 2015 Briefing Paper 1). Institute for Justice and Reconciliation.
- Holmgreen, L., Tirone, V., Gerhart, J., & Hobfoll, S. E. (2017). Conservation of resources theory. In C.L. Cooper, & J. C. Quick (Eds), *The handbook of stress and health: A guide to research and practice* (pp. 443–457). Wiley.
- Horstmann, V., Haak, M., Tomsone, S., Iwarsson, S., & Gräsbeck, A. (2012). Life satisfaction in older women in Latvia and Sweden – Relations to standard of living, aspects of health and coping behaviour. *Journal of Cross-cultural Gerontology, 27*(4), 391–407. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10823-012-9176-z>
- Houghton, C., Hunter, A., & Meskell, P. (2012). Linking aims, paradigm and method in nursing research. *Nurse Researcher, 20*(2), 34–39.
<https://doi.org/10.7748/nr2012.11.20.2.34.c9439>

- Hrotkó, J., Rueda-Sabater, E., Chin, V., & Lang, N. (2018, July 12). Striking a Balance Between Well-Being and Growth. *Boston Consulting Group*.
<https://www.bcg.com/publications/2018/seda-striking-balance-between-well-being-growth>
- Huang, P. H. (2017). Can practicing mindfulness improve lawyer decision-making, ethics, and leadership? *Houston Law Review*, 55, 63–154.
- Huck, S. W. (2016). *Statistical misconceptions*. Routledge.
- Hurvitz, J. (2018, 10 November). Debt and depression hurting the South African economy. *Business Report*. <https://www.iol.co.za/business-report/opinion/debt-and-depression-hurting-the-south-african-economy-17837066>
- Ingwersen, H. (2017, October 17). 3 lawyers over 60 tell us how the legal profession has changed. *Capterra*. <https://blog.capterra.com/lawyers-over-60-tell-us-how-the-legal-profession-has-changed/>
- International Bar Association. (2019, June 3). *Why lawyers need to be taught more about emotional intelligence*.
<https://www.ibanet.org/Article/NewDetail.aspx?ArticleUid=bc769d24-a76e-447a-aff1-fd92903bbd60>
- Ivancevich, J. M., Konopaske, R., & Matteson, M. T. (2011). *Organisational behavior and management* (6th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Jackson, D. (2020, September 23). *The pandemic is affecting young lawyer mental health, and secrecy at firms doesn't help*. Law.com.
<https://www.law.com/americanlawyer/2020/09/23/the-pandemic-is-affecting-young-lawyer-mental-health-and-secrecy-at-firms-doesnt-help/?sreturn=20201002053540>
- Jakobsen, M., & Jensen, R. (2015). Common method bias in public management studies. *International Public Management Journal*, 18(1), 3–30.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10967494.2014.997906>
- Janke, W., & Erdmannová, G. (2003). *Strategie zvládání stresu-SVF 78*. Testcentrum.
- Jenkins, E., Gadermann, A., & Mcauliffe, C. (2020, July 26): Mental health impact of coronavirus pandemic hits marginalized groups hardest. *The Conversation*.
<https://theconversation.com/mental-health-impact-of-coronavirus-pandemic-hits-marginalized-groups-hardest-142127>

- Jensen, S. M., Luthans, K. W., Lebsack, S. A., & Lebsack, R. R. (2007). Optimism and employee performance in the banking industry. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*, 12(3), 57. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-06-2012-0193>
- Jonker, J., & Pennink, B. (2010). *The essence of research methodology: A concise guide for master and PhD students in management science*. Springer.
- Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). Emotional intelligence: An integrative meta-analysis and cascading model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 54. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017286>
- Jung, H. S., & Yoon, H. H. (2016). Why is employees' emotional intelligence important? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2014-0509>
- Kaila, H. L. (2006). *Industrial and organisational psychology*. Kalpaz Publications.
- Kaiser, J. (2014). Dealing with missing values in data. *Journal of Systems Integration*, 5(1), 42–51. <https://doi.org/10.20470/jsi.v5i1.178>
- Kamen, L. P., & Seligman, M. E. (1987). Explanatory style and health. *Current Psychological Research and Reviews*, 6(3), 207–218. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02686648>
- Kashdan, T. B., Weeks, J. W., & Savostyanova, A. A. (2011). Whether, how, and when social anxiety shapes positive experiences and events: A self-regulatory framework and treatment implications. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 31(5), 786–799. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2011.03.012>
- Katter, J. K., & Greenglass, E. (2013). The influence of mood on the relation between proactive coping and rehabilitation outcomes. *Canadian Journal on Aging/La Revue canadienne du vieillissement*, 32(1), 13–20. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S071498081200044X>
- Kelton, C. C. (2014). Clients want results, lawyers need emotional intelligence. *Cleveland State Law Review*, 63, 459. <https://engagedscholarship.csuohio.edu/clevstlrev/vol63/iss2/11>
- Kesari, S. (2013). *Occupational stress, psychological capital, happiness and turnover intentions among teachers* (Doctoral dissertation). University of KwaZulu-Natal.
- Khan, A., Siraj, S., & Lau, P. L. (2011). Role of positive psychological strengths and big five personality traits in coping mechanism of university students, *International Proceedings of Economics Development and Research*, 20, 210–215.

- Kim, A. W., Nyengerai, T., & Mendenhall, E. (2020). Evaluating the mental health impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic in urban South Africa: Perceived risk of Covid-19 infection and childhood trauma predict adult depressive symptoms. *medRxiv*.
<https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.06.13.20130120>
- King, D. W., King, L. A., Foy, D. W., Keane, T. M., & Fairbank, J. A. (1999). Post-traumatic stress disorder in a national sample of female and male Vietnam veterans. Risk factors, war-zone stressors, and resilience-recovery variables. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 108*, 164–170. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-843X.108.1.164>
- Klaaren, J. (2020). South Africa: A Profession in Transformation. *Lawyers in 21st-Century Societies, 1*, 535-46. <https://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3375928>
- Klaiber, P., Wen, J. H., DeLongis, A., & Sin, N. L. (2021). The ups and downs of daily life during COVID-19: Age differences in affect, stress, and positive events. *The Journals of Gerontology: Series B, 76*(2), e30–e37. <https://doi.org/10.1093/geronb/gbaa096>
- Kling, K. C., Hyde, J. S., Showers, C. J., & Buswell, B. N. (1999). Gender differences in self-esteem: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*(4), 470.
- Klostermann, M. (2017). *Can wellbeing be predicted by resilience, positive emotions, acceptance and valued living among patients with rheumatism?* [Bachelor's thesis, University of Twente].
- Knudson, M. (2015). Building attorney resources: Helping new lawyers succeed through psychological capital. *Master of Applied Positive Psychology, 83*.
http://repository.upenn.edu/mapp_capstone/83
- Kobasa, S. C. (1982). Commitment and coping in stress resistance among lawyers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 42*(4), 707. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.42.4.707>
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Age International.
- Krause, C., & Chong, J. (2019). Lawyer wellbeing as a crisis of the profession. *South Carolina Law Review*, Forthcoming.
- Krieger, L. S., & Sheldon, K. M. (2014). What makes lawyers happy: A data-driven prescription to redefine professional success. *The George Washington Law Review, 83*, 554.
- Krill, P. (2018, January 14). *Why lawyers are prone to suicide*, CNN,
<https://www.cnn.com/2014/01/20/opinion/krill-lawyers-suicide/index.html>

- Krill, P. R., Johnson, R., & Albert, L. (2016). The prevalence of substance use and other mental health concerns among American attorneys. *Journal of Addiction Medicine*, 10(1), 46. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ADM.0000000000000182>
- Krishnakumar, S., & Rymph, D. (2012). Uncomfortable ethical decisions: The role of negative emotions and emotional intelligence in ethical decision-making. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 321–344. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/43488814>
- Krok, D. (2015). The role of meaning in life within the relations of religious coping and psychological wellbeing. *Journal of Religion and Health*, 54(6), 2292–2308. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10943-014-9983-3>
- Krumpal, I. (2013). Determinants of social desirability bias in sensitive surveys: A literature review. *Quality & Quantity*, 47(4): 2025–2047. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-011-9640-9>
- Kumar, R. (2019). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. Sage Publications.
- Kwak, S. K., & Kim, J. H. (2017). Statistical data preparation: Management of missing values and outliers. *Korean Journal of Anesthesiology*, 70(4), 407. <https://doi.org/10.4097/kjae.2017.70.4.407>
- Laal, M., & Aliramaie, N. (2010). Nursing and coping with stress. *International Journal of Collaborative Research on Internal Medicine & Public Health*, 2(5), 168–181.
- Landy, F. J., & Conte, J. M. (2016). *Work in the 21st century: An introduction to industrial and organisational psychology*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Larson, M., & Luthans, F. (2006). Potential added value of psychological capital in predicting work attitudes. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, 13(1), 45–62. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10717919070130020601>
- Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS*. Routledge.
- Latham, T. (2011). The depressed lawyer. *Psychology Today*, 1–13. www.psychologytoday.com
- Lather, P. A. (1990). Reinscribing otherwise: The play of values in the practices of the human sciences. In E. G. Guba (Ed), *The paradigm dialog*. Sage Publications.
- Law Society (2020, November 25). *Entry trends*. <https://www.lawsociety.org.uk/en/career-advice/becoming-a-solicitor/entry-trends>

- Law Society of South Africa. (2018). *Statistics for Legal Profession 2017/2018*.
<https://www.lssa.org.za/upload/files/LSSA%20STATS%20DOC%202017-18.pdf>
- Law Society of South Africa. (2019). *Statistics for the attorneys' profession*.
<https://www.lssa.org.za/about-us/about-the-attorneys--profession/statistics-for-the-attorneys--profession>
- LawCareers.net (2020, March 10). *International women's day: What does the legal profession look like for women in 2020?*
<https://www.lawcareers.net/Explore/Features/10032020-International-Womens-Day-what-does-the-legal-profession-look-like-for>
- Lazarus, R. S. (2000). How emotions influence performance in competitive sports. *The Sport Psychologist*, 14(3), 229–252. <https://doi.org/10.1123/tsp.14.3.229>
- Lazarus, R. S. (2003). Does the positive psychology movement have legs? *Psychological Inquiry*, 14(2), 93–109.
- Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. Springer .
- Lee, C. S. (2018). Employment stress and wellbeing of university students in Korea: The mediating effects of growth mindset, grit, and hope. *Medico-Legal Update*, 18(1), 254–259. <https://doi.org/10.5958/0974-1283.2018.00054.3>
- Levin, A. P., & Greisberg, S. (2003). Vicarious trauma in attorneys. *Pace Law Review*, 24, 245. <https://digitalcommons.pace.edu/plr/vol24/iss1/11>
- Levit, N., & Linder, D. O. (2008). *The happy lawyer: Making a good life in the law*. Oxford University Press.
- Li, L. I., & He, X. P. (2011). The researches on positive psychological capital and coping style of female university graduates in the course of seeking jobs. In *Proceedings of 2011 international symposium – the female survival and development*, 221–226. St Plum-Blossom Press.
- Liang, H., Saraf, N., Hu, Q., & Xue, Y. (2007). Assimilation of enterprise systems: The effect of institutional pressures and the mediating role of top management. *MIS Quarterly*, 59–87. <https://doi.org/10.2307/25148781>
- Little, L. M., Gooty, J., & Nelson, D. L. (2007). Positive psychological capital: Has positivity clouded measurement rigor. *Positive Organizational Behavior*, 191–209.

- Liu, L., Chang, Y., Fu, J., Wang, J., & Wang, L. (2012). The mediating role of psychological capital on the association between occupational stress and depressive symptoms among Chinese physicians: A cross-sectional study. *BMC Public Health*, *12*, 219–227. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-12-219>
- Lu, L., Cooper, C. L., Kao, S. F., & Zhou, Y. (2003). Work stress, control beliefs and well-being in Greater China. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02683940310494359>
- Lucas, R. E. (2018). Re-evaluating the strengths and weaknesses of self-report measures of subjective wellbeing. In *Handbook of subjective wellbeing*. Noba Scholar Handbook series: Subjective wellbeing. DEF Publishers.
- Lund, C. (2018). Why Africa needs to focus on mental health. *UCT News*. <https://www.news.uct.ac.za/article/-2018-02-12-why-africa-needs-to-start-focusing-on-the-neglected-issue-of-mental-health>
- Luthans, B. C., Luthans, K. W., & Avey, J. B. (2014). Building the leaders of tomorrow: The development of academic psychological capital. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, *21*(2), 191–199. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051813517003>
- Luthans, F. (2002). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *23*(6), 695–706. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.165>
- Luthans, F., & Jensen, S. M. (2002). Hope: A new positive strength for human resource development. *Human Resource Development Review*, *1*(3), 304–322. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484302013003>
- Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2004). Human, social and now positive psychological capital management. *Organizational Dynamics*, *33*, 143–160. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orgdyn.2004.01.003>
- Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., & Peterson, S. J. (2010). The development and resulting performance impact of positive psychological capital. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *21*(1), 41–67. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.20034>
- Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., Norman, S. M., & Combs, G. M. (2006). Psychological capital development: Toward a micro-intervention. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, *27*, 387–393. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.373>
- Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J., & Norman, S. M. (2007). Positive psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, *60*, 541–572.

- Luthans, F., Luthans, K. W., & Luthans, B. C. (2004). Positive psychological capital: Beyond human and social capital. *Business Horizons*, 47(1), 45–50.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2003.11.007>
- Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological capital: Developing the human competitive edge*. Oxford University Press.
- Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2015). *Psychological capital and beyond*. Oxford University Press.
- Lyon, A. (2016). *A lawyer's guide to wellbeing and managing stress*. Ark Group.
- Lyubomirsky, S., King, L., & Diener, E. (2005). The benefits of frequent positive affect: Does happiness lead to success? *Psychological Bulletin*, 131(6), 803.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.131.6.803>
- Maamari, B. E., & Majdalani, J. F. (2017). Emotional intelligence, leadership style and organizational climate. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-04-2016-1010>
- MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological Methods*, 1(2), 130.
- MacCann, C., Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2003). Psychological assessment of emotional intelligence: A review of self-report and performance-based testing. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 11(3), 247–274.
- MacCann, C., Joseph, D. L., Newman, D. A., & Roberts, R. D. (2014). Emotional intelligence is a second-stratum factor of intelligence: Evidence from hierarchical and bifactor models. *Emotion*, 14(2), 358. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0034755>
- MacCann, C., Roberts, R. D., Matthews, G., & Zeidner, M. (2004). Consensus scoring and empirical option weighting of performance-based emotional intelligence (EI) tests. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(3), 645–662.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(03\)00123-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(03)00123-5)
- MacEwen, B. (2013). *Growth is dead: Now what? Law firms on the brink*. Adam Smith Esquire.
- Mackey, A., & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Macnab, A. (2017). High-pressure law jobs linked to depression. *Canadian Lawyer*.
<https://www.canadianlawyermag.com/legalfeeds/high-pressure-law-jobs-linked-to-depression-14835/>
- Maddux, J. E., & Meier, L. J. (1995). Self-efficacy and depression. In J. L. Maddux (Ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaptation, and adjustment* (pp. 143–169). Springer.
- Maggiore, C., Johnston, C. S., Krings, F., Massoudi, K., & Rossier, J. (2013). The role of career adaptability and work conditions on general and professional wellbeing. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *83*(3), 437–449.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2013.07.001>
- Malhotra, N. K., Schaller, T. K., & Patil, A. (2017). Common method variance in advertising research: When to be concerned and how to control for it. *Journal of Advertising*, *46*(1), 193–212. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00913367.2016.1252287>
- Manyathi-Jele, N. (2015). Latest statistics on the legal profession. *De Rebus*.
<http://www.derebus.org.za/latest-statistics-legal-profession/>
- Mao, Y., He, J., Morrison, A. M., & Andres Coca-Stefaniak, J. (2020). Effects of tourism CSR on employee psychological capital in the COVID-19 crisis: From the perspective of conservation of resources theory. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–19.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1770706>
- Mark, G., & Smith, A. P. (2012). Occupational stress, job characteristics, coping, and the mental health of nurses. *British Journal of Health Psychology*, *17*(3), 505–521.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8287.2011.02051.x>
- Martinez, M. N. (1997). The smarts that count. *HR Magazine*, *42*, 72–78.
- Marx, A. A. (2016). *Development of the positive coping behavioural inventory: A positive psychological approach* (Doctoral dissertation). University of South Africa.
- Maslow, A. H. (1958). A dynamic theory of human motivation. In C. L. Stacey & M. DeMartino (Eds.), *Understanding human motivation* (pp. 26–47). Howard Allen.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/11305-004>
- Masten, A. S., & Reed, M. G. J. (2002). Resilience in development. *Handbook of Positive Psychology*, *74*, 88.
- Masten, W., & Wright, M. O. (2009). Resilience over the lifespan. In J. W. Reich, A. J. Zautra, & J. S. Hall (Eds.), *Handbook of adult resilience* (pp. 213–237). Guildford Press.

- Matthews, G., Roberts, R. D., & Zeidner, M. (2004). Seven myths about emotional intelligence. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 37–41.
- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2002). *Emotional intelligence: Science & myth*. The MIT Press.
- May, A. (n.d.). *What makes a high performing lawyer?* www.ilanz.org/dmsdocument/29
- Mayer, C. H. (2014). Sense of coherence and professional career development. In M. Coetsee (Ed.), *Psycho-social career meta-capacities: Dynamics of contemporary career development* (pp. 221–246). Springer International.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications*. Basic Books.
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27(4), 267–298.
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2016). The ability model of EI: Principles and updates. *Emotion Review*, 8, 290–300. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073916639667>
- Mayer, J. D., Roberts, R. D., & Barsade, S. G. (2008). Human abilities: Emotional intelligence. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 59, 507–536. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.59.103006.093646>
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000). Models of emotional intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of intelligence* (pp. 396–420). Cambridge University Press.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 197–215.
- McCrae, R. R. (1984). Situational determinants of coping responses: Loss, threat, and challenge. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 46(4), 919. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.46.4.919>
- McLean, C. P., & Anderson, E. R. (2009). Brave men and timid women? A review of the gender differences in fear and anxiety. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 29(6), 496–505. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2009.05.003>
- McNamara, S. (2000). *Stress in young people: What's new and what to do*. A&C Black.
- Medical Xpress. (2020, May 5). *Global study launched to examine impact of Covid-19 on health and wellbeing*. <https://medicalxpress.com/news/2020-05-global-impact-Covid-health-wellbeing.html>

- Menninger, K. (1959). The academic lecture: Hope. *The American Journal of Psychiatry*, 116, 481–491. <https://doi.org/10.1176/ajp.116.6.481>
- Mertler, C. A., & Reinhart, R. V. (2016). *Advanced and multivariate statistical methods: Practical application and interpretation*. Routledge.
- Miah, A. Q. (2016). *Applied statistics for social and management sciences*. Springer + Business Media LLC. <https://doi.org/10.100/978-981-10-0401-8>
- Michael, T., Zetsche, U., & Margraf, J. (2007). Epidemiology of anxiety disorders. *Psychiatry*, 6(4), 136–142. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mppsy.2007.01.007>
- Michaelides, M. (2008). Emerging themes from early research on self-efficacy beliefs in school mathematics. *Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 6(1), 219–234. <https://gnosis.library.ucy.ac.cy/handle/7/37476>
- Mikolajczak, M., Luminet, O., Leroy, C., & Roy, E. (2007). Psychometric properties of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire: Factor structure, reliability, construct, and incremental validity in a French-speaking population. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 88(3), 338–353. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223890701333431>
- Milton, J. (2001). Psychoanalysis and cognitive behaviour therapy: Rival paradigms or common ground? *The International Journal of Psychoanalysis*, 82(3), 431–447. <https://doi.org/10.1516/DVLN-RK5E-C1YV-ME4V>
- Minkov, M., & Bond, M. H. (2017). A genetic component to national differences in happiness. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 18(2), 321–340. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-015-9712-y>
- Mitchell, M. A., & Maxwell, S. E. (2013). A comparison of the cross-sectional and sequential designs when assessing longitudinal mediation. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 48(3), 301–339. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00273171.2013.784696>
- Mivšek, P., Äimälä, A. M., Žvanut, B., & Tuomi, J. (2018). Midwifery students' wellbeing among undergraduates in Slovenia: A pilot study. *Midwifery*, 61, 63–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.midw.2018.02.020>
- Moissenko, F., Braicu, C., Tomuleasa, C., & Berindan-Neagoe, I. (2016). Types of research designs. In D. C. Stefan (Ed.), *Cancer research and clinical trials in developing countries* (pp. 29–39). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-18443-2_3
- Molose, T., Thomas, P., & Goldman, G. (2019). A qualitative approach to developing measurement scales for the concept of Ubuntu. *Acta Commercii*, 19(1), 1–10.

- Montgomery, D. C., Peck, E. A., & Vining, G. G. (2015). *Introduction to linear regression analysis*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Morgan, S., Reichert, T., & Harrison, T. R. (2016). *From numbers to words: Reporting statistical results for the social sciences*. Routledge.
- Morse, J. Q., Shaffer, D. R., Williamson, G. M., Dooley, W. K., & Schulz, R. (2012). Models of self and others and their relation to positive and negative caregiving responses. *Psychology and Aging, 27*(1), 211. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023960>
- Mouton, J., & Marais, H. (2000). *Social research methods*. Oxford University Press.
- Muchinsky, P. M. (2006). *Psychology applied to work: An introduction to industrial and organizational psychology*. Cengage Learning.
- Muir, R. (2016). *Emotional Intelligence for lawyer*. American Bar Association.
http://www.americanbar.org/content/dam/aba/marketing/careercenter/muir_emotional_intelligence_for_lawyers.authcheckdam.pdf
- Murray, H. A. (1938). *Explorations in personality*. Oxford University Press.
- Natti, R., & Dana, S. (2015). *Positive criminology*. Routledge.
- Nel, E. C. (2018). *A psychosocial model for buffering workplace bullying in higher education* (Doctoral dissertation). University of South Africa.
- Nelis, D., Quoidbach, J., Mikolajczak, M., & Hansenne, M. (2009). Increasing emotional intelligence:(How) is it possible? *Personality and Individual Differences, 47*(1), 36–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2009.01.046>
- Neuman, W. L. (2011). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches* (7th ed.). Pearson.
- Newman, A., Ucbasaran, D., Zhu, F., & Hirst, G. (2014). Psychological capital: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 35*, 120-138. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1916>
- Nolzen, N. (2018). The concept of psychological capital: A comprehensive review. *Management Review Quarterly, 68*(3), 237–277. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11301-018-0138-6>
- Noorbakhsh, S. N., Besharat, M. A., & Zarei, J. (2010). Emotional intelligence and coping styles with stress. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 5*, 818–822. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.07.191>

- Norton, L., Johnson, J., & Woods, G. (2016). Burnout and compassion fatigue: What lawyers need to know. *University of Missouri-Kansas Law Review*, 84(4), 987–1002.
- Nunes, R. P., de Melo, R. L. P., da Silva Júnior, E. G., & do Carmo Eulálio, M. (2016). Relationship between coping and subjective wellbeing of elderly from the interior of the Brazilian Northeast. *Psicologia: Reflexão e Crítica*, 29(1), 33.
<https://doi.org/10.1186/s41155-016-0032-x>
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. McGraw-Hill.
- Nussbaum, M., & Sen, A. (Eds.). (1993). *The quality of life*. Clarendon Press.
- Nussbaum, M. (2003). Capabilities as fundamental entitlements: Sen and social justice. *Feminist Economics*, 9(2–3), 33–59. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1354570022000077926>
- Nussbaum, M. (2011). *Creating capabilities: The human development approach*. Harvard University Press.
- O’Boyle, E., Humphrey, R. H., Pollack, J. M., & Hawver, T. H., & Story, P. (2011). The relation between emotional intelligence and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32, 788–818. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.714>
- O’Brien, G. (2010). The ethics of emotional intelligence. *Business Ethics*. <http://business-ethics.com/2010/09/01/4748-the-ethics-of-emotional-intelligence/>
- O’Neil, S., & Koekemoer, E. (2016). Two decades of qualitative research in psychology, industrial and organisational psychology and human resource management within South Africa: A critical review. *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 42(1), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v42i1.1350>
- O’Brien, M. T. (2014). Connecting law student wellbeing to social justice, problem-solving and human emotions. *QUT Law Review*, 14, 52.
- Oakland, T. (2004). Use of educational and psychological tests internationally. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 53(2), 157–172.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2004.00166.x>
- OECD. (2020). *Better life index, South Africa*.
<http://www.oecdbetterlifeindex.org/countries/south-africa/>
- Omar, A. (2014). Sample size estimation and sampling techniques for selecting a representative sample. *Journal of Health Specialties*, 2(4), 142.
<https://doi.org/10.4103/1658-600X.142783>

- Omari, M., & Paull, M. (2013). "Shut up and bill": Workplace bullying challenges for the legal profession. *International Journal of the Legal Profession*, 20(2), 141–160. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09695958.2013.874350>
- Ong, A. D., Bergeman, C. S., Bisconti, T. L., & Wallace, K. A. (2006). Psychological resilience, positive emotions, and successful adaptation to stress in later life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 91(4), 730. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.91.4.730>
- Ong, F. S., Phillips, D. R., & Chai, S. T. (2013). Life events and stress: Do older men and women in Malaysia cope differently as consumers? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Gerontology*, 28(2), 195–210. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10823-013-9190-9>
- Organ, J. M. (2010). What do we know about the satisfaction/dissatisfaction of lawyers: A meta-analysis of research on lawyer satisfaction and wellbeing. *University of St. Thomas Law Journal*, 8, 225.
- Orkin, M., Roberts, B., Bohler-Muller, N., & Alexander, K. (2020, May 13). The hidden struggle: The mental health effects of the Covid-19 lockdown in South Africa. *Daily Maverick*. <https://www.dailymaverick.co.za/article/2020-05-13-the-hidden-struggle-the-mental-health-effects-of-the-Covid-19-lockdown-in-south-africa/>
- Pakenham, K. I., & Rinaldis, M. (2001). The role of illness, resources, appraisal, and coping strategies in adjustment to HIV/AIDS: The direct and buffering effects. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 24(3), 259–279. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1010718823753>
- Pallant, J. (2016). *SPSS Survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS* (5th ed.). McGraw Hill.
- Papastavrou, E., Tsangari, H., Karayiannis, G., Papacostas, S., Efstathiou, G., & Sourtzi, P. (2011). Caring and coping: The dementia caregivers. *Aging & Mental Health*, 15(6), 702–711. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13607863.2011.562178>
- Parker, C. (2014). The moral panic over psychological wellbeing in the legal profession: A personal or political ethical response. *University of New South Wales Law Journal*, 37, 1103.
- Pasyk, V. S. (2019). *The billable hour and its impact on lawyer subjective wellbeing and burnout* (Master's thesis). Werklund School of Education.
- Patton, P. A. (2004). Women lawyers, their status, influence, and retention in the legal profession. *William and Mary Journal of Women and the Law*, 11, 173.

- Paulhus, D., & Vazire, S. (2009). Self-report methods. In R. Robins, C. Fraley, & R. Krueger (Eds.), *Handbook of research methods in personality psychology* (pp. 224–250). The Guildford Press.
- Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (2013). Happiness experienced: The science of subjective wellbeing. In S. David, I. Boniwell, & A.C. Ayers (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of happiness* (pp. 134–151).
- Perez, J. C., Petrides, P. J., & Furnham, A. (2005). Measuring trait emotional intelligence. In R. Schulze, & R. D. Roberts (Eds.), *International handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 123–143). Hogrefe & Huber .
- Peters, C., Kranzler, J. H., & Rossen, E. (2009). Validity of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test: Youth version-research edition. *Canadian Journal of School Psychology, 24*(1), 76–81. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0829573508329822>
- Peterson, S. J., & Byron, K. (2008). Exploring the role of hope in job performance: Results from four studies. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 29*(6), 785–803. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.492>
- Peterson, S. J., & Luthans, F. (2003). The positive impact and development of hopeful leaders. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 24*(1), 26–31. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01437730310457302>
- Petrides, K. V. (2009). *Technical manual for the Trait Emotional Intelligence questionnaire (TEIQue)*. London Psychometric Laboratory.
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2001). Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies. *European Journal of Personality, 15*(6), 425–448. <https://doi.org/10.1002/per.416>
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2003). Trait emotional intelligence: Behavioural validation in two studies of emotion recognition and reactivity to mood induction. *European Journal of Personality, 17*, 39–57. <https://doi.org/10.1002/per.466>
- Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2006). The role of trait emotional intelligence in a gender-specific model of organizational variables. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 36*(2), 552–569. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0021-9029.2006.00019.x>
- Petrides, K. V., & Mavroveli, S. (2018). Theory and applications of trait emotional intelligence. *Psychology, 23*(1), 24–36.
- Petrides, K. V., Furnham, A., & Mavroveli, S. (2007). Trait emotional intelligence: Moving forward in the field of EI. *Emotional Intelligence: Knowns and Unknowns, 4*, 151–166.

- Petrides, K. V., Pérez-González, J. C., & Furnham, A. (2007). On the criterion and incremental validity of trait emotional intelligence. *Cognition & Emotion*, *21*(1), 26–55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02699930601038912>
- Petrides, K. V., Pita, R., & Kokkinaki, F. (2007). The location of trait emotional intelligence in personality factor space. *British Journal of Psychology*, *98*(2), 273–289. <https://doi.org/10.1348/000712606x120618>
- Piergiovanni, L. F., & Depaula, P. D. (2018). Self-efficacy and stress coping styles in university students. *Ciencias Psicológicas*, *12*(1), 17–23. <http://doi.org/10.22235/cp.v12i1.1591>
- Pillay, M., Viviers, R., & Mayer, C. H. (2013). The relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership styles in the South African petrochemical industry. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, *39*(1), 1–12. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v39i1.110>
- Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(8), 10–1037. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
- Popper, K. R. (2002). *An unended quest*. Psychology Press.
- Potgieter, E. (2017). *SA reconciliation barometer survey 2017 report*. Institute for Justice and Reconciliation, Cape Town. <https://www.africaportal.org/publications/perceptions-of-economic-security-and-wellbeing/>
- Pradhan, R. K., & Jena, L. K. (2016). Workplace spirituality and organisational commitment: Role of emotional intelligence among Indian banking professionals. *Journal of Human Resource Management*, *19*(1), 13–23. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JEIM-10-2017-0144>
- Proyer, R. T., Gander, F., Wellenzohn, S., & Ruch, W. (2014). Positive psychology interventions in people aged 50–79 years: Long-term effects of placebo-controlled online interventions on wellbeing and depression. *Aging & Mental Health*, *18*(8), 997–1005. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13607863.2014.89997978>
- Pruitt, L. R. (2001). No black names on the letterhead: Efficient discrimination and the South African legal profession. *Michigan Journal of International Law*, *23*, 545.
- Punch, K. F. (2014). *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches* (3rd ed.). Sage.

- Qiao, G., Li, S., & Hu, J. (2011). Stress, coping, and psychological well-being among new graduate nurses in China. *Home Health Care Management & Practice, 23*(6), 398-403. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1084822311405828>
- Qamar, B. K. (2018). Research ethics. *Pakistan Armed Forces Medical Journal, 68*(6), 1503–54.
- Rabenu, E., Yaniv, E., & Elizur, D. (2017). The relationship between psychological capital, coping with stress, wellbeing, and performance. *Current Psychology, 36*(4), 875–887. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-016-9477-4>
- Rabipour, S., & Raz, A. (2012). Training the brain: Fact and fad in cognitive and behavioural remediation. *Brain and Cognition, 79*(2) 159–179. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bandc.2012.02.006>
- Ramchunder, Y., & Martins, N. (2014). The role of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and leadership style as attributes of leadership effectiveness. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 40*(1), 01–11. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v40i1.1100>
- Randazzo, S. (2019, August 9). Being a Law Firm Partner Was Once a Job for Life. That Culture Is All but Dead. *The Wall Street Journal*. <https://www.wsj.com/articles/being-a-law-firm-partner-was-once-a-job-for-life-that-culture-is-all-but-dead-11565362437>
- Ranzijn, R., & Luszcz, M. (1999). Acceptance: A key to wellbeing in older adults? *Australian Psychologist, 34*(2), 94–98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00050069908257435>
- Rao, J. V., & Chandraiah, K. (2012). Occupational stress, mental health and coping among information technology professionals. *Indian Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 16*(1), 22. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0019-5278.99686>
- Rasool, M. S. A., Yusof, M. A. M., & Amran, S. A. T. S. (2018). Enhancing wellbeing of low-income household: Perspective of Zakat recipients. *Advanced Science Letters, 24*(6), 4116–4120. <https://doi.org/10.1166/asl.2018.11553>
- Reed, D. J. (2016). Coping with occupational stress: The role of optimism and coping flexibility. *Psychology Research and Behavior Management, 9*, 71–79. <https://doi.org/10.2147/PRBM.S97595>.
- Reich, J. (2019). Capitalizing on healthy lawyers: The business case for law firms to promote and prioritize lawyer wellbeing. *Villanova Law Review, 65*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3438029>

- Reio, T. G. Jr. (2010). The threat of common method variance bias to theory building. *Human Resource Development Review*, 9(4), 405–411.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484310380331>
- Republic of South Africa. (2013). *Protection of Personal Information (POPI) Act no. 4 of 2013*. Government Printers. <http://www.justice.gov.za/legislation/acts/2013-004.pdf>
- Richardson, H. A., Simmering, M. J., & Sturman, M. C. (2009). A tale of three perspectives: Examining post hoc statistical techniques for detection and correction of common method variance. *Organizational Research Methods*, 12(4), 762–800.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428109332834>
- Riggio, R. E. (2017). *Introduction to industrial/organisational psychology*. Pearson.
- Riulli, L., Savicki, V., & Richards, J. (2012). Psychological capital as a buffer to student stress. *Psychology*, 3(12), 1202. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/psych.2012.312A178>
- Roberts, R. D., Zeidner, M., & Matthews, G. (2001). Does emotional intelligence meet traditional standards for an intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. *Emotion*, 1(3), 196. <https://doi.org/10.1037//1528-3542.1.3.196>
- Roberts, R. K., Swanson, N. G., & Murphy, L. R. (2004). Discrimination and occupational mental health. *Journal of Mental Health*, 13(2), 129–142.
<https://doi.org/1080/09638230410001669264>
- Roberts, S. J., Scherer, L. L., & Bowyer, C. J. (2011). Job stress and incivility: What role does psychological capital play? *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 18(4), 449–458. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051811409044>
- Robeyns, I. (2011). *The capability approach*. Stanford.
- Robeyns, I. (2016). Capabiltarianism. *Journal of Human Development and Capabilities*, 17(3), 397-414. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19452829.2016.1145631>
- Roper, K. A. (2014). *Individual, disease, and work-related factors associated with work patterns, presenteeism and sick pay policy of the colorectal cancer survivor after treatment* (Thesis). University of Massachusetts.
- Rothmann, S. (2014). Flourishing in work and careers. In M. Coetzee (Ed.), *Psycho-social career meta-capacities: Dynamics of contemporary career development* (pp. 203–220). Springer International. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-00645-1_11
- Rottenberg, J. (2012). *The continuing stigma of depression*. Lawyers with depression.
<http://www.lawyerswithdepression.com/articles/the-continuing-stigma-of-depression/>

- Rovai, A. P., Baker, J. D., & Ponton, M. K. (2013). *Social science research design and statistics: A practitioner's guide to research methods and IBM SPSS*. Watertree Press.
- Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. (2014). *Research methods for social work* (8th ed.). Brooks/Cole.
- Ryan, A. B. (2006). Post-positivist approaches to research. *Researching and writing your thesis: A guide for postgraduate students* (pp. 12–26). Maynooth Adult and Community Education.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2017). *Self-determination theory: Basic psychological needs in motivation, development, and wellness*. Guilford Publications.
- Ryan, R. M., Huta, V., & Deci, E. L. (2008). Living well: A self-determination theory perspective on eudaimonia. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 9(1), 139–170. <https://doi.org/0.1007/s10902-006-9023-4>
- Ryan, R. M., & Martela, F. (2016). Eudaimonia as a way of living: Connecting Aristotle with self-determination theory. In *Handbook of eudaimonic well-being* (pp. 109-122). Springer.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(6), 1069.
- Ryff, C. D. (2014). Psychological well-being revisited: Advances in the science and practice of eudaimonia. *Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics*, 83(1), 10-28. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000353263>
- Saklofske, D. H., Austin, E. J., Galloway, J., & Davidson, K. (2007). Individual difference correlates of health-related behaviours: Preliminary evidence for links between emotional intelligence and coping. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42, 491–502. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2006.08.006>
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9, 185–211. <https://doi.org/10.2190/DUGG-P24E-52WK-6CDG>
- Sanchez-Alvarez, N., Extremera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2016). The relation between emotional intelligence and subjective wellbeing: A meta-analytic investigation. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 11(3), 276–285. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2015.1058968>
- Saricam, H., Celik, I., & Coskun, L. (2015). The relationship between emotional intelligence, hope and life satisfaction in preschool preserves teacher. *The International Journal of Research in Teacher Education*, 6(1), 1–9.

- Scheenen, M. E., Van der Horn, H. J., De Koning, M. E., Van der Naalt, J., & Spikman, J. M. (2017). Stability of coping and the role of self-efficacy in the first year following mild traumatic brain injury. *Social Science & Medicine*, *181*, 184–190. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2017.03.025>
- Scheier, M. F., Carver, C. S., & Bridges, M. W. (2001). *Optimism, pessimism, and psychological wellbeing*. In E. C. Chang (Ed.), *Optimism & pessimism: Implications for theory, research, and practice* (pp. 189–216). American Psychological Association. <https://doi.org/10.1037/10385-009>
- Scheier, M. F., Weintraub, J. K., & Carver, C. S. (1986). Coping with stress: Divergent strategies of optimists and pessimists. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(6), 1257. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1257>
- Schneider, S. L. (2001). In search of realistic optimism: Meaning, knowledge, and warm fuzziness. *American Psychologist*, *56*(3), 250. <http://0-dx.doi.org.oasis.unisa.ac.za/10.1037/0003-066X.56.3.250>
- Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2016). *Beginner's guide to structural equation modelling* (4th ed.). Routledge.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., & Bhullar, N. (2009). The assessing emotions scale. In C. Stough, D. Saklofske, & J. Parker (Eds.), *The assessment of emotional intelligence* (pp. 119–135). Springer.
- Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, J. T., Golder, C., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *25*(2), 167–177. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(98\)00001-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(98)00001-4)
- Seguin, M., Lewis, R., Razmadze, M., Amirejibi, T., & Roberts, B. (2017). Coping strategies of internally displaced women in Georgia: A qualitative study. *Social Science & Medicine*, *194*, 34–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2017.10.014>
- Seligman, M. E. (2008). Positive health. *Applied Psychology*, *57*, 3–18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2008.00351.x>
- Seligman, M. E. P. (2002). *Authentic happiness*. Free Press.
- Seligman, M. E., Verkuil, P. R., & Kang, T. H. (2001). Why lawyers are unhappy. *Cardozo Law Review*, *23*, 33. <https://doi.org/10.21153/dlr2005vol10no1art268>
- Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, *55*, 5–14. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0033-066X.55.1.5>

- Sen, A. (1985). *Commodities and capabilities*. Oxford University Press.
- Sen, A., Sen, M. A., Amartya, S., Foster, J. E., & Foster, J. E. (1997). *On economic inequality*. Oxford University Press.
- Serena, K. (2013). *Occupational stress, psychological capital, happiness and turnover intentions among teachers*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban.
- Sharf, R. S. (2012). *Theories of psychotherapy and counselling: Concepts and cases* (5th ed.). Cengage Learning.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2007). Is it possible to become happier? (And if so, how?). *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 1(1), 129–145.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2007.00002.x>
- Shen, X. L., Wang, N., Sun, Y., & Xiang, L. (2013). Unleash the power of mobile word-of-mouth: An empirical study of system and information characteristics in ubiquitous decision making. *Online Information Review*, 37(1), 42–60.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/14684521311311621>
- Sherwood, M. (2013). Female lawyers leaving firms for key corporate in-house roles. *The Globe and Mail*. <https://www.theglobeandmail.com/report-on-business/industry-news/the-law-page/female-lawyers-leaving-firms-for-key-corporate-in-house-roles/article15774453/>
- Shultz, J. M., Espinel, Z., Flynn, B. W., Hoffman, Y., & Cohen, R. E. (2007). *DEEP PREP: All-hazards disaster behavioral health training*. Disaster Life Support Publishing.
- Siegling, A. B., Nielsen, C., & Petrides, K. V. (2014). Trait emotional intelligence and leadership in a European multinational company. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 65, 65-68. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2014.01.049>
- Simpson, S. H. (2015). Creating a data analysis plan: What to consider when choosing statistics for a study. *The Canadian Journal of Hospital Pharmacy*, 68(4), 311. <https://doi.org/10.4212/cjhp.v68i4.1471>
- Singh, A. P. (2017). Coping with work stress in police employees. *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*, 32(3), 225–235. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11896-016-9215-8>
- Sinclair, V. (2009). Experiencing career satisfaction and career success over the life span. *Counselling Directory*. <http://www.counselling-directory.org.uk/counselloradvice98889.html>.
- Skinner, B. F. (1953). *Science and human behavior*. Macmillan.

- Skinner, E. A., & Zimmer-Gembeck, M. J. (2007). The development of coping. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *58*, 119–44.
<https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.58.110405.085705>
- Skinner, E. A., Edge, K., Altman, J., & Sherwood, H. (2003). Searching for the structure of coping: A review and critique of category systems for classifying ways of coping. *Psychological Bulletin*, *129*(2), 216. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.129.2.216>
- Slaski, M., & Cartwright, S. (2003). Emotional intelligence training and its implications for stress, health and performance. *Stress and Health*, *19*(4), 233–239.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.979>
- Smith, L., Ciarrochi, J., & Heaven, P. C. (2008). The stability and change of trait emotional intelligence, conflict communication patterns, and relationship satisfaction: A one-year longitudinal study. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *45*(8), 738–743.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2008.07.023>
- Smith, L., Heaven, P. C., & Ciarrochi, J. (2008). Trait emotional intelligence, conflict communication patterns, and relationship satisfaction. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *44*(6), 1314–1325. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2007.11.024>
- Snyder, C. R. (1994). *The psychology of hope: You can get there from here*. Free Press.
- Snyder, C. R. (2000). *Handbook of hope*. Academic Press.
- Snyder, C. R. (2002). Hope theory: Rainbows in the mind. *Psychological Inquiry*, *13*(4), 249–275. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1304_01
- Snyder, C. R., & Lopez, S. J. (2002). The future of positive psychology: A declaration of independence. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 751–767). Oxford University Press.
- Snyder, C. R., Harris, C., & Anderson, J. R. (1991). Hope and health: Measuring the will and the ways. In C. R. Snyder & D. R. Forsyth (Eds.), *Handbook of social and clinical psychology: The health perspective* (pp. 285–305). Pergamon.
- Snyder, C. R., Rand, K. L., & Sigmon, D. R. (2002). Hope theory: A member of the positive psychological family. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 257–276). Oxford University Press.
- Soysa, C. K., & Wilcomb, C. J. (2015). Mindfulness, self-compassion, self-efficacy, and gender as predictors of depression, anxiety, stress, and wellbeing. *Mindfulness*, *6*(2), 217–226. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-013-0247-1>

- Spector, P. E. (2019). Do not cross me: Optimizing the use of cross-sectional designs. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 34*(2), 125–137.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-018-09613-8>
- Springer, K. W., Hauser, R. M., & Freese, J. (2006). Bad news indeed for Ryff's six-factor model of well-being. *Social Science Research, 35*(4), 1120-1131.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2006.01.003>
- Srinivasan, T. S. (2015). *The 5 founding fathers and a history of positive psychology*. Positive Psychology Program.
- Steel, P., Schmidt, J., & Shultz, J. (2008). Refining the relationship between personality and subjective wellbeing. *Psychological Bulletin, 134*(1), 138.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/00332909.134.1.138>
- Stockenström, S. (2018, January 25). Depression is not only a white man's condition. *Sowetan Live*. <https://www.sowetanlive.co.za/sundayworld/lifestyle/2018-01-25-depression-is-not-only-a-white-mans-condition/>
- Stough, C., Saklofske, D. H., & Parker, J. D. (2009). A brief analysis of 20 years of emotional intelligence: An introduction to assessing emotional intelligence: Theory, research, and applications. In J. D. A. Parker, D. H. Saklofske, & C. Stough (Eds.), *Assessing emotional intelligence* (pp. 3–8). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-88370-0_1
- Strauss, K., Parker, S. K., & O'Shea, D. (2017). When does proactivity have a cost? Motivation at work moderates the effects of proactive work behavior on employee strain. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 100*, 15–26.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2017.02.001>
- Suhaib, M. (2020). Investigation and analysis of the requirement engineering in software development process and its systematic requirements elicitation approach. *International Journal of Scientific & Technology Research, 9*(4), 2723–2726.
- Suharsaputra, U. (2014). *Quantitative research methods, qualitative, and action*. Bandung.
- Suhonen, J. (2019). *Age, tenure, general self-efficacy, and sales performance of salespeople* (Doctoral dissertation). Walden University.
- Sun, F., Kosberg, J. I., Leeper, J., Kaufman, A. V., & Burgio, L. (2010). Racial differences in perceived burden of rural dementia caregivers: The mediating effect of religiosity. *Journal of Applied Gerontology, 29*(3), 290–307.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0733464809343205>

- Sykes, L. M., Gani, F., & Vally, Z. (2016). Statistical terms Part 1: The meaning of the MEAN, and other statistical terms commonly used in medical research. *South African Dental Journal*, 71(6), 274–278.
- Tamres, L., Janicki, D., & Helgeson, V. S. (2002). Sex differences in coping behavior: A meta analytic review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 6(1), 2–30. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0601_1
- Tanaka, T., Yamamoto, T., & Haruno, M. (2017). Brain response patterns to economic inequity predict present and future depression indices. *Nature Human Behaviour*, 1(10), 748–756. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-017-0207-1>
- Taras, V., Kirkman, B. L., & Steel, P. (2010). Examining the impact of culture's consequences: A three-decade, multilevel, meta-analytic review of Hofstede's cultural value dimensions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(3), 405.
- Taylor, S. (2017). *Clinician's guide to PTSD* (2nd ed.). Guildford Press.
- Taylor, T. R., & Lindlof, B. C. (2011). *Qualitative communication research methods* (3rd ed.). Sage.
- Teachman, B. A. (2006). Aging and negative affect: The rise and fall and rise of anxiety and depressive symptoms. *Psychology and Aging*, 21, 201–207. <https://doi.org/10.1037/08827974.21.1.201>
- Thornhill, R. B. (2019). Lawyer wellbeing. *The Alabama Lawyer*, 80(6), 445–449. <https://www.alabar.org/assets/2019/11/2019-Nov-Lawyer.pdf>
- Thornton, M. (2014). Hypercompetitiveness or a balanced life? Gendered discourses in the globalisation of Australian law firms. *Legal Ethics*, 17(2), 153–176. <https://doi.org/10.5235/1460728X.17.2.153>
- Thumala Dockendorff, D. C. (2014). Healthy ways of coping with losses related to the aging process. *Educational Gerontology*, 40(5), 363–384. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03601277.2013.822203>
- Tov, W., & Diener, E. (2013). Subjective well-being. *Research Collection School of Social Sciences*, 1395. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118339893.wbeccp518>
- Tromp, B., Dolley, C., Laganparsad, M. & Govender, S. (2014, 6 July). SA's sick state of mental health. *Sunday Times*, p. 1.
- Tsai, F. J., Huang, W. L., & Chan, C. C. (2009). Occupational stress and burnout of lawyers. *Journal of Occupational Health*, 51(5), 443–450. <https://doi.org/10.1539/joh.L8179>

- Tuncay, T., Musabak, I., Gok, D. E., & Kutlu, M. (2008). The relationship between anxiety, coping strategies and characteristics of patients with diabetes. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, 6, 79. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1477-7525-6-79>
- Turan, N. (2015). About research of the relationships between burnout, copings and defense mechanisms of the mentality of lawyers. *Young Scientist USA*, 120.
- Turner, A. (2017, November 6). Is An Increase In The Partner To Associate Ratio In Law Firms A Good Thing?. <https://www.anitainsights.com/blog/law-firm-leverage-ratios-birmingham/>
- Ukeh, M. I., & Hassan, A. S. (2018). The impact of coping strategies on psychological wellbeing among students of Federal University, Lafia, Nigeria. *Journal of Psychology & Psychotherapy*, 8(5). <https://doi.org/10.4172/2161-0487.1000349>
- Van der Heijde, C. M. (2014). Employability and self-regulation in contemporary careers. In M. Coetsee (ed.), *Psycho-social career meta-capacities: Dynamics of contemporary career development* (pp. 7–18). Springer International.
- Van Rooy, D. L., Alonso, A., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). Group differences in emotional intelligence scores: Theoretical and practical implications. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 38(3), 689–700. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2004.05.023>
- Van Woerkom, M., & Meyers, M. C. (2015). My strengths count: Effects of a strengths-based psychological climate on positive affect and job performance. *Human Resource Management*, 1, 81–103. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.2162>
- Vantieghem, W., & Van Houtte, M. (2015). Are girls more resilient to gender-conformity pressure? The association between gender-conformity pressure and academic self-efficacy. *Sex Roles*, 73(1–2), 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-015-0509-6>
- Veal, A. J. (2017). *Research methods for leisure and tourism*. Pearson.
- Vermeulen, W., Lategan, L. O., & Litheko, R. (2011). The research process. In L. O. Lategan, L. Lues, & H. Friedrich-Nel (Eds.), *Doing research* (Revised ed.). Sun Press.
- Vitelli, R. (2020, June 7). Are we facing a Post-Covid-19 suicide epidemic? *Psychology Today*. <https://www.psychologytoday.com/za/blog/media-spotlight/202006/are-we-facing-post-Covid-19-suicide-epidemic>
- Voukelatou, V., Gabrielli, L., Miliou, I., Cresci, S., Sharma, R., Tesconi, M., & Pappalardo, L. (2020). Measuring objective and subjective wellbeing: dimensions and data sources.

International Journal of Data Science and Analytics, 1–31.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s41060-020-00224-2>

- Wang, T. Y., Bernardo, A., & Yeung, S. (2017). Hope and coping in collectivist societies: contributions to life satisfaction in Chinese university students. In M. C. Gastardo-Conaco, M. E. J. Macapagal, & Y. Muramoto (Eds.), *Asian psychology and Asian societies in the midst of change* (pp. 59–79). Psychological Association of the Philippines.
- Warwick, J., & Nettelbeck, T. (2004). Emotional intelligence is...? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 37(5), 1091–1100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2003.12.003>
- Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1984). Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive emotional states. *Psychological Bulletin*, 96(3), 465. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.96.3.465>
- Weis, R., & Speredakos, E. C. (2011). A meta-analysis of hope enhancement strategies in clinical and community settings. *Psychology of Wellbeing: Theory, Research and Practice*, 1(1), 5. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2211-1522-1-5>
- Weiten, W., Dunn, D. S., & Hammer, E. Y. (2014). *Psychology applied to modern life: Adjustment in the 21st century*. Cengage Learning.
- Wellbeing. (n.d.). Wellbeing. In *Dictionary.com dictionary*. <https://www.dictionary.com/browse/wellbeing>
- Wilmer, H. H., Sherman, L. E., & Chein, J. M. (2017). Smartphones and cognition: A review of research exploring the links between mobile technology habits and cognitive functioning. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, 605. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00605>
- Windsor, M. (2020, March 28). Making your emotions work for you – and against Covid-19. *UAB News*. <https://www.uab.edu/news/health/item/11204-making-your-emotions-work-for-you-and-against-Covid-19>
- Windsor, T. D., Gerstorff, D., Pearson, E., Ryan, L. H., & Anstey, K. J. (2014). Positive and negative social exchanges and cognitive aging in young-old adults: Differential associations across family, friend, and spouse domains. *Psychology and Aging*, 29(1), 28. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0035256>
- Wood, S. (2008). Job characteristics, employee voice and wellbeing in Britain. *Industrial Relations Journal*, 39(2), 153–168. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2338.2007.00482.x>
- World Health Organisation (WHO). (2018). *Mental health*. World Health Organisation. http://www.who.int/mental_health/management/en/

- Yang, Y., & Mathew, T. (2017). The simultaneous assessment of normality and homoscedasticity in linear fixed effects models. *Journal of Statistical Theory and Practice*, 1–16. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15598608.2017.1320243>
- Yiyit, F. (2001). *Developing a scale for measuring the perceived self-efficacy of school psychological counselors* (Unpublished masters thesis). Çukurova University.
- Younas, S., Tahir, F., Sabih, F., Hussain, R., Hassan, A., Sohail, M., Hafa, S. Z. N., Munawar, A., Kanwal, R., Zahra, M., & Tanvir, M. (2020). Psychological capital and mental health: empirical exploration in perspective of gender. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 76(1). <https://doi.org/10.21506/j.ponte.2020.1.1>
- Youssef, C. M., & Luthans, F. (2007). Positive organizational behavior in the workplace: The impact of hope, optimism, and resilience. *Journal of Management*, 33(5), 774–800. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206307305562>
- Youssef-Morgan, C. M., & Luthans, F. (2015). Psychological capital and well-being. *Stress and Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2623>
- Youssef-Morgan, C. M., & Dahms, J. P. (2017). Developing psychological capital to boost work performance and wellbeing. In R. J. Burke & K. M. Page (Eds.), *Research handbook on work and wellbeing* (p. 332). Edward Elgar.
- Yu, P., Su, S., & Li, L. (2005). The relationships between college students' attributional style, self-efficacy and subjective wellbeing. *Chinese Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 13, 42–44.
- Zautra, A. J., Hall, J. S., & Murray, K. E. (2010). *Resilience: a new definition of health for people and communities*. In J. W. Reich, A. J. Zautra, & J. S. Hall (Eds.), *Handbook of adult resilience* (pp. 3–29). The Guilford Press.
- Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Roberts, R. D. (2004). Emotional intelligence in the workplace: A critical review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 53(3), 371–399.
- Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Roberts, R. D. (2012). The emotional intelligence, health, and wellbeing nexus: What have we learned and what have we missed? *Applied Psychology: Health and Wellbeing*, 4, 1–30. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1758-0854.2011.01062.x>

- Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Shemesh, D. O. (2016). Cognitive-social sources of wellbeing: Differentiating the roles of coping style, social support and emotional intelligence. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 17(6), 2481–2501. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-015-9703-z>
- Ze-Wei, M., Wei-Nan, Z., & Kai-Yin Ye. (2015). Gender differences in Chinese adolescents' subjective wellbeing: The mediating role of self-efficacy. *Psychological Reports*, 116(1), 311–321. <https://doi.org/10.2466/17.07.PR0.116k15w2>
- Zimek, A., Schubert, E., & Kriegel, H. P. (2012). A survey on unsupervised outlier detection in high-dimensional numerical data. *Statistical Analysis and Data Mining*, 5(5), 363–387. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sam.11161>
- Zubair, A., & Kamal, A. (2015). Work related flow, psychological capital, and creativity among employees of software houses. *Psychological Studies*, 60(3), 321–331. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12646-015-0330-x>

Appendix 1: UNISA Ethical Clearance



UNISA IOP ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

5 May 2020

Dear Ms Desiree Rudman

**Decision: Ethics Approval from
05 May 2020 to 05 May 2023**

NHREC Registration #: (if applicable)
ERC Reference : **2020_CEMS_IOP_011**
Name : Ms Desiree Rudman
Student #: 45809097
Staff #: NA

Researcher(s): Name: Ms Desiree Rudman
Address: P O Box 783347, Sandton City, 2146
E-mail address, telephone: drudman@ensafrica.com, 0722299529

Supervisor (s): Name: Prof Melinde Coetzee
E-mail address, telephone: Qetzm1@unisa.ac.za, 0835008621

Psychological resources as predictors of positive coping behaviour in the legal profession

Qualification: Masters (MCom) – Postgraduate degree

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance to the Unisa IOP Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for a period of 5 years.

The low risk application was reviewed by the IOP Research Ethics Review Committee on 5th May 2020 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The Ethics Application was approved on 5th May 2020. However, this approval has been granted with the provision that the following be rectified:

Page 1 (a. 2): Indicate NO in the box provided.

Section 2.1 (a): Indicate NO for quantitative research.

Section 2.2 (h): Indicate NO in the box provided.



University of South Africa
Pretorius Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA, 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

The proposed research may only commence with the provision that:

Section 2.6 + 4.8:

1. ***The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa COVID-19 Position Statement on research ethics dated 9 April 2020 which is attached.***
2. ***All data-gathering must adhere to and be aligned with restrictions applicable to the Government's current Lockdown Alert Levels.***
3. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
4. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee.
5. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
6. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
7. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
8. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
9. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date (05 May 2023). Submission of a complete research ethics progress report will constitute an application for the renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.



Note:

*The reference number **RudmanMD_2020_CEMS_IOP_011 Application (01)** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,



Signature

Acting Chair of IOP ERC

E-mail: olivibh@unisa.ac.za

Tel: (012) 429-8801

Signature

Executive Dean : CEMS

E-mail: mogalmt@unisa.ac.za

Tel: (012) 429-4805