

**THE WELL-BEING OF NON-PROFESSIONAL COUNSELLORS IN
SOUTH AFRICA.**

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FOR THE READER'S ATTENTION

The reader is reminded of the following:

- The dissertation follows the references and editorial style as prescribed by the *Publication Manual (5th ed.)* of the American Psychological Association (APA). This practice is in line with the policy of the Programme in Industrial Psychology at the North-West University to use APA in all scientific documents as from January 1999.
- The dissertation is submitted in the form of two research articles. The editorial style specified by the *South African Journal of Industrial Psychology* (which agrees largely with the APA style) is used, while the APA guidelines were followed in constructing tables.
- Each chapter of this dissertation has its own reference list.
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I pray that from his glorious, unlimited resources he will give you mighty inner strength through his Holy Spirit. And I pray that Christ will be more and more at home in your hearts as you trust in Him. May your roots go down deep into the soil of God's marvelous love. And may you have the power to understand, as all God's people should, how wide, how long, how high, and how deep His love really is. (Ephesians 3:16-18)

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SUMMARY

Title: The well-being of non-professional counsellors

Key words: Emotional intelligence, burnout, engagement, coping, counsellors, well-being

The utilization of non-professional counsellors is increasing as the number of HIV-positive South Africans increases, together with the levels of criminal violence in South Africa. Non-professional counsellors work with people that are distressed and counsel people that are coping with trauma. The promotion and protection of counsellors' well-being is vital. Counsellors have to attentively guide people and avoid or alleviate feelings of stress and prevent burnout caused by the counselling process. People who work in human services are more likely to experience stress due to close involvement and interaction with other people.

Emotional intelligence and coping can influence the well-being (burnout and engagement) of non-professional counsellors. Emotional intelligence may be crucial in helping counsellors work with different people and encourage their well-being. It is believed to assist in the conceptualisation of psychological well-being and can be applied as a means to successfully cope with demands and pressures of the environment.

The objective of this study was to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence, burnout, engagement and coping among non-professional counsellors in Gauteng and the North-West Province. A cross-sectional survey design was used. A non-probability convenience sample was taken from various institutions employing non-professional counsellors in Gauteng and the North-West Province ($N=172$). The Maslach Burnout Inventory, The Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) and The COPE Questionnaire (COPE) were administered. Cronbach alpha coefficients, Spearman-product correlation coefficients, Manovas (to determine

differences in demographical groups) and Multiple Regression analyses were used to analyse the data.

Principal component analysis resulted in a two factor model for emotional intelligence, namely: emotion appraisal and emotion utilisation. Regarding burnout, a two factor model was also extracted namely: emotional exhaustion and cynicism. The factor that was found for engagement was work engagement. A four factor model was found for coping namely: approach coping, avoidance, turning to religion and seeking emotional support.

The correlation coefficients indicated that emotional Exhaustion and avoidance were positively related to cynicism. Emotion appraisal was positively related to emotion utilisation, work engagement, approach coping and seeking emotional support. Emotion utilisation was positively related to approach coping and seeking emotional support. Furthermore, approach coping and seeking emotional support as coping strategies were positively related to each other. Turning to religion as coping strategy was positively related to seeking emotional support. Lastly, work engagement was positively related to emotion appraisal.

MANOVA analyses were used to determine any differences in the experience of emotional intelligence, coping, cynicism and emotional exhaustion indicated the following: No differences in emotional intelligence levels, cynicism, emotional exhaustion and work engagement could be found between gender and language groups, education levels and province. However, differences in coping strategies based on language groups and provinces were found. African language groups use avoidance and seeking emotional support more as coping strategies than Afrikaans language groups. Participants in the North-West province use avoidance more as a coping strategy than participants in Gauteng.

Multiple Regression analyses showed that emotional intelligence and coping predicted 16 % of the variance in work engagement, 17% of the variance explained in cynicism and 11% of the variance in emotional exhaustion.

Recommendations were made for non-professional counsellors and for future research purposes.

OPSOMMING

Titel: Die welstand van nie-professionele beraders

Sleutelterme: Emosionele intelligensie, uitbranding, begeestering, coping, beraders, welstand

Die benutting van nie-professionele beraders is aan die toeneem as gevolg die toename in die getalle HIV-positiewe Suid-Afrikaners en kriminele geweld in Suid-Afrika. Die nie-professionele beraders werk met mense wat angs ervaar en gee berading aan mense wat trauma moet hanteer. Die bevordering en beskerming van die berader se welstand is van uiterste belang. Die berader moet met aandag mense kan bystaan en die gevoelens van stres en uitbranding, wat veroorsaak word deur die beradingsproses, verminder en voorkom. Mense wat in die menslikehulpverleningsdienste werksaam is, ondervind meer stres as gevolg van die hoë betrokkenheid en interaksie met mense.

Emosionele intelligensie en coping kan die welstand (uitbranding en begeestering) van die nie-professionele berader beïnvloed. Emosionele Intelligensie mag van uiterse belang wees vir beraders se werk met verskillende mense, en om die welstand van beraders te verseker. Emosionele intelligensie word gesien as 'n nuttige konstruk vir die konseptualisering van psigologiese welstand en kan toegepas word om die eise en druk van die omgewing suksesvol te hanteer.

Die doel van hierdie studie was om die verband tussen emosionele intelligensie, uitbranding, begeestering en coping-strategieë van nie-professionele beraders in Gauteng en die Noord-Wes Provinsie te bepaal. 'n Nie-waarskynlikheidsgeskiktheidsteekproef is geneem uit verskeie instellings met nie-professionele beraders in diens in Gauteng en die Noord-Wes Provinsie ($N=172$). Die Maslach Uitbrandingsvraelys, die Emosionele Intelligensie Skaal (SEIS), die Utrecht Werksbegeestering vraelys en die COPE-vraelys is afgeneem. Cronbach alpha-koeffisiënte, Spearman-produkkorrelasiekoeffisiënte,

Manovas (om verskille tussen demografiese groepe te bepaal) en Meervoudige Regressie analises is gebruik om die data te analiseer.

Hoofkomponente-analise het gelei tot 'n tweefaktor-model van emosionele intelligensie, naamlik: emosie-beoordeling en emosie-benutting. By uitbranding is twee faktore onttrek, naamlik: emosionele uitputting en sinisme. Die faktor wat onttrek is vir begeestering is werksbegeestering. 'n Vierfaktor-model vir coping is gevind, naamlik: benader-coping, vermyding, wend-tot-godsdiens en die soeke na emosionele ondersteuning.

Die korrelasiekoëffisiënte het aangedui dat emosionele uitputting en vermyding positief korreleer met sinisme. Emosie-beoordeling korreleer positief met emosie-benutting, verbintenis, benader-coping en soeke na emosionele ondersteuning. Emosie-benutting is positief gekorreleer met benader-coping en soeke na emosionele ondersteuning. Benader-coping en soeke na emosionele ondersteuning korreleer positief met mekaar. Wend-tot-godsdiens korreleer positief met soeke na emosionele ondersteuning. Laastens is bevind dat werksbegeestering positief korreleer met emosie-beoordeling.

Manova-analise wat gebruik is om enige verskille in die ervaring van emosionele intelligensie, coping, sinisme en emosionele uitputting te bepaal, het op die volgende gedui: Geen verskille in emosionele intelligensievlakke, sinisme, emosionele uitputting en werksbegeestering kon gevind word op grond van geslag en taalgroepe, opvoedingsvlak en provinsie nie. Verskille is egter gevind in coping-strategie gebaseer op taalgroepe en provinsie. Afrika-taalgroepe gebruik meer vermyding en die soeke na emosionele ondersteuning as coping-strategie as Afrikaanssprekendes. Deelnemers in die Noord-Wes provinsie gebruik meer vermyding as coping-strategie as deelnemers in Gauteng.

Meervoudige regressie-analises het daarop gedui dat Emosionele intelligensie en Coping 16% van die variansie in Werksbegeestering, 17% van die variansie in Sinisme en 11% van die variansie in Emosionele Uitputting voorspel het.

Aanbevelings is gemaak vir die nie-profesionele berader en toekomstige navorsing.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation deals with the well-being of non-professional counsellors. In this chapter the motivation for the research is discussed in terms of the problem statement and the aims of the research. Thereafter the research method and division of chapters are discussed.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

From the perspective of a systems theory, counselling services is an open system that is in interaction with environmental forces (Harvey & Brown, 1992). Forces that have an influence on the counselling service in South Africa include the increasing number of people with HIV/AIDS, social health and the raised amount of people that suffer under violence. Therefore, non-professional counsellors are increasingly being called upon to assist survivors of violent crime, natural disasters, and childhood abuse (Figley, 1995; Pearlman & Saakvitne, 1995). Counsellors frequently work with people who are under stress or who are distressed. However, counselling them can itself be a highly stressful activity, and counsellors are by no means immune to pressure (McManus, Winder, & Gordon, 2002).

Counsellors who listen to reports of trauma, horror, human cruelty and extreme loss can be overwhelmed (Bakker, van der Zee, Lewig, & Dollard, 2006; Figley, 1995). They may begin to experience feelings of fear, pain and suffering similar to those of their clients, and to experience similar trauma symptoms such as intrusive thoughts, nightmares and avoidance, as well as changes in their relationships with the wider community, their colleagues, and their families (Bakker et al., 2006; Figley, 1995).

Working with survivors of traumatic accidents has been identified as particularly distressing for rehabilitation workers. Workers in this area have reported problems with performance guilt, overextension, frustration and anger (Buys & Kendall, 1998). The relief that comes from helping

in these circumstances can be elating, but can lead to frustration, excessive commitment to work and guilt about perceived inadequacies (Buys & Kendall, 1998).

Working with trauma victims over a period of time can thus have an impact on the psychological well-being of non-professional counsellors. Stress and burnout are therefore common reactions amongst counsellors (Collins & Long, 2003). In rehabilitation services, stress and burnout have been associated with poor work performance, high levels of absenteeism and frequent staff turnover. Although regular staff turnover has been linked to some beneficial effects for organisations, the process is usually extremely costly (Buys & Kendall, 1998).

An analysis of burnout at an institutional level will help counsellors to understand and appreciate the contextual stressors they confront. This will help them become more proactive to cope with stress (Buys & Kendall, 1998). Literature regarding stressful events suggests that individuals use a variety of coping strategies in most stressful situations (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980), and that these strategies relate to their psychological well-being (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987).

In this regard Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Härtel (2002) state that emotional intelligence (EI) interacts with perceived insecurity in affecting affective commitment and job-related tension. They also hold that emotional intelligence interacts with emotional reactions in affecting coping behaviour. The conclusion follows that burnout, coping and emotional intelligence will have an impact on the well-being of non-professional counsellors.

Burnout

If there is continuing periods of stress, burnout is usually a result (McManus, et al., 2002). For employees who work with people, burnout has been recognised as a serious threat. The burnout process is initiated by the experience of job stress (Hillhouse, 2000).

Freudenburg (1974) conceptualizes burnout as symptoms of emotional depletion and a loss of motivation and commitment among employees. Burnout is a syndrome of emotional exhaustion and cynicism that occurs frequently among individuals who do "people work" of some kind. It is

generally viewed as a syndrome consisting of three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and reduced personal accomplishment (Storm & Rothmann, 2003).

Emotional exhaustion represents the individual stress component of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) and refers to feelings of being overextended and depleted of emotional and physical resources (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). Cynicism entails a general indifferent, callous or cynical attitude towards the work (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). Burnout can be described as a reference to emotional exhaustion in reaction to pressures at work and the result is a negative reaction to stress in the workplace (Thornton, 1991).

The job demands that the counsellor is faced with, is a possible cause for burnout (Miller & Bor, 1991). These job demands include work schedules, work overload, under-staffing, lack of autonomy and power, deficient positive reinforcement, management issues, interpersonal relationships, ineffective social support systems, life events and maladaptive coping strategies (Cox, 1993; Kilfedder, Power, & Wells, 2001;).

Buys and Kendall (1998) suggest that burnout can be predicted with reference to particular characteristics of the counsellor that either buffer them against the effects of stress or increase their vulnerability. There are models suggesting that individuals who have high levels of self-esteem, supportive networks and who believe that they can manage their difficulties successfully are less likely to experience stress in the work place (Buys & Kendall, 1998).

According to Jackson, Rothmann and van der Vijver (2006), empirical studies confirm that burnout is related to health problems and turnover intentions, and that it mediates the relationship between job demands and health problems (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). Also, engagement mediates the relationship between job resources and turnover intentions (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007).

Personality and life experience are some of the individual characteristics that people have (i.e. coping strategies) that cause their responses to be more prone to stress. It is important for them to be able to manage their stress and learn to cope under extended periods of stress. If this can be

accomplished then burnout can be prevented (Dorz, Novara, Sisca, & Sanavio, 2002). In terms of individual characteristics that might protect them from experiencing burnout even in stressful work environments, most researchers have drawn on models of stress and coping, such as the one proposed by Folkman and Lazarus (1980).

According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), burnout and engagement are indicators of employees' wellness. Therefore burnout and work engagement can be integrated as one model (Rothmann, 2002). Furthermore, burnout is sometimes referred to as an erosion of engagement (Maslach et al., 2001).

Engagement

Engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigor (high levels of energy while working, willingness to invest effort in work and persistence in the face of difficulties), dedication (sense of enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge), and absorption (being happily engrossed in ones work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties detaching) (Schaufeli, Martinez, Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002).

Vigor and dedication are directly opposite to exhaustion and cynicism, spanning two underlying core dimensions (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2002). These two dimensions are work-related well-being:

- activation, ranging from exhaustion to vigor, and
- identification, ranging from cynicism to dedication (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli et al., 2002).

Gan, Yang, Yan and Zhang (2007) determine that coping alleviates the impact that stress has on engagement. Burnout and engagement offer different pathways to understand stress and corresponding interventions (Gan et al., 2007).

Coping

Coping has been a central part of work stress research since the 1960's. In the years that followed, coping research began to take off and the enthusiasm for exploring the role of coping in work stress research has continued unabated (Dewe, 2004). Coping is the person's cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage (reduce, minimize, master or tolerate) the internal and external demands of the person-environment transaction that is appraised as taxing or exceeding the person's resources (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986; Gueritault-Chalvin, Demi, Peterson & Kalichman, 2000). Folkman and Lazarus (1985) emphasize that an individual's coping responses will change depending on the changing person-environment relationship.

Coping strategies are often categorized into two groups: problem-focused and emotion-focused. Problem-focused strategies can be defined as activities used to change something about the situation or about oneself (Long, 1988; Payne, 2001) whereas emotion-focused strategies can be defined as activities used to manage or control one's feelings (Irion & Blanchard-Fields, 1987; Payne, 2001;).

Although mixed findings have been reported regarding relationships among coping strategies and psychological well-being, problem-focused coping strategies have typically been found to relate positively to various measures of psychological well-being (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000;) whereas certain emotion-focused strategies, such as wishful thinking and avoidance, have been found to relate negatively to psychological well-being (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Billings & Moos, 1981; Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000). Seeking-social-support, which is both problem-focused and emotion-focused, has also been found to relate positively to psychological and physical well-being (Cohen, 1991; Shoptaw, Stein, & Rawson, 2000;).

By exploring the importance of EI on workplace well-being, it outlines specific approaches to coping with work stress. Dewe (2004) argues that emotion management is a vital skill for counselling and guidance professionals. EI describes people's ability to perceive, understand, assimilate and regulate their emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Emotional Intelligence

According to Bar-on (2001), individuals with high levels of EI have several advantages over individuals with low EI. These advantages include emotional selfawareness, stress management, problem-solving, mood regulation, empathy and the ability to prevent distress from swamping one's ability to think clearly.

The construct of EI has received increasing attention in a variety of literature bases over the past several decades (Schutte et al., 1998). EI refers to the ability to process emotional information as it pertains to the perception, assimilation, expression, regulation, and management of emotion. EI is believed to encompass a variety of social and cognitive functions related to the expression of emotion (Schutte et al., 1998). Emotionally intelligent individuals are often described as well-adjusted, warm, genuine, persistent, and optimistic (Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined EI as the ability to detect and to manage emotional cues and information.

The abilities that make up EI - the perception of emotions, the regulation of affective states, and the use of emotional knowledge - have been hypothesized to relate to psychological adaptation (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Delineation of the particular psychological processes that constitute adaptation has important implications for applied psychology.

To summarize, EI is a somewhat enduring trait-like characteristic (Goleman, 1995; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It involves a set of mental abilities in which individuals employ higher-level processes regarding their feelings and mood-regulating strategies (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). EI is a better predictor of success in the social world than the traditional IQ construct (Goleman, 1995). Coping strategies, which are both problem-focused and emotion-focused, have also been found to relate positively to well-being (Cohen, 1991; Payne, 2001). Wellness serves a useful function as a means of describing a state that includes not just physical health, but emotional well-being. Although a relatively 'new' term, wellness is most often viewed in contrast to illness and disease, as representing the state of being healthy.

Ashkanasy, Haertel and Daus (2002) established that EI is negatively related to burnout. Therefore counsellors are more able to cope with burnout if they have EI abilities to manage their stress.

In this study the main research aim will be to investigate the well-being of the non-professional counsellor. More specifically, the following research questions emerge from the problem statement:

- How are the constructs of EI, burnout, engagement and coping conceptualised in literature?
- How valid and reliable are the measures of EI, burnout, engagement and coping for non-professional counsellors?
- What is the relationship between EI, burnout, engagement and coping of counsellors according to different demographical groups?
- Do EI and coping predict the well-being of counsellors?
- What recommendations can be made for future research regarding the wellness of non-professional counsellors?

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.2.1 General Objective

The general objective is to investigate the relationship between EI, burnout, engagement and coping of non-professional counsellors.

1.2.2 Specific Objectives

- To conceptualise EI, burnout, engagement and coping and the relationship between them from a literature review.
- To determine the validity and reliability of the measures of EI, burnout, engagement and coping for non-professional counsellors.

- To determine the relationship between EI, burnout, engagement and coping of counsellors according to different demographical groups.
- To determine if EI and coping predict the well-being of counsellors.
- To make recommendations for future research regarding the wellness of non-professional counsellors.

1.3 RESEARCH METHOD

The research method consists of a literature review and an empirical study. The results obtained will be presented in the form of two research articles.

1.3.1 Research design

A cross-sectional survey design will be used to collect data and attain the research goals. In cross-sectional research, researchers observe at one point in time (Neuman, 1997). Cross-sectional research is usually the simplest and least costly alternative. Its disadvantages are that it cannot capture social processes and change. Cross-sectional research can be exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory, but it is most consistent with a descriptive approach to research (Neuman, 1997). The survey is a data-collection technique in which questionnaires are used to gather data about an identified population. This design is also used to assess the interrelationship among variables within a population (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). The cross-sectional research design is best suited to address the descriptive and predictive functions associated with the correlational design, which examines relationships between variables.

1.3.2 Participants

The sample is taken from employees working within counselling services, rehabilitation institutions excreta. as non-professional counsellors. Non-probability samples are taken ($N=172$) from the North-West Province and Gauteng. A convenience sample is chosen purely on the basis of availability. Respondents are selected because they are accessible and articulate. Participants

are selected on the basis that they must in fact have some type of training, such as a course or a few hours of informal training, and they must have clients and be working directly with clients.

1.3.3 Measuring Instruments

The following questionnaires will be administered:

The Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1996) will be used to determine the level of burnout in participants. The MBI-GS has three subscales: Exhaustion, Cynism and Professional Efficacy. Together the subscales of the MBI-GS provide a three-dimensional perspective on burnout. Internal consistencies (Chronbach coefficient alpha) reported by Schaufeli and Buunk (1996) varied from 0,87 to 0,89 for Exhaustion, 0,73 to 0,84 for Cynism and 0,76 to 0,84 for Professional Efficacy. Test-retest reliabilities after one year were 0,65 (Exhaustion), 0,60 (Cynism) and 0,67 (Professional Efficacy) (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency-rating scale ranging from 0 (“never”), to 6 (“daily”). High scores on Exhaustion and Cynicism, and low scores on Professional Efficacy are indicative of burnout.

The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) assesses perception, understanding, expression, regulation and harnessing of emotions in the self and others. The brevity of the scale and its accumulating reliability and validity evidence makes this scale a reasonable choice for those who seek a brief self-report measure of global EI. The model of EI of Salovey and Mayer (1990) provides the conceptual foundation of the items used in this scale. A factor analysis of a larger pool of items suggested a one-factor solution of 33 items. The 33-item scale, showed good internal reliability with two different samples. The measure also showed evidence of predictive validity, where college students’ EI scores predicted their end-of-the-year grade average. Potential uses of this scale involve exploring the nature of EI, including the determinants of EI, the effects of emotional intelligence and whether EI can be enhanced (Schutte et al., 1998).

The COPE Questionnaire (COPE) (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989) will be used to determine participants' coping strategies. The COPE Questionnaire is a multidimensional coping questionnaire that indicates the different ways that people cope in different circumstances (Carver et al., 1989). It measures 13 different coping strategies. There are five subscales that measure different aspects of problem-focused coping: Active Coping (AC), Planning (P), Suppressing of Competing Activities (SCA), Restraint Coping (RC) and Seeking Social Support for Instrumental Reasons. Another five subscales measure aspects of emotionally focused coping: Seeking Social Support for Emotional Reasons, Positive Reinterpretation and Growth, Acceptance, Denial, Turning to Religion. Four subscales measure coping responses that are used less: Focus on and Venting of Emotions, Behavioural Disengagement, Mental Disengagement and Alcohol-Drug Disengagement (Carver et al., 1989). Carver et al. (1989) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients varying for Mental Disengagement that measures lower than 0,60. Test-retest reliability varies from 0,46 to 0,86 and from 0,42 to 0,89 (applied after two weeks).

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002) was used to measure the levels of work engagement of the participants. The UWES includes three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption, which is conceptually seen as the opposite of burnout and is scored on a seven-point frequency-rating scale, varying from 0 ("never") to 6 ("every day"). The questionnaire consists of 17 statements and includes statements like "I am bursting with energy every day in my work"; "Time flies when I am at work" and "My job inspires me". The alpha coefficients for the three subscales varied between 0,80 and 0,91. The alpha coefficient could be improved (α varies between 0,78 and 0,89 for the three sub-scales) by eliminating a few items without substantially decreasing the scale's internal consistency. Storm and Rothmann (2003) obtained the following alpha coefficients for the UWES in a sample of 2 396 members of the South African Police Service: Vigour: 0,78; Dedication: 0,89; Absorption: 0,78. Coetzer (2004) obtained the following alpha coefficients: Vigour (0,80); Dedication (0,87), and Absorption (0,69) among a sample of employees in an insurance company.

A questionnaire will be developed to gather information about the demographic characteristics of the participants.

1.3.4 Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis is carried out with the help of the SPSS-programme (SPSS Inc., 2003). Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) is used to analyse the data. Cronbach alpha coefficients are used to determine the internal consistency, homogeneity and unidimensionality of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Coefficient alpha contains important information regarding the proportion of variance of the items of a scale in terms of the total variance explained by that particular scale.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients are used to specify the relationships between the variables. In terms of statistical significance, it was decided to set the value at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0,05$). Effect sizes (Steyn, 1999) were used to determine the practical significance of the findings. A cut-off point of 0,30 medium effect (Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

A stepwise multiple regression analysis is conducted to determine the percentage variance in the dependent variables that is predicted by the independent variables. The effect size (which indicates practical significance) in the case of multiple regressions are given by the following formula (Steyn, 1999):

$$f^2 = R^2 / 1 - R^2$$

A cut-off point of 0,35 large effect (Steyn, 1999) was set for the practical significance.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) is used to determine the significance of differences between the levels of emotional intelligence, coping strategies, burnout and engagement. MANOVA tests whether or not mean differences among groups in a combination of dependent variables are likely to have occurred by chance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In MANOVA, a new dependent variable that maximises group differences is created from the set of dependent variables. Wilk's Lambda is used to test the likelihood of the data, on the assumption of equal population mean vectors for all groups, against the likelihood on the assumption that the

population mean vectors are identical to those of the sample mean vectors for the different groups.

1.4 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

- The measuring battery will be compiled and a letter requesting participation and motivation of the research will be included.
- Ethical aspects regarding the research will be adhered to, such as;
 - Gaining written permission to undertake the research
 - Being open and frank about the purpose of the research
 - Each participant will receive written information
 - Establishing trustworthiness
 - Establishing reciprocation with participants and giving feedback to the participants if requested
- The most important ethical issue to be addressed is confidentiality and each participant will be given the opportunity to complete the questionnaires anonymously.
- Participants will be informed that they will be free to withdraw from the project at any stage without having to justify their withdrawal.
- Participants will be given the telephone number of the researcher and they will be encouraged to ask questions at any stage about the project or the procedures.
- The project leader (being a clinical psychologist), will be mindful of any emotional re-experiencing of trauma during the wellness-intervention and will make herself (in the capacity as a psychologist), available to do individual counselling or refer the individual to a psychologist or other professional person if required.

1.5 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 2 discusses the psychometric properties of the EI Scale. The chapter also deals with the empirical study and the results obtained are offered in table form and discussed briefly. Chapter 3 deals with the well-being of non-professional counsellors. The study illustrates the relationship

between EI, burnout, engagement and coping in non-professional counsellors. The results obtained are given in table form and discussed briefly. Chapter 4 concludes with a discussion, and indicates the limitations of and recommendations from this study.

1.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the problem statement and research objectives. This was followed by an explanation of the measuring instruments and research method used in this research study. Lastly, it included a brief overview of the chapters. In Chapter 2 the first research article will be presented.

**In this study the abbreviation EI will refer to emotional intelligence.*

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CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH ARTICLE 1

THE PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF AN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MEASURE WITHIN NON-PROFESSIONAL COUNSELLORS

ABSTRACT

The objective of this study is to determine the psychometric properties of the Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) in a sample of non-professional counsellors. A cross-sectional survey design with non-probability availability sample ($N = 172$) was used. Employees were targeted in various counselling services, rehabilitation services, and trauma centres in the Gauteng and North-West Provinces. Factor Analyses, Cronbach alpha coefficients, Spearman-product correlation coefficients and MANOVAS were used to analyse the data. The results showed a two-factor solution for the SEIS. The two scales showed satisfactory internal consistency.

OPSOMMING

Die doelstelling van die studie was om die psigometriese eienskappe van die Emosionele Intelligensie Skaal (SEIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) te bepaal in 'n steekproef van nie-professionele beraders. 'n Dwarsnedeopname-ontwerp is gebruik met 'n nie-waarskynlikheidsbeskikbaarheid-steekproefneming ($N = 172$). Werknemers in verskeie beradingsdienste, rehabilitasiedienste en traumasentrums is geteiken in Gauteng en die Noord-Wes Provinsies. Faktoranalise, Cronbach alpha-koëffisiënte, Spearman-produk-moment-korrelasie-koëffisiënte en MANOVAS is gebruik om die data te ontleed. Die resultate het gedui op 'n twee-faktor oplossing vir die SEIS. Die twee skale het bevredigende interne konsekwentheid gewys.

South African counsellors are faced with various stressors, including the diverse multi-cultural country we live in, as well as the information and global economy age in which we find ourselves (Ortlepp & Friedman, 2002). Apart from this, levels of criminal violence in South Africa have increased exponentially in the last few years and counsellors aim to assist clients in coming to terms with involvement in violence (Blair, 1991). Counsellors recognize that the world is changing rapidly, simply from problems that clients are bringing to the counselling encounter. Increasingly, counsellors are being called upon to assist survivors of violent crime, natural disasters, childhood abuse and people living with HIV (Figley, 1995).

The utilization of non-professional counsellors is mainly due to the high number of HIV-positive South Africans. Counselling has long been recognized as playing an important role both in the prevention of HIV infection and in the provision of care and emotional support for those infected and affected by the disease (Richter, van Rooyen, Soloman, Griesel, & Durrheim, 2000).

In October 1992, ten (10) years after the first scientific paper on HIV/AIDS appeared in South Africa (Griesel & Mambo, 2000), a formal consultative process began that culminated in a national plan to deal with the HIV/AIDS epidemic. In the year following the 1994 elections the National Aids plan was adopted by the Minister of Health and six components were formulated, namely: education and prevention, counselling, care for people living with HIV/AIDS, provision of welfare services, human rights and research (Richter et al., 2000). With the change in funding from central to provincial budgets, and the continued association with the HIV/AIDS prevention efforts of the apartheid Government, reduced resources have severely affected the services of lay counselling (Richter et al., 2000).

Counsellors thus typically work with people who are under stress or who are distressed. But counselling them can in itself be a highly stressful activity and counsellors are by no means immune to pressure (McManus, Winder, & Gordon, 2002). Figley (1995, p. 1) noted, *'there is a cost to caring'*. Traditional counselling training does not generally equip counsellors to deal with massive trauma and its long-term effects (Danieli, 1994).

When one person counsels another from a perspective outside of the counselling profession (i.e., without specific educational credentials in counselling psychology), that person is a “non-professional” counsellor. This person can serve effectively as non-professional counsellor provided he/she:

1. Has a basic understanding of the theoretical and experiential paradigms that counselling is based on (Popp & Hackett, 2002);
2. Is sensitive to the comprehensive needs and experiences of individuals (Popp & Hackett, 2002); and,
3. Is willing to address concerns beyond the scope of his/her professional discipline (Popp & Hackett, 2002).

Counsellors who listen to reports of coping with disease, trauma, horror, human cruelty and extreme loss can be overwhelmed (Bakker, van der Zee, Lewig, & Dollard, 2006). They may begin to experience feelings of fear, pain and suffering similar to those of their clients, and to experience similar trauma symptoms such as intrusive thoughts, nightmares and avoidance, as well as changes in their relationships with the wider community, their colleagues, and their families (Bakker et al., 2006; Figley, 1995;). Indicators of negative well-being have been reported by caregivers in a number of studies (Butler & Constantine, 2005; Hodgkinson & Shepherd, 1994; Richter et al., 2000).

Resignation due to these stressors can result in high staff turn-over. Loss of experienced and skilled counsellors can necessitate additional problems when training new counsellors (Morehouse, 2007; Neumann & Gamble, 1995; Pearlman & Mac Ian, 1995).

When replacing more experienced non-professional counsellors with inexperienced non-professional counsellors, the organisation must contend with the fact that these novices are in turn likely to suffer from stress more and to require more support and supervision compared to their more experienced colleagues (Morehouse, 2007; Neumann & Gamble, 1995; Pearlman & Mac Ian, 1995).

Furthermore, there is likely to be loss of energy, commitment and optimism among counsellors in general, with a consequent depressing effect on the counselling climate and culture. Reports of stress when counselling people living with HIV/AIDS re-emphasized the need to mentor and support counsellors in order to maintain motivation, reduce stress and burnout and sustain a high quality service (Grinstead & van der Straten, 2000).

An abundance of literature has documented the high levels of stress associated with the environment in which human services (specifically in the health-sector) generally work. Some examples of the literature are as follows:

- Ortlepp and Friedman (2002) reported on the prevalence and correlates of secondary traumatic stress in workplace lay trauma counsellors.
- Humpel, Caputi, and Martin (2001) studied the relationship between emotions and stress among mental health nurses.
- Payne (2001) documented occupational stressors and coping as determinants of burnout in female Hospice nurses.
- Rowe (1997) examined hardiness, stress, temperament, coping, and burnout among health professionals.
- Gueritault-Chalvin, Demi, Peterson, and Kalichman (2000) reported on work-related stress and occupational burnout in HIV/AIDS caregivers.

Counsellors are better able to manage stress if they have the ability to perceive and manage emotions in the self and others (Ashkanasy, Haertel, & Daus, 2002; Humpel et al., 2001; Pau, Croucher, Sohanpal, Muirhead, & Seymour, 2004;). An advantage that emotional intelligence brings to the counselling profession is that the presence of high levels of emotional intelligence may be crucial in helping them work with people from a range of cultural backgrounds (Constantine & Gainor, 2001). In this study the abbreviation EI will refer to emotional intelligence.

EI is often the key to good relationships with other people (Carter, 2002). EI is a vital factor in determining one's ability to succeed in life and is said to directly influence one's psychological well-being and emotional health (Bar-On, 1996). According to Goleman (1995) people with EI

are able to increase self-esteem, and improve self-care and work performance. Researchers found that emotion management may be related to healthy and constructive behaviour at the workplace (Meyer, Fletcher & Parker, 2004). EI plays a significant role in certain aspects of affective team leadership and team performance (Weisinger, 1998). Goleman (1998) stated that EI is twice as important as technical skills and more important than IQ for success in jobs at all levels.

A considerable amount of literature advocates for EI as a key component on which human resource professionals and organisations must focus (Morehouse, 2007). Counsellors would thus benefit from EI measurement and intervention. There is an increasing focus on effective practices for staff recruitment and hiring, for training and promotion and for retention of outstanding performers (Morehouse, 2007). The importance of conducting these practices effectively is underscored by the growing costs related to sophisticated recruitment techniques and the cost of promoting someone with inadequate skills (Morehouse, 2007).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) define EI as the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

EI is viewed much like verbal or spatial intelligence, except that it operates on, and with, emotional content. EI has been found to be positively correlated with variables such as empathy, verbal intelligence, extraversion, openness to feelings, self-esteem, and life satisfaction (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000; Schutte et al., 1998). The theory of EI views emotions as an evolved signal system, where each emotion denotes a particular relationship within oneself or with the outside world (Lazarus, 1994; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000;).

Some conceptualizations of EI are rather broad and include a range of adaptive characteristics associated with emotions (e.g., the ability to effectively communicate emotions; Goleman, 1995),

whereas other conceptualizations of EI (Mayer et al., 2000) emphasize the cognitive elements, such as emotions aiding judgment and memory.

Furthermore, researchers have conceptualized EI both as ability and as a trait (Goleman, 1995; Mayer et al., 2000; Schutte & Malouff, 1998). In an attempt to understand the disparate approaches better, there are two alternative conceptions of EI: ability models and mixed-models (Mayer et al., 2000).

Ability Models of Emotional Intelligence

Ability models place EI within the sphere of an intelligence, in which emotion and thought interact in meaningful and adaptive ways (Mayer et al., 2000).

Salovey and Mayer (1990, p. 189) defined EI as "*the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action*".

This conceptualization was followed by several models of EI (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Petrides & Furnham, 2001) and by an increasing number of empirical studies. EI carries multiple meanings and connotations. Salovey and Mayer's original ability model was concerned with specific skills that were likely to make up the intelligence and included reference to neurophysiology as well (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

According to Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey (2002) EI must measure something unique and distinct from standard personality traits, if it is to be of importance. Caruso et al. (2002) stated that the ability model of EI centres on a person's skill in recognizing emotional information and carrying out abstract reasoning using this emotional information (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004) argued that EI is best interpreted as ability, similar to cognitive intelligence. Aligned with this conceptualization they developed first the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999) and then, the Mayer–

Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003).

These above scales are based on an intelligence model of EI in which the overall intelligence is divided into four areas or branches.

The *first branch* of the ability model is Identifying Emotions. This branch includes a number of skills such as the ability to identify feelings, express emotions accurately, and differentiate between real and false emotional expressions (Caruso et al., 2002).

The *second branch*, Emotional Facilitation of Thought (or Using Emotions), includes the ability to use emotions to redirect attention to important events, to generate emotions that facilitate decision making, to use mood swings as a means to consider multiple points of view, and harness different emotions to encourage different approaches to problem solving (Caruso et al., 2002).

The *third branch*, Understanding Emotions, is the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional “chains”, how emotions transition from one stage to another, the ability to recognize the causes of emotions, and the ability to understand relationships among emotions (Caruso et al., 2002).

The *fourth branch* of the ability model is Managing Emotions. Managing Emotions includes the ability to stay aware of one's emotions, even those that are unpleasant, the ability to determine whether an emotion is clear or typical, and the ability to solve emotion-laden problems without necessarily suppressing negative emotions (Caruso et al., 2002).

The ability model of emotional intelligence has given rise to different measurements to measure emotional intelligence as an ability. Table 1 presents a summary of ability EI measures, along with a brief description of the measurement.

Table 1*Measures of Ability Emotional Intelligence (Van der Merwe, 2005, pp. 25-29)*

Emotional Intelligence Measurement	Description of the Measurement
A. Emotional Accuracy Research Scale (EARS) developed by Mayer and Geher (1996)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Internal consistencies: low internal consistencies were reported by Mayer and Geher (1996), with target scoring having an internal consistency of $\alpha = 0,24$ and consensus scoring an $\alpha = 0,53$. However, a further study conducted indicated that internal consistencies could be increased if some items of the measure were deleted ($\alpha = 0,75$ for target scoring and $\alpha = 0,80$ for consensus scoring) (van der Merwe, 2005). ▪ Discriminant and convergent validities: Small and unstable correlations with self-report empathy.
B. Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) developed by Mayer et al. (1999)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Sub-scales include: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ability to perceive, 2. assimilate, 3. understand, and 4. manage one's own emotions and that of others. ▪ Makes use of consensus scoring. Legree (1995) states that the judgments of experts are equivalent to those of non-experts, except for the fact that the non-experts will be less consistent and therefore less reliable.
C. Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) developed by Mayer et al., (2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Consists of 141 items to which the participant responds on a five-point Likert scale (1= no happiness; 5 = extreme happiness). ▪ Sub-scales include: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> i. Emotional Management ($\alpha = 0,82$)

ii. Emotional Understanding ($\alpha = 0,73$)

iii. Emotional Interpretation ($\alpha = 0,76$)

iv. Emotional Perception ($\alpha = 0,87$)

(Mayer, et al., 2003).

- Full scale split half reliability ranging from $r = 0,91$ to $r = 0,93$.
- Full scale internal consistency of $\alpha = 0,92$.
- Excellent face validity and good content validity (Mayer et al, 2003).

Low or non-significant correlation with personality (Day & Carrol, 2004).

The first scales under the name "emotional intelligence" date to 1990, with more substantial EI scales being those employing multiple tasks and sophisticated scoring (Mayer, Perkins, Caruso, & Salovey, 2001). Two such tests, the Multi-factor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) and the companion adolescent version (MEIS-A), have provided considerable information about emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 1999).

Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Bar-On's (2000) mixed model proposes that EI consists of emotional self-awareness, as well as various skills or characteristics that may stem from the effective use or regulation of emotions, such as good interpersonal relationships, problem solving, and stress tolerance.

Mixed models blend various aspects of personality in what is often a theoretical manner (Caruso et al., 2002). Mixed models have been operationalized in self-report measures (Bar-On, 1997) or observer ratings such as 360-degree assessments (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000).

EI has been conceptualized as a trait (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005; Petrides & Furnham, 2001), similar to personality characteristics such as extraversion or conscientiousness.

A trait, or typical functioning, conceptualization and measurement of EI can be applied to a mixed model definition of EI such as the one proposed by Bar-On (2000), and operationalised through the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) (Bar-On, 1997), to a narrower definition such

as the one originally proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990), operationalised through the Assessing Emotions measure developed by Schutte et al. (1998), or to aspects of this earlier Salovey and Mayer definition, operationalised through the Trait Meta Mood Scale (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995).

Table 2 presents a summary of Trait EI measures, along with a brief description of the measurement.

Table 2

Measures of Trait Emotional Intelligence (Van der Merwe, 2005, pp. 25-29)

Emotional Intelligence Measurement	Description of the Measurement
A. Trait Meta Mood Scale (TMMS) developed by Salovey et al., (1995)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A self-report measure consisting of 45 items, with several reversed-keyed items.. ▪ Makes use of a five-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree), with a high score indicating a high level of EI. ▪ Sub-scales include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Attention to feelings ($\alpha = 0,86$) ii. Clarity of feelings ($\alpha = 0,87$) iii. Mood repair ($\alpha = 0,82$) (Salovey et al., 1995). ▪ Full-scale internal consistency of $\alpha = 0,82$ (Salovey et al., 1995). ▪ Distinct from the Big Five Personality Dimensions' Extroversion and Neurotism (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Salovey et al., 1995).
B. Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) developed by Bar-On (1997)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Self-report questionnaire that consists of 133 items. ▪ Respondents indicate the degree to which the statements describe them on a five-point scale (1 = not true for me, 5 = true for me). ▪ Scales consist of five broader concept components: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Intrapersonal EQ

C. Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS)
developed by Schutte et al. (1998)

- ii. Interpersonal EQ
 - iii. Adaption EQ
 - iv. Stress Management EQ and
 - v. General Mood EQ,
along with 15 sub-scales.
 - Convergent or discriminant validities:
Moderate to high correlations with the Big Five.
 - Total internal consistency of $\alpha = 0,96$.
 - 33-item self-report measure.
 - Respond on a five-point scale (1 = strongly agree, 5 = strongly disagree).
 - Sub-scales:
 - i. Appraisal and expression of emotions in self and others.
 - ii. Regulation of emotions in self and others.
 - iii. Utilization of emotions in solving problems.
 - Two-week test-retest reliability ($r = 0,78$).
 - Internal consistency ranging from $\alpha = 0,87$ to $\alpha = 0,90$.
 - Measure is related to theoretically related constructs such as alexithymia, mood repair, optimism and impulse control.
 - Consists of 52 items.
 - Respond on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).
 - Scales:
 1. Ability to deal with your own emotions
 2. Ability to deal with others' emotions
 3. Ability to use emotions to assist in problem- solving and decision-making (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).
-

D. Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (Version 3) (WEIP-3) developed by Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel & Hooper (2002)

Observer ratings, such as those provided by the Emotional Competency Inventory (Boyatzis et al., 2000), as well as self-report measures have been used to assess trait EI. It should be noted that developers of scales such as the EQ-i (Bar-On, 2000) do not necessarily describe their measures as trait measures; instead they describe them as measures of skills or competencies.

As indicated in Tables 1 and 2, researchers have constructed a series of scales to measure EI (Mayer et al., 1999; Mayer & Geher, 1996). However, a limitation concerning EI research is the lack of scientifically stable, objective measures of the EI construct. The key issues appear to be (a) whether EI can be operationalised; (b) whether reliable EI tests can be constructed; (c) whether EI is a new construct, and can be differentiated from existing personality trait models; (d) what EI predicts and the level of such prediction; and (e) how to determine correct answers for such tests (Caruso et al., 2002).

A review of early measures of EI concluded that "*objective measures of emotional intelligence suffer from poor reliability*" and went on to state that possible improvements would depend on "*complex and arduous*" work (Davies et al., 1998, p. 1013).

According to Davies et al. (1998), little remains of EI that is unique and psychometrically sound. Indeed, two widely used self-report measures of EI do overlap substantially with personality measures, namely the Bar-On EQ-i and the SEIS (Bar-On, 1997; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Schutte et al., 1998). The positive side of EI measurement is that EI test items can be operationalised in such a fashion that there are more-or-less correct answers (Mayer et al., 2004). EI shows specific patterns of correlations similar to those of known intelligences (Mayer et al., 2004).

An equally important focus at this point, however, is on what EI predicts and what the highly emotional intelligent person is like (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002). Research scales help to address such issues.

Measurements issues also revolve around what an EI measure is and what it's not. One school of thought is that for tests of EI to be considered true tests of intelligence, they must have answers

that can be evaluated as more or less correct (eg. MSCEIT) (Mayer et al., 2004). According to the ability approach, several methods can be employed to determine the correctness of an answer and one such method uses the general consensus of test-takers (Mayer et al., 2004). According to theory of EI, the general consensus should identify the optimal answer to many EI questions (Mayer et al., 2004). A second method for evaluating the correctness of test responses is according to an expert criterion in which experts judge the correct answers to a test and that method, too, showed promise in initial studies (Mayer et al., 2004). Recently, however, some researchers noted that expert scoring, created scores that were unsettlingly different from general scoring (Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001).

The dilemma with issues regarding EI measurement has thus lead to researchers exploring the validity and internal consistency of a variety of measures (Barchard & Christensen, 2007; Chapman & Hayslip, 2005; Gignac, Palmer, Manocha, & Stough, 2005; Goldenberg, Matheson, & Mantler, 2006; Tett & Fox, 2006). The issue of reliability for tests of EI is known to be a practical as well as an applied issue. The practical issue is developing item types that result in a more reliable task. If this proves to be difficult, the applied issue becomes whether one would find a 71-item subtest too long for test takers to complete. Alternatively, one could only report reliable scores (Caruso et al., 2002). There also exists a need for a more simplified and more cost effective measure of EI (Jonker, 2002).

One example of such a simplified measure that can be used for research purposes is the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) (Schutte et al., 1998). A number of researchers have used the SEIS in EI research (Carmeli & Josman, 2006; Dimitriadis, 2007; Tapia & Marsh, 2006).

Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS)

Schutte et al. (1998) developed and validated a self-report scale within the trait EI framework that allegedly measures a homogeneous construct of EI. Schutte et al. (1998) used a principal components analysis followed by a varimax rotation to analyse an original pool of 62 items. Four principal components was extracted and subsequently rotated orthogonally to a simple structure (Schutte et al., 1998).

The SEIS (Schutte et al., 1998) comprises of 33 items, three of which (5, 28, and 33) are reverse-scored, and which load on one factor, with the total variance explained by 17,4%. Participants reply on a Likert scale and a total score is derived by summing up the item responses (Petrides & Furnham, 1999). Internal consistency reliabilities in the validation sample ranged 0,87 to ,0 and a test-retest reliability coefficient of ,78 was computed (Schutte et al., 1998)

The 33 items of the final version of the test ostensibly came from all three subcategories of Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original EI model (Petrides & Furnham, 1999). The 33-item scale showed good internal reliability with two different samples. The SEIS is reported to have good discriminant validity and the measure also showed evidence of predictive validity, where college students' EI scores predicted their end-of-the-year grade average (Schutte et al., 1998). The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte et al., 1998) assesses perception, understanding, expression, regulation and harnessing of emotion in the self and others.

The brevity of the scale and its and its accumulating reliability and validity evidence makes this scale a reasonable choice for those who are seeking a brief self-report measure of global EI (Schutte et al., 1998). The model of EI of Salovey and Mayer (1990) provides the conceptual foundation of the items used in this scale. Potential uses of this scale involve exploring the nature of EI, including the determinants of EI, the effects of EI and whether EI can be enhanced (Schutte et al., 1998).

International research on the Schutte emotional intelligence scale indicated the following. Petrides and Furnham (2001) identified a four-factor solution explaining 40,4% of the total variance. Petrides and Furnham's (2001) four-factor structure matched the factor solution of Saklofske, Austin and Minski (2003) who identified a one-factor solution that explained 23% of the total variance and a four-factor solution explaining 40% of the variance. Both Petrides and Furnham (2001) and Saklofske et al. (2003) labelled the factors: optimism/mood regulation, appraisal of emotions, social skills and utilisation of emotions. Differences in item loadings and classifications were found in the four-factor structure imitated by Ciarrochi, Deane and Anderson (2002).

In South Africa only two studies regarding the psychometric properties of the SEIS has been done. Van der Merwe (2005) found a five-factor structure explaining 50,04% of the total variance. The five factor structure of van der Merwe (2005) was labelled: positive state, own emotions, negative emotions, emotions of others and emotional management. Vosloo (2005) found a six-factor solution that explained 45,25% of the total variance and which was labelled; positive affect, emotion-others, happy emotions, emotions-own, non-verbal emotions and emotional management. Vosloo (2005) used students of the Economic Sciences Faculty of a Higher Education Institution as her study population while van der Merwe (2005) used a nursing population. According to van der Merwe (2005) the study populations used could be a possible reason for the differing factor solutions for the two studies conducted in South Africa.

The objective of this study was to investigate the psychometric properties of the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) developed by Schutte et al. (1998) for non-professional counsellors in the North-West Province and Gauteng: South Africa. The psychometric soundness of the SEIS was tested. Specific objectives include determining the validity and internal consistency of the SEIS. A valid and reliable measure of EI could be valuable in the counselling profession to identify specific EI needs that could be developed through the implementation of EI development programmes.

The above-mentioned discussion leads to the following hypotheses.

H₁: The SEIS (Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale) is a valid measure of EI in a sample of non-professional counsellors.

H₂: The SEIS (Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale) is a reliable measure of EI in a sample of non-professional counsellors.

H₃: There are differences in the level of EI regarding different demographical groups including gender, language, education, and province.

METHOD

Research design

A cross-sectional survey design is used to collect data and attain the research goals. In cross-sectional research, researchers observe at one point in time (Neuman, 1997). Cross-sectional research is usually the simplest and least costly alternative. Its disadvantages are that it cannot capture social processes and change. Cross-sectional research can be exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory, but it is most consistent with a descriptive approach to research (Neuman, 1997). The survey is a data-collection technique in which questionnaires were used to gather data about an identified population. This design was also used to assess interrelationship among variables within a population (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). The cross-sectional research design was best suited to address the descriptive and predictive functions associated with the correlational design according to which relationships between variables are examined.

Participants

The sample ($N=172$) of non-professional counsellors were selected. The criteria to be included was that the participants required some type of training, such as a course or a few hours of informal training, and they must have clients and be working directly with clients. The sampling method that was used is non-probability sampling or convenience sampling. A convenience sample is chosen purely on the basis of availability. Respondents are selected because they are accessible and articulate.

Table 3

Characteristics of Participants (n = 172)

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	20-29	68	39,5
	30-39	60	34,8
	40-49	26	15,1
	50-69	11	6,5
	Missing values	7	4,1

Gender	Male	35	20,3
	Female	135	78,5
	Missing values	2	1,2
Marital status	Single	105	61,0
	Engaged	13	7,6
	Married	42	24,5
	Divorced	5	2,9
	Separated	3	1,7
	Missing values	4	2,3
	Province	Gauteng	53
North West		109	63,4
Missing values		10	5,8
Education/ Qualification	Grade 10 and lower	7	4,1
	Grade 11	36	20,9
	Grade 12	109	63,4
	Diploma	8	4,6
	Degree	7	4,0
	Post Degree	1	0,6
	Missing values	4	2,3
	Language	Afrikaans	18
English		16	9,3
African Languages		136	84,7
Missing values		2	1,2

Table 3 shows that the majority of participants were single females (78,5%) between the ages of 20 and 29 (39,5%) with a Grade 12 (63,4%). A total of 63,4% resides in the North-West Province and the most spoken language is Setswana (52,9%).

Measuring battery

The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) assesses perception, understanding, expression, regulation and harnessing of emotions in the self and others. The brevity of the scale and its accumulating reliability and validity evidence makes this scale a reasonable choice for those who seek a brief self-report measure of EI. The model of EI of Salovey and Mayer (1990) provides the conceptual foundation of the items used in this scale. A factor analysis of a larger pool of items suggested a one factor solution of 33 items. The 33-item scale showed good internal reliability with two different samples. The measure also showed

evidence of predictive validity, where college students' EI scores predicted their end-of-the-year grade average. Potential uses of this scale involve exploring the nature of EI, including the determinants of EI, the effects of EI and whether EI can be enhanced (Schutte et al., 1998).

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out with the help of the SPSS-programme (SSPS Inc., 2003). Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) was used to analyse the data. Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to determine the internal consistency, homogeneity and multidimensionality of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Coefficient alpha contains important information regarding the proportion of variance of the items of a scale in terms of the total variance explained by that particular scale.

Spearman product-moment correlation coefficients were used (because of high skewness and kurtosis of some of the scales) to specify the relationships between the variables. In terms of statistical significance, it was decided to set the value at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0,05$). Effect sizes (Steyn, 1999) were used to determine the practical significance of the findings. A cut-off point of 0,30 medium effect, (Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine the significance of differences between the level of emotional intelligence, coping strategies and health of demographic groups. MANOVA tests whether or not mean differences among groups in a combination of dependent variables are likely to have occurred by chance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In MANOVA, a new dependent variable that maximises group differences was created from the set of dependent variables. Wilk's Lambda is used to test the likelihood of the data on the assumption of equal population mean vectors for all groups, against the likelihood on the assumption that the population mean vectors are identical to those of the sample mean vectors for the different groups.

RESULTS

A principal component factor analysis was performed on the 33 items of the SEIS on the total sample of non-professional counsellors in the North-West and Gauteng provinces. Analysis of the eigen values (larger than 1) and the scree plot (*Figure 1*) indicated that two factors could be extracted, explaining 27,67% of the total variance. Next, a principal axis factor analysis was followed using a direct oblimin rotation to perform further factor analysis.

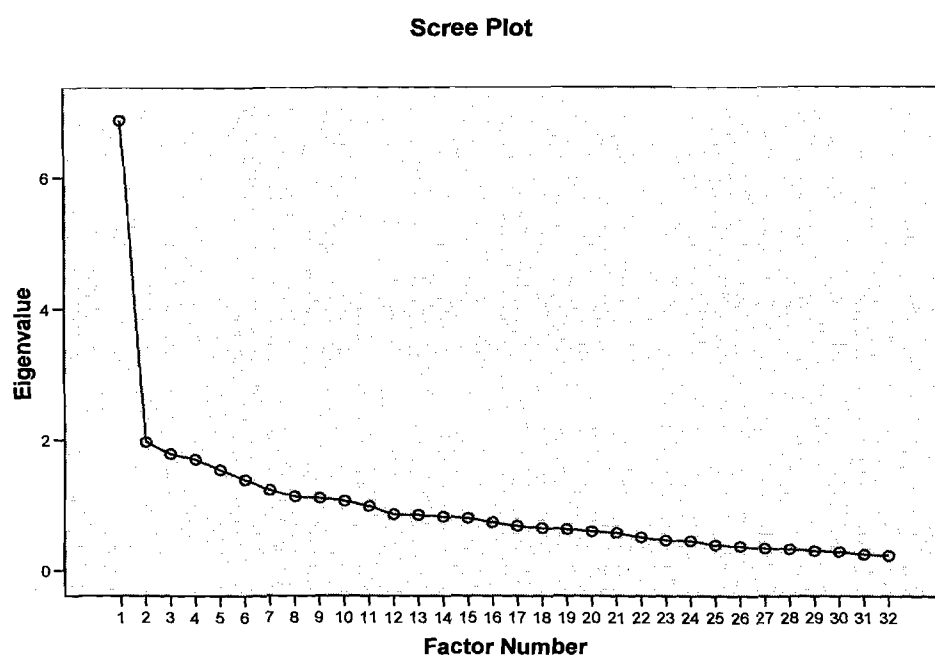


Figure 1. Factor analysis: Scree plot SEIS

The results of the factor analysis on the SEIS are indicated in Table 4. The loading of variables on factors, as well as communalities and percentage of variance, is indicated. Variables are ordered and grouped by size of loading to facilitate interpretation. Labels for each factor are suggested in a footnote.

Table 4

Factor Loadings, Communalities (h²), Percentage and Covariance for Principal Factor Extraction and Varimax Rotation on SEIS items.

Item	F1	F2	h ²
2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them	0,68	0,00	0,39
1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others	0,57	0,00	0,40
6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important	0,52	0,00	0,23
25. I am aware of non-verbal messages other people send	0,52	0,00	0,32
24. I compliment others when they have done something well	0,52	0,00	0,36
14. I seek out activities that make me happy	0,49	0,00	0,29
19. I know why my emotions change	0,46	0,00	0,26
12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last	0,46	0,00	0,24
23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on	0,43	-0,30	0,39
15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others	0,42	0,00	0,23
18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognise the emotions people are experiencing	0,40	0,00	0,19
9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them	0,39	0,00	0,20
28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail	0,36	0,00	0,11
11. I like to share my emotions with others	0,34	0,00	0,19
3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try	0,31	0,00	0,25
4. Other people find it easy to confide in me	0,30	0,00	0,10
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas	0,00	-0,65	0,38
26. When another person tells me about an important event in his/her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself	0,00	-0,55	0,33
31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles	0,00	-0,46	0,35
17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me	0,00	-0,44	0,25
10. I expect good things to happen	0,00	-0,41	0,20
20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas	0,00	-0,40	0,20
30. I help other people feel better when they are down	0,00	-0,40	0,27
21. I have control over my emotions	0,00	-0,37	0,23
22. I easily recognise my emotions as I experience them	0,00	-0,37	0,25
16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others	0,00	-0,36	0,27
32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice	0,00	-0,33	0,14
Variance explained	21,50%	6,15%	

F₁ Emotion Appraisal, F₂ Emotion Utilisation

Two factors were extracted accounting for 27,67% of the total variance in the data. Variables were reasonably well-defined by this factor solution. Communality values, as seen in Table 4, tend to be moderate. With a cut-off of 0,30 for inclusion of a variable in interpretation of a factor, 6 of the 33 items did not load on the two factors.

The first factor was labelled *Emotion Appraisal* and is explained as the expression of emotion such as being aware of non-verbal messages people send, sharing emotions with others, knowing when to express personal emotions and complimenting others when they have done something well. The first factor, *Emotion Appraisal*, coincides with the first branch of the ability model namely identifying emotions. This includes a number of skills, such as the ability to identify feelings, express emotions accurately, and differentiate between real and false emotional expressions (Caruso et al., 2002).

The second factor was labelled *Emotion Utilisation* and was related to using emotions, such as expecting good things to happen, coming up with new ideas when in a good mood, recognising and controlling emotions. The second factor, *Emotional Utilisation*, corresponds with the second branch of the ability model, *Emotion Facilitation of Thought* (or Using Emotions). This includes the ability to use emotions to redirect attention to important events, to generate emotions that facilitate decision making, to use mood swings as a means to consider multiple points of view, and harness different emotions to encourage different approaches to problem solving (Caruso et al., 2002).

Hypothesis 1 is therefore accepted.

The descriptive statistics and alpha coefficients of the two factors of the SEIS are indicated in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics and Alpha coefficients of the measuring instruments

Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
Emotional Intelligence					
Emotion Appraisal	75,74	11,12	-0,76	0,92	0,81
Emotion Utilisation	52,70	7,97	-0,74	0,94	0,77

Table 5 indicates that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients for the two factors of EI namely Emotional Appraisal ($\alpha = 0,81$) and Emotion Utilisation ($\alpha = 0,77$). This demonstrated that a large proportion of the variance is explained by the two (2) factors (internal consistency)

(Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). It is evident that the SEIS have a relatively normal distribution (skewness and kurtosis, varying from -0,74 and 0,94).

Hypothesis 2 is therefore accepted.

Next, Spearman correlation coefficients was determined for the two factors of the SEIS (see Table 6).

Table 6

Spearman correlation coefficients between emotion expression and appraisal, and emotion utilisation.

		Emotion Appraisal	Emotion Utilisation
Emotional Appraisal	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	
Emotion Utilisation	Correlation Coefficient	.57*++	1.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level

+Correlation is practically significant $r > 0,30$ (medium effect)

++Correlation is practically significant $r > 0,50$ (large effect)

Emotional appraisal is statistically and practically related (large effect) to Emotion Utilisation.

MANOVA analyses were used to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and different demographic characteristics, namely gender, language, educational level, and province. Demographic characteristics were first analysed for statistical significance using Wilk's Lambda statistics. The results of the comparisons are given in Table 7.

Table 7

MANOVAS-differences in emotional intelligence of Demographic Groups

Variable	Value	F	Df	P	Partial Squared
Gender	0,99	0,59	2,00	0,56	0,01
Language	0,98	0,86	4,00	0,49	0,11
Education	0,87	1,49	16,00	0,10	0,70
Province	0,99	0,27	4,00	0,89	0,00

* Statistically significant difference $p < 0, 05$

In an analysis of Wilk's Lambda values, no statistical significant differences ($p < 0,05$) regarding EI levels could be found between the gender groups, language groups, education levels and the province in which they reside.

Hypothesis 3 is therefore not accepted.

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to investigate the psychometric properties of the SEIS for non-professional counsellors in the North-west Province and Gauteng provinces, South Africa. A simple factor analysis was conducted on the 33 items of the SEIS to determine the factor structure. The two factors were labelled: Emotion Appraisal ($\alpha = 0,81$) and Emotion Utilisation ($\alpha = 0,77$).

Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original model included three factors, namely (1) appraisal and expression of emotions; and (2) regulation of emotions; (3) utilization of emotions in solving problems. Petrides and Furnham (2001) identified a four-factor solution explaining 40,4% of the total variance. Petrides and Furnham's (2000) four-factor structure matched the factor solution of Saklofske et al. (2003) who identified a one-factor solution which explained 23% of the total variance and a four-factor solution explaining 40% of the variance. Saklofske et al. (2003) performed an unrestricted, exploratory principal components analysis on the extraction of four components (oblique rotation). The factor solution obtained by Saklofske et al. (2003) corroborated closely the factor solution obtained by Petrides and Furnham (2000). Petrides and Furnham (2000) and Saklofske et al. (2003) labelled the factors: optimism/mood regulation, appraisal of emotions, social skills and utilisation of emotions.

In South Africa, Vosloo (2005) found a six-factor solution which explained 45,25% of the total variance, which was labelled; positive affect, emotion-others, happy emotions, emotions-own, non-verbal emotions and emotional management. Van der Merwe (2005) found a five-factor structure explaining 50,04% of the total variance. The five factor structure of van der Merwe (2005) was labelled: positive state, own emotions, negative emotions, emotions of others and emotional management.

The two factors identified in this study explained a 27,67% of total variance. The two factors in this study, namely, Emotion Appraisal and Emotion Utilisation, corresponded with the factors of a number of researchers (Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Saklofske et al., 2003; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). A reason for the difference in factors (finding a two factor and not a four factor model) that was found could be due to the small sample that was used.

In terms of the construct validity and internal consistency the two-factor solution identified in this study included Emotion Appraisal (items 1,2,3,4,6,9,11,12,14,15,18,19,23,24,25,28, $\alpha = 0,81$) and Emotion Utilisation (items 10,16,17,20,21,22,26,27,30,31,32, $\alpha = 0,77$). These alpha coefficients compared reasonably well with the guideline of $\alpha > 0,70$, demonstrating that a large portion of the variance is explained by the dimensions, thus indicating the internal validity of the dimensions (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

The analysis of the Spearman correlations in this study indicated that Emotion Appraisal is statistically and practically correlated (large effect) to Emotion Utilisation with a large effect. Higher levels of Emotional Appraisal may lead to higher Utilisation of Emotions. This may be an indication that if non-professional counsellors can appraise their emotions they are also able to utilise their emotions through facilitative thinking.

This study also aimed to compare the relationship of EI with various demographic characteristics. A MANOVA analysis was conducted in order to determine the relationships. The results indicated that no significant differences were found between EI, gender, language, education and province. A reason for this could be the small sample of participants that were used and that there was a significantly larger group of females than males.

The limitations in this study that should be considered are that a cross-sectional design was used and therefore causal inferences could not be drawn and the causal relationships between variables were interpreted rather than established. Prospective longitudinal studies and quasi-experimental research designs are needed to further validate the hypothesised causal

relationships, and therefore deal with the limitations imposed by the use of a cross-sectional design.

It is suggested that future studies conducted in this manner should corroborate whether bias and equivalence exist for the different language groups. Self-report measures were exclusively relied upon.

The research population was representative of the multicultural and multilingual country, since 84,7% of the population spoke an African language. Females dominated the study population by 78,5% and a staggering 88,4% of the population have grade 12 (63,4%) or lower (25%), with no further education. Future studies could benefit hugely in terms of a stratified random-sample design, which would ensure sufficient representation of the different groups making up the total population of non-professional counsellors in South Africa.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine the psychometric properties of the SEIS in order to contribute to the verification of its reliability and validity as an EI measure. There has been a number of criticisms on the use of the SEIS, for example Petrides and Furnham (2000) found evidence of multidimensionality and that the scale was biased in favour of a unifactorial interpretation. This criticism made the investigation of its psychometric properties a very relevant and important research area, and therefore it is recommended that the SEIS be used to assess the EI of non-professional counsellors in South Africa.

It might be necessary that future research focuses on the reliability and validity of the SEIS for other occupational settings and determine norm levels for other occupations in South Africa.

It is recommended that larger samples be used and that a more equal representation of gender be used to determine the relationship between EI and gender. It is suggested that the SEIS be translated into other languages used in South Africa, for the reason that language could pose a barrier for fully understanding the questionnaire.

It is further recommended that adequate statistical methods such as structural equation modelling, equivalence and bias analysis be used.

It is highly recommended that people in human services should receive EI training. EI training aims to develop people's sensitivity, and to bring them new understanding of the emotional dimension (Dimitriades, 2007). Further research is needed to investigate the emotion lexion between different language groups in South Africa.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH ARTICLE 2

THE WELL-BEING OF NON-PROFESSIONAL COUNSELLORS IN SOUTH AFRICA

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence, burnout, engagement and coping among non-professional counsellors in Gauteng and the North-West Province. A cross-sectional survey design was used. A non-probability convenience sample was used. The sample consisted of 172 non-professional counsellors in Gauteng and the North-West Province. The Maslach Burnout Inventory, The Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) and The COPE Questionnaire (COPE) were administered. Results of the Spearman correlations indicated a relationship between coping and burnout factors; between emotional intelligence factors and coping, and between emotional intelligence factors and work engagement. Differences in the use of strategies based on province and language was found. Multiple regression analyses showed that emotional intelligence, and coping predicted the variance explained in burnout and work engagement of non-professional counsellors.

OPSOMMING

Die doel van hierdie studie was om die verband tussen emosionele intelligensie, uitbranding, begeestering en coping-strategieë van nie-professionele beraders in Gauteng en die Noordwes Provinsie te bepaal. 'n Dwarssneeopname-ontwerp is gebruik in die studie. Nie-waarskynlikheidsbeskikbaarheid-steekproefneming is gebruik. Die steekproef het uit 172 nie-professionele beraders in Gauteng en die Noordwes Provinsie bestaan. Die Maslach Uitbrandingsvraelys, Die Emosionele Intelligensieskaal (SEIS), Die Utrecht Werksbegeestering vraelys en die COPE vraelys is toegepas. Resultate van die Spearman korrelasies het 'n verwatskap aangedui tussen coping- en uitbranding-faktore, tussen emosionele intelligensie-faktore en coping en tussen emosionele intelligensie en werksbegeestering. Verskille in die gebruik van coping-strategieë gebaseer op provinsie en taal is gevind. Meervoudige regressie-analises het daarop gedui dat emosionele intelligensie en coping die variansie verklaar in uitbranding en werksbegeestering voorspel.

In South Africa human service professionals experience many stressors (Mostert & Oosthuizen, 2006). Human services have increasingly come under pressure due to the rapid changes in the political, socio-economic and technological spheres of South African life in recent years (Mostert & Oosthuizen, 2006). South African counsellors are faced with various stressors in the diverse multi-cultural country we live in. There are numerous problems that clients are bringing to counsellors and those who listen to reports of coping with disease, trauma, horror, human cruelty and extreme loss can be overwhelmed (Bakker, van der Zee, Lewig, & Dollard, 2006; Figley, 1995). Counsellors are faced with pressure due to working with people who are under stress or who are distressed (Aradilla-Herrero & Tomás-Sábado, 2006; Figley 1995). Given the latter, there is increasing awareness about the negative consequences of counselling traumatized people (Bober, Regehr, & Zhou, 2006).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p. 19) define the stress process as “*a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being*”. This approach focuses on the individual's perception of the demands of the environment (i.e. stressors) and his/her resources to cope, as the important factors determining well-being (i.e. absence of strain) (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

The promotion and maintenance of counsellors' well-being is paramount to their capacity to attentively and sensitively serve people and to avoid or mitigate against feelings of stress (Constantine & Gainor, 2001). The symptoms of stress experienced by counsellors include immediate reactions such as intrusive imagery, nightmares (Costantini, Solano, Di Napoli, & Bosco, 1997), increased fears for the safety of oneself and one's loved ones, avoidance of violent stimuli in the media, difficulty listening to clients' accounts of events, irritability and emotional numbing (Bober et al., 2006; Duquette, Kerouac, Sandhu, Ducharme, & Saulnier, 1995; Kilfedder, Power, & Wells, 2001). Long-term reactions can include emotional and physical depletion, a sense of hopelessness, and a changed worldview in which others are viewed with suspicion and cynicism (Bober et al., 2006). Burnout has been implicated in reductions in quality of care and service delivery, absenteeism and job turnover (Cox, 1993; Rothmann & Joubert, 2007; Van Yperen, Buunk, & Schaufeli, 1992).

Studies employing a multivariate design to predict burnout, suggest that stressors make the largest contribution to burnout (Chiriboga & Bailey, 1986; Duquette et al., 1995; Payne, 2001). A range of work and/or nonwork pressures seem to be a necessary precursor to burnout (Kilfedder et al., 2001). These include work schedules, work overload, under-staffing, lack of autonomy and power, deficient positive reinforcement, management issues, interpersonal relationships, ineffective social support systems, life events and maladaptive coping strategies (Cox 1993; Kilfedder et al., 2001).

Counsellors have unique and intense psychological demands placed upon them each day that could make them more prone to experiencing burnout (Gueritault-Chalvin, Demi, Peterson, & Kalichman, 2000; McManus, Winder, & Gordon, 2002; Rowe, 1997). With the increasing pressures of societal demands, such as drugs, poor nutrition, violence, HIV/AIDS, and lack of social support, counsellors are fighting a difficult battle that some will lose (Ortlepp & Friedman, 2002; Rowe, 1997).

Burnout is a phenomenon said to occur particularly in occupations where a significant proportion of time is spent in close involvement with other people (Kilfedder et al., 2001) and concerns job-related affective well-being (Bakker et al., 2000). It is a specific kind of occupational stress reaction among human service professionals as a result of the demanding and emotionally charged relationships between professionals and their recipients (Bakker et al., 2000; Butler & Constantine, 2005).

More specifically, burnout is defined as a multi-faceted syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment (Maslach, 1993):

1. Emotional exhaustion refers to energy depletion or the draining of emotional resources (Bakker et al., 2000).
2. Depersonalization refers to the development of negative, cynical attitudes toward the recipients of one's services (Bakker et al., 2000).
3. Lack of personal accomplishment is the tendency to evaluate one's own work with recipients negatively, an evaluation that is often accompanied by feelings of insufficiency and poor self-esteem (Bakker et al., 2000).

According to Pompili et al (2006) the exhaustion stage is the most serious stage of burnout with symptoms such as chronic sadness or depression, chronic stomach or bowel problems, chronic mental fatigue, chronic physical fatigue, chronic headaches or migraines, the dire to get away from family and friends, and recurrent suicidal ideation.

Exhaustion and depersonalization (cynicism) constitute the core of burnout (Shaufeli, 2003). Exhaustion represents the individual stress component of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) and refers to feelings of being overextended and depleted of emotional and physical resources (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). Exhaustion emerges first in response to an overly demanding work environment (Leiter, 1993; Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). Cynicism entails a general indifferent, callous or cynical attitude towards the work (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007).

The literature on burnout suggests those most vulnerable are young or inexperienced workers who are strongly nurturant individuals likely to over-identify with certain clients and who approach their work with high ideals and strong commitment (Maslach, 1982).

Considering the assortment of professional roles and organizational stressors to which counsellors may be exposed, the potential for burnout may be high (Butler & Constantine, 2005; Maslach & Florian, 1988). Higher levels of burnout are likely to be found among workers who report high levels of anxiety, stress and stigma, who use external coping strategies and who use higher amounts of tangible support (Shoptaw, Stein, & Rawson, 2000).

According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), burnout and engagement are indicators of employees' wellness. Therefore burnout and work engagement can be integrated as one model (Rothmann, 2002). According to Jackson, Rothman and van der Vijver (2006), empirical studies have confirmed that burnout is related to health problems and turnover intentions, and that it mediates the relationship between job demands and health problems (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007). Also, engagement mediates the relationship between job resources and turnover intentions (Rothmann & Joubert, 2007).

Two trends recently emerged in burnout research, which both boil down to a broadening of the traditional concept and scope (Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli, Martinez, Marques, Pinto,

Salanova, & Bakker, 2002). Firstly, the concept of burnout that was initially closely linked to the human services such as health care, education, and social work where employees do “people” work of some kind, has been expanded towards all other professionals and occupational groups. Secondly, burnout research seems to shift towards an opposite: job engagement.

Engagement is the positive expansion of burnout (Gan, Yang, Yan, & Zhang, 2007). Job engagement has been proposed to describe a job-related, positive, and mentally rich state, including vigor, dedication and absorption (Shaufeli et al., 2002).

In contrast to burnout, work engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind, characterized by vigor (high levels of energy while working, willingness to invest effort in work and persistence in the face of difficulties), dedication (sense of enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge) and absorption (being happily engrossed in ones work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties detaching) (Shaufeli et al., 2002). Maslach and Leiter (1997) assume that ‘engagement’ is characterized by energy, involvement, and efficacy, which are considered the direct opposites of the three burnout dimensions exhaustion, cynicism, and lack of professional efficacy, respectively (Shaufeli et al., 2002).

Shaufeli et al. (2002) have operationalised engagement as a construct in its own right. Research on engagement has adopted a positive psychology perspective that focuses on psychological health and well-being rather than on psychological ill-health – as is the case with burnout (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Burnout is an erosion of engagement (Maslach et al., 2001). Based on a theoretical analysis (Shaufeli & Bakker, 2001), vigor and dedication are directly opposite to exhaustion and cynicism, spanning two underlying core dimensions (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Shaufeli et al., 2002). These two dimensions are identified as work-related well-being: (1) activation, ranging from exhaustion to vigor, and (2) identification, ranging from cynicism to dedication (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Shaufeli et al., 2002).

Low scores on exhaustion and cynicism, and high scores on efficacy are indicative for engagement (Shaufeli et al., 2002). Burnout and engagement scales are significantly and negatively related. (Shaufeli et al., 2002).

Gan et al. (2007) determine that coping alleviates the impact that stress has on engagement. Burnout and engagement offer different pathways to understanding stress and corresponding interventions (Gan et al., 2007).

People will experience stress if they appraise an event as stressful and if they perceive the demands posed by the event as exceeding their ability to cope (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Pompili et al., 2006)

When people encounter stressful life events they try to change the adverse effect of these events on their well-being by using a number of coping strategies (Serup, 2004). Research on the prevention of stress and burnout emphasizes the importance of identifying coping strategies to deal effectively with specific stressors (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000).

Coping is a central theme in stress research and numerous studies focus on the individual's coping responses to various stressors, including stressors in the workplace (Mostert & Oosthuizen, 2006). According to Mostert and Oosthuizen (2006), a wide variety of coping strategies exist. The most familiar and widespread coping taxonomy was proposed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984, p. 141), define coping as *“a cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person”*. Lazarus and Folkman (1984), identify two types of coping, namely coping that alleviates emotional distress (emotion-focused coping) and coping that attempts to manage or alter the problem causing distress (problem-focus coping).

Coping has been a central part work stress research since the 1960's (Dewe, 2004). In the years that followed, coping research began to take off and the enthusiasm for exploring the role of coping in work stress research has continued unabated (Dewe, 2004).

Many studies appear to suggest that the use of problem-focused coping strategies may prevent burnout, whereas avoidance or emotion-focused strategies contribute to burnout (Payne, 2001). Emotion-focused strategies may be maladaptive because they focus on the source of distress and thus exacerbate it, or because they put off dealing with the problem (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). However, Pines, Aronson, and Kafry (1981, p. 140) conclude that the “*best copier is a person who uses in each situation the best and most effective coping strategy for that particular situation*”.

External and internal coping styles, as described by Bennett, Kelaher, and Ross, (1993) (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000), are reminiscent of Rotter's (1966) locus of control theory in which individuals describe themselves as being either (1) externally controlled by factors such as luck, chance or fate, or (2) internally controlled, believing that a person has the ability to influence their environment and what happens to them. With reference to Bennett et al.'s (1993) study, external control may be similar to external coping, with externally controlled persons being more likely to use external coping strategies because they believe that they cannot alter their environment and must accept the control of others or fate. Internal control is similar to internal coping, perhaps with internally controlled persons being more likely to use internal coping styles because they believe that they can control their environment and stressful events (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000).

External coping strategies such as fatalistic attitudes, negative expectations and reliance on faith, prayers or miracles, as opposed to internal coping strategies such as expression of feelings and emotions, patience and time-out, along with the age of the provider and hours per week spent working, all predicted burnout (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000).

According to Makikangas and Kinnunen (2003), individuals with high optimism, defined as a generalised expectation of positive experiences and outcomes throughout one's life, make more extensive use of a variety of coping strategies, and have better physical and psychological health. In contrast, those with low self-esteem, defined as an individual's general sense of self value or worth, have been shown to experience greater negative stress and use more withdrawal and passive forms of coping to manage stressful events (Pau, Croucher, Sohanpal, Muirhead, & Seymour, 2004). Whilst individuals with high optimism and self-esteem may appraise a stressful

event as challenging rather than threatening, it has also been reported that stressful events can reduce self-esteem in individuals (Pau et al., 2004).

According to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) transactional theory of stress, coping strategies are "*thoughts or acts that an individual uses to manage the external and/or internal demands of a specific person-environment transaction that is appraised as stressful*" (Folkman, 1992, p. 34). Available resources, including intra-individual, interpersonal, and environmental, as well as the specific nature of the stressful situation all contribute to coping efficacy. It stands to reason that lack of success of individual coping efforts at work may increase perceived occupational stress (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000; Parasuraman & Cleek, 1984).

Moderating between the perception of self-worth and physical and psychological health may be the ability to appraise and manage stressful events, including the emotions that these events provoke or arouse (Pau et al., 2004).

Coping skills play an important role in the prevention of burnout. The ability to cope well with stress is important because stress can result in health damaging behaviours and psychological morbidity (Steptoe, Wardle, Pollard, Canaan, & Davies, 1996). Martin (1990) found that coping styles that involve cognitive and behavioural disengagement were associated with higher burnout and greater intentions to discontinue working in the field. Bennett et al. (1993) found that the use of external coping mechanisms led to higher levels of burnout. These results support studies that found external coping styles associated with increased stress and burnout compared to the use of internal coping strategies (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000). Workers with low burnout levels are likely to use internal coping strategies, to exhibit greater affiliation with the community, and to report better satisfaction with their personal and social support systems (Shoptaw et al., 2000).

Few studies have investigated the impact of coping styles on frequency and intensity of burnout experienced by counsellors (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000). However, results from these studies show that individual coping strategies may be important buffers of perceived stress (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000).

It has also been proposed that the ability to perceive emotions in self and others, manage them, and handle relationships are important attributes to cope with stress (Pau et al., 2004). These

attributes are encapsulated in the psychological construct called Emotional Intelligence (EI), popularized by Goleman (1995). *In this study the abbreviation EI will refer to emotional intelligence.*

Mayer and Salovey (1997) define EI as the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Some conceptualizations of EI are rather broad and include a range of adaptive characteristics associated with emotions, whereas other conceptualizations emphasize the cognitive elements, such as emotions aiding judgment and memory (Schutte et al., 2001). Furthermore, researchers have conceptualized EI both as ability and as a trait (Goleman, 1995; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

The theory of EI views emotions as an evolved signal system, where each emotion denotes a particular relationship within oneself or with the outside world (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer et al., 2000).

EI arises from a productive union of the cognitive and emotion systems (Mayer, Perkins, Caruso, & Salovey, 2001). Individuals high in EI have the ability to perceive, understand, and manage emotions, and to allow emotions to facilitate their thought (Mayer et al., 2001). People with higher EI have better empathic perspective taking and self-monitoring in social situations (Schutte et al., 2001). High emotional intelligent people have more social skills and cooperative responses toward partners (Schutte et al., 2001).

Svyantek and Rahim (2002) proposed that EI is critical to the individual's success in many social situations. EI plays an important role at the highest levels of organizations and the difference between top performers and average performers, in senior leadership positions is more attributable to EI factors than cognitive abilities (Svyantek & Rahim, 2002).

EI is a vital factor in determining one's ability to achieve in life and is said to directly influence one's psychological well-being and emotional health (Bar-On, 1997). EI is an attribute that may enable individuals to recognise and manage emotions evoked by stressful experiences (Pau et al., 2004). High emotional intelligent individuals may apply coping strategies with more positive outcomes (Pau et al., 2004). According to Goleman (1995) people with EI are able to increase self-esteem, and improve self-care and work performance.

The potential for resilient behaviours and EI involves an interaction between the individual and his or her broader environment (Edward & Warelow, 2005). Coping involves EI and resilience, which can be developed through support and education (Edward & Warelow, 2005). Research results show that human service professionals feel emotionally overwhelmed when working with people who are distressed and their families (Aradilla-Herrero & Tomás-Sábado, 2006). Aradilla-Herrero and Tomás-Sábado (2006) suggest that human service professionals should be provided with specific training that would allow them to develop effective strategies for coping.

The presence of high levels of EI is an important coping resource and may be crucial in helping counsellors work with people from a range of backgrounds (Constantine & Gainor, 2001). Emotionally intelligent counsellors appear to have interpersonal strengths that may enable them to better comprehend or be attuned to the experiences and issues of diverse others (Constantine & Gainor, 2001).

It is important to adapt the necessary emotional skills to be more organised, to attend to important matters, social communication and to be more tolerant (Lee, 2003). With EI one is able to prevent burnout and other negative ideations (Stuart & Paquet, 2001). Ashkanasy, Haertel and Daus (2002) found that EI is negatively related to burnout and one is more able to cope with burnout if one has EI competencies to manage stress (Meyer, Fletcher, & Parker, 2004). High emotional intelligent individuals experience lower levels of burnout and somatic complaints (Mikolajczak, Menil, & Luminet, 2007). A number of studies have found a stastically significant relationship between EI factors and burnout (Chan, 2006, 2007; Durán, Extremera, & Rey, 2004; Durán, Extremera, Rey, Fernández-Berrocal, & Montalbán, 2006; Mikolajczak et al., 2007).

According to the literature it is evident that counsellors in South Africa are under pressure. Stressors contributing to this pressure are the rapid changes taking place in South Africa and working with people who are distressed and excess pressure will result in burnout. Counsellors are prone to experiencing burnout due to the unique and intense demands placed on them each day. Coping skills play an important role in the prevention of burnout. The ability to cope with stress is important because stress can leave a person emotionally, mentally and physically exhausted. One is more able to cope with burnout if one has emotional intelligence competencies. The objective of this study was to determine the well-being of non-professional counsellors in Gauteng and the North-West Province.

The above-mentioned discussion leads to the following hypothesis.

H₁: There is a relationship between EI, coping strategies and well-being (burnout and engagement) in a sample of non-professional counsellors.

H₂: EI and coping strategies predict well-being (burnout and engagement).

H₃: There are differences in the experience of coping and well-being regarding different demographical groups including gender, language, education, and province.

METHOD

Research design

A cross-sectional survey design is used to collect data and attain the research goals. In cross-sectional research, researchers observe at one point in time (Neuman, 1997). Cross-sectional research is usually the simplest and least costly alternative. Its disadvantages are that it cannot capture social processes and change. Cross sectional research can be exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory, but it is most consistent with a descriptive approach to research (Neuman, 1997). The survey is a data-collection technique in which questionnaires were used to gather data about an identified population. This design was also used to assess interrelationship among variables within a population (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997). The cross-sectional research design was best suited to address the descriptive and predictive functions associated with the correlational design, whereby relationships between variables are examined.

Participants

The random sample ($N=172$) of non-professional counsellors were selected. The criteria to be included was that the participants required some type of training, such as a course or a few hours of informal training, and they must have clients and be working directly with clients. The sampling method that was used is non-probability sampling or convenience sampling. A convenience sample is chosen purely on the basis of availability. Respondents are selected because they are accessible and articulate.

Table 1

Characteristics of Participants

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	20-29	68	39,5
	30-39	60	34,8
	40-49	26	15,1
	50-69	11	6,5
	Missing values	7	4,1
Gender	Male	35	20,3
	Female	135	78,5
	Missing values	2	1,2
Marital status	Single	105	61,0
	Engaged	13	7,6
	Married	42	24,5
	Divorced	5	2,9
	Separated	3	1,7
	Missing values	4	2,3
Province	Gauteng	53	30,8
	North West	109	63,4
	Missing values	10	5,8
Education/ Qualification	Grade 10 and lower	7	4,1
	Grade 11	36	20,9
	Grade 12	109	63,4
	Diploma	8	4,6
	Degree	7	4,0
	Post Degree	1	0,6
Missing values	4	2,3	

Language	Afrikaans	18	10,5
	English	16	9,3
	African Languages	136	84,7
	Missing values	2	1,2

Table 1 shows that the majority of participants were single females (78,5%) between the ages of 20 and 29 (39,5%) with a Grade 12 (63,4%). A total of 63,4% resides in the North-West Province.

Measuring battery

The Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996) was used to determine the level of burnout in participants. The MBI-GS has three subscales: Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy. Together the subscales of the MBI-GS provide a three dimensional perspective on burnout. Internal consistencies (Chronbach coefficient alpha) reported by Schaufeli and Buunk (1996) varied from 0,87 to 0,89 for Exhaustion, 0,73 to 0,84 for Cynicism and 0,76 to 0,84 for Professional Efficacy. Test-retest reliabilities after one year were 0,65 (Exhaustion), 0,60 (Cynicism) and 0,67 (Professional Efficacy) (Schaufeli, Leiter, Maslach, & Jackson, 1996). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency-rating scale ranging from 0 (“never”), to 6 (“daily”). High scores on Exhaustion and Cynicism, and low scores on Professional Efficacy are indicative of burnout.

The Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) assesses perception, understanding, expression, regulation and harnessing of emotions in the self and others. The brevity of the scale and its accumulating reliability and validity evidence makes this scale a reasonable choice for those who are seeking a brief self-report measure of global EI. The model of EI of Salovey and Mayer (1990) provides the conceptual foundation of the items used in this scale. A factor analysis of a larger pool of items suggested a one factor solution of 33 items. The 33-item scale showed good internal reliability with two different samples. The measure also showed evidence of predictive validity, where college students’ EI scores predicted their end-of-the-year grade average. Potential uses of this scale involve exploring the nature of EI, including

the determinants of EI, the effects of EI and whether emotional intelligence can be enhanced (Schutte et al., 1998).

The COPE Questionnaire (COPE) (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989) was used to determine participants' coping strategies. The COPE is a multidimensional 53-item coping questionnaire that indicates the different ways that people cope in different circumstances (Carver et al., 1989). It measures 13 different coping strategies. There are five (5) subscales that measure different aspects of problem-focused coping: Active Coping (AC), Planning (P), Suppressing of Competing Activities (SCA), Restraint Coping (RC), and Seeking Social Support for Instrumental Reasons. Another five (5) subscales measure aspects of emotionally focused coping: Seeking Social Support for Emotional Reasons, Positive Reinterpretation and Growth, Acceptance, Denial, Turning to Religion. Four subscales measure coping responses that are used less: Focus on and Venting of Emotions, Behavioural Disengagement, Mental Disengagement and Alcohol-Drug Disengagement (Carver et al., 1989). Carver et al. (1989) reported Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from Mental Disengagement that measures lower than 0,60. Test-retest reliability varies from 0,46 to 0,86 and from 0,42 to 0,89 (applied after two weeks).

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002) was used to measure the levels of work engagement of the participants. The UWES includes three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption, which is conceptually seen as the opposite of burnout and is scored on a seven-point frequency-rating scale, varying from 0 ("never") to 6 ("every day"). The questionnaire consists of 17 statements and includes statements like "I am bursting with energy every day in my work"; "Time flies when I am at work" and "My job inspires me". The alpha coefficients for the three subscales varied between 0,80 and 0,91. The alpha coefficient could be improved (α varies between 0,78 and 0,89 for the three sub-scales) by eliminating a few items without substantially decreasing the scale's internal consistency. Storm and Rothmann (2003) obtained the following alpha coefficients for the UWES in a sample of 2 396 members of the South African Police Service: Vigour: 0,78; Dedication: 0,89; Absorption: 0,78. Coetzer (2004) obtained the following alpha coefficients: Vigour (0,80); Dedication (0,87), and Absorption (0,69) among a sample of employees in an insurance company.

Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis was carried out with the help of the SPSS-programme (SSPS Inc., 2003). Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) was used to analyse the data. Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to determine the internal consistency, homogeneity and un-dimensionality of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Coefficient alpha contains important information regarding the proportion of variance of the items of a scale in terms of the total variance explained by that particular scale.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationships between the variables. In terms of statistical significance, it was decided to set the value at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0,05$). Effect sizes (Steyn, 1999) were used to determine the practical significance of the findings. A cut-off point of 0,30 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

A stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine the percentage variance in the dependent variables that is predicted by the independent variables. The effect size (which indicates practical significance) in the case of multiple regressions are given by the following formula (Steyn, 1999):

$$f^2 = R^2 / 1 - R^2$$

A cut-off point of 0,35 large effect (Steyn, 1999) was set for the practical significance.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine the significance of differences between the levels of emotional intelligence, coping strategies and health of demographic groups. MANOVA tests whether or not mean differences among groups in a combination of dependent variables are likely to have occurred by chance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In MANOVA, a new dependent variable that maximises group differences was created from the set of dependent variables. Wilk's Lambda is used to test the data, assuming the equal

population mean vectors for all groups, on the assumption that the population mean vectors are identical to those of the sample mean vectors for the different groups.

RESULTS

The results of the factor analysis on the COPE are indicated in Table 2. The loading of variables on factors, as well as communalities and percentage of variance, is indicated. Variables are ordered and grouped by size of loading to facilitate interpretation. Labels for each factor are suggested in a footnote.

Table 2

Factor Loadings, Communalities (h^2), Percentage Variance for Principal Factors Extraction and Direct Oblimin Rotation on COPE items.

Item	F ₁	F ₂	F ₃	F ₄	H ₂
COPE28	0,60	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,47
COPE21	0,59	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,33
COPE43	0,57	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,47
COPE53	0,54	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,38
COPE24	0,53	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,37
COPE11	0,51	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,29
COPE23	0,49	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,33
COPE22	0,47	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,23
COPE56	0,46	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,26
COPE37	0,42	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,20
COPE55	0,39	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,22
COPE46	0,39	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,23
COPE8	0,34	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,30
COPE31	0,33	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,18
COPE26	0,32	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,18
COPE61	0,00	0,62	0,00	0,00	0,43
COPE58	0,00	0,59	0,00	0,00	0,35
COPE50	0,00	0,55	0,00	0,00	0,42
COPE32	0,00	0,55	0,00	0,00	0,36
COPE16	0,00	0,53	0,00	0,00	0,27
COPE36	0,00	0,51	0,00	0,00	0,40

COPE47	0,00	0,45	0,00	0,00	0,28
COPE19	0,00	0,42	0,00	0,00	0,27
COPE60	0,00	0,38	0,00	0,00	0,23
COPE48	0,00	0,36	0,00	0,00	0,20
COPE13	0,00	0,33	0,00	0,00	0,14
COPE2	0,00	0,31	0,00	0,00	0,14
COPE12	0,00	0,00	-0,75	0,00	0,57
COPE29	0,00	0,00	-0,70	0,00	0,59
COPE59	0,00	0,00	-0,63	0,00	0,59
COPE45	0,00	0,00	-0,60	0,00	0,45
COPE57	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,71	0,50
COPE9	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,56	0,42
COPE18	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,55	0,31
COPE27	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,55	0,37
COPE42	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,52	0,44
COPE49	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,49	0,33
COPE44	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,40	0,27
COPE1	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,39	0,20
COPE17	0,00	0,00	0,00	0,37	0,20
Percentage Variance	15,20	8,18	5,25	4,64	

F₁ Approach Coping, F₂ Avoidance, F₃ Turning to Religion, F₄ Seeking Emotional Support

Inspection of Table 3 shows that four factors were extracted accounting for 33,26% of the total variance in the data. Variables were reasonably well-defined by this factor solution. Community values, as seen in Table 2, tend to be moderate. With a cut-off of 0,30 for inclusion of a variable in interpretation of a factor, 13 of 61 items did not load any of the four factors.

The first factor dealt with approaching the problem, redefining it as something positive or a learning experience, and accepting that it has happened. This factor was labelled Approach Coping. The second factor had items that related to avoidance, such as day-dreaming, and items related to ignoring the fact. This factor was labelled Avoidance. The third factor had items related to turning to religion by finding comfort in religion, praying more than usual and putting one's trust in God. This factor was labelled Turning to Religion. The fourth factor was made up with items related to seeking support. This factor was labelled Seeking Emotional Support.

The descriptive statistics and alpha coefficients of the two factors of Burnout, four factors of Coping, two factors of EI and the two factors of Engagement.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics and Alpha coefficients of the MBI-GS, COPE, SEIS and UWES

Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
Burnout					
Emotional Exhaustion	9,65	6,45	0,74	0,20	0,70
Cynicism	8,21	4,24	0,77	0,56	0,60
Coping					
Approach Coping	48,33	6,96	-0,39	-0,55	0,80
Avoidance	28,00	6,97	0,08	-0,62	0,77
Turning to Religion	13,92	2,91	-1,84	3,09	0,83
Seek Emotional Support	28,32	5,37	-0,77	0,36	0,78
Emotional Intelligence					
Emotional Appraisal	75,74	11,12	-0,76	0,92	0,81
Emotion Utilisation	52,70	7,97	-0,74	0,94	0,77
Engagement					
Work Engagement	78,27	12,29	-0,15	0,70	0,67

Table 3 indicates that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients according to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,70$ (Nunnally & Berstein, 1994) except for the alpha coefficients of cynicism (0,06) and work engagement (0,67). It is evident from Table 3 that most of the scales of the measuring instruments have relatively normal distributions, with low skewness and kurtosis, except for turning to religion.

The Spearman product-moment correlation coefficients between emotional exhaustion, cynicism, approach coping, avoidance, turning to religion, seek emotional support, emotional appraisal, Emotion Utilisation and work engagement are provided in Table 4.

Table 4

Spearman product-moment correlation coefficients between emotional intelligence, coping, burnout and work Engagement.

Emotional Exhaustion								
Cynicism	0,48**							
Approach Coping	-0,16*	-0,06						
Avoidance	0,25*	0,40**	0,17*					
Turning to Religion	-0,05	0,04	0,13	0,22*				
Seek Emotional Support	-0,08	0,07	0,46**	0,10	0,30**			
Emotional Appraisal	-0,12	-0,15	0,44**	-0,08	0,17*	0,47**		
Emotion Utilisation	-0,22*	-0,01	0,32**	0,15*	0,26*	0,35**	0,56***	
Work Engagement	-0,10	-0,16*	0,28*	-0,02	0,03	0,05	0,30**	0,23*

*Correlation is significant at the 0,01 level

†Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0,30$ (medium effect)

††Correlation is practically significant $r \geq 0,50$ (large effect)

Table 4 shows emotional exhaustion and avoidance are statistically and practically significantly related (medium effect) to cynicism. Emotional appraisal is statistically and practically significantly related (medium effect) to approach coping and seeking emotional support. Emotional appraisal is statistically and practically related (large effect) to emotion utilisation. Emotion utilisation is statistically and practically (medium effect) related to approach coping and seeking emotional support. Furthermore, approach coping and seeking emotional support are statistically and practically related (medium effect). Turning to religion is statistically and practically related (medium effect) to seeking emotional support. Engagement is statistically and practically related (medium effect) to emotional appraisal.

Hypothesis 1 is therefore partially accepted.

MANOVA analyses were used to determine the relationship between health levels and different demographic characteristics, namely gender, language, education, province and age.

Demographic characteristics were first analysed for statistical significance using Wilk's Lambda statistics. The results of the comparisons are given in Table 5.

Table 5

MANOVAS-differences in cynicism, emotional exhaustion and work engagement of Demographic Groups

Variable	Value	F	Df	p	Partial Squared	Eta
Gender	0,94	1,15	9,00	0,32	0,02	
Language	0,94	1,15	9,00	0,32	0,02	
Education	0,87	0,93	24,00	0,56	0,05	
Province	0,95	1,31	6,00	0,25	0,02	
Age	0,89	1,37	15,00	0,16	0,04	

* Statistically significant difference $p < 0,05$

Table 5 shows, in an analysis of Wilk's Lambda values, that there are no statistical significant differences ($p < 0,05$) regarding cynicism, emotional exhaustion and work engagement of the different demographic groups.

Table 6

MANOVAS- differences in coping of Demographic Groups

Variable	Value	F	Df	P	Partial Squared	Eta
Gender	0,95	2,12	4,00	0,81	0,05	
Language	0,82	4,13	8,00	0,00*	0,10	
Education	0,81	1,03	32,00	0,42	0,05	
Province	0,86	3,20	8,00	0,00*	0,07	

* Statistically significant difference $p < 0,05$

In an analysis of Wilk's Lambda values, no statistical differences ($p < 0,05$) regarding coping strategies could be found between gender groups, and education levels of individuals. However, statistically significant differences ($p < 0,05$) were found for language groups and the provinces in which the participants sited.

Table 7*Differences in coping strategies based on language groups.*

Item	Afrikaans	English	African	P	Partial Squared	Eta
Approach Coping	47,89	47,63	48,72	0,77	0,00	
Avoidance	23,50 ^b	24,31	29,07 ^a	0,00*	0,09	
Turning to Religion	14,00	12,27	14,08	0,07	0,03	
Seeking Emotional Support	24,83 ^b	27,38	28,77 ^a	0,01*	0,06	

* Statistically significant difference $p < 0,05$ ^a Group differs statistically in coping strategy (in row) where ^b is indicated.

Table 7 shows that there are statistically significant differences between the use of avoidance and seeking emotional support as coping strategies based on language groups. It seems that African language groups use more avoidance and seeking emotional support as coping strategies than Afrikaans language groups.

Table 8*Differences in coping strategies based on provinces.*

Item	North-West	Gauteng	P	Partial Squared	Eta
Approach Coping	48,41	48,43	0,81	0,00	
Avoidance	29,34 ^a	24,98 ^b	0,00*	0,08	
Turning to Religion	13,92	13,89	0,97	0,00	
Seeking Emotional Support	29,01	27,16	0,09	0,03	

* Statistically significant difference $p < 0,05$ ^a Group differs statistically in coping strategy (in row) where ^b is indicated.

Table 8 shows that there are statistically significant differences between the use of avoidance as a coping strategy based on the province where the participants were sited. It seems that participants in the North-West province use avoidance more as a coping strategy than the participants in the Gauteng province.

Hypothesis 3 is therefore partially accepted.

The results of a multiple regression analyses with work engagement as dependant variable and EI and coping as independent variables are reported in Table 9.

Table 9*Multiple regression analyses with work engagement as dependent variable*

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>Beta</i>						
1 (Constant)	49,55	6,85		7,23	0,00	9,52	0,32	0,10	0,10
Emotion Appraisal	0,29	0,09	0,26	3,01	0,00				
Emotional Utilization	0,12	0,13	0,07	0,88	0,37				
2 (Constant)	43,97	8,25		5,32	0,00	5,35	0,40	0,16	0,06
Emotion Appraisal	0,25	0,11	0,23	2,31	0,02				
Emotion Utilization	0,13	0,13	0,08	1,00	0,31				
Approach Coping	0,44	0,15	0,25	2,92	0,00				
Avoidance	-0,13	0,13	-0,07	-0,94	0,34				
Turning to Religion	0,32	0,33	0,07	0,98	0,32				
Seek Emotional Support	-0,51	0,20	-0,22	-2,56	0,01				

* $p < 0,05$

Table 9 shows that 10% of the variance explained in engagement are predicted by EI ($F=9,52$; $p < 0,05$). The significant predictor of engagement was emotional appraisal ($p < 0,05$). When coping strategies were entered into the multiple regression analyses the statistical significance of R^2 increase ($\Delta R^2 = 0,06$). Significant predictors of engagement regarding coping strategies were approach coping and seeking emotional support. Table 9 shows that 16% of the variance explained in engagement are predicted by EI and coping strategies ($F=5,35$; $p < 0,05$).

Table 10*Multiple regression analyses with emotional exhaustion as dependent variable*

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>Beta</i>						
1 (Constant)	17,64	3,73		4,72	0,00	2,71	0,17	0,03	0,02
Emotional Appraisal	-0,01	0,05	-0,02	-0,29	0,77				
Emotion Utilization	-0,12	0,07	-0,16	-1,73	0,08				
2 (Constant)	14,47	4,45		3,25	0,00	3,68	0,34	0,11	0,08
Emotional Appraisal	0,07	0,06	0,13	1,26	0,20				
Emotion Utilization	-0,17	0,07	-0,22	-2,40	0,01				
Approach Coping	-0,15	0,08	-0,16	-1,89	0,06				
Avoidance	0,27	0,07	0,29	3,60	0,00				
Turning to Religion	0,01	0,18	0,00	0,08	0,92				

Seek Emotional Support	-0,05	0,10	-0,04	-0,46	0,64
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* $p < 0,05$

Table 10 shows that when EI was entered into the first step of the multiple regression analyses the model fit was not significant ($F=2,71$; $p < 0,05$). However, when coping strategies were entered into the second step a significant model was produced ($F=3,68$; $p < 0,05$). The statistical significance of R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = 0,08$) increases. Significant predictors of emotional exhaustion according to coping strategies was avoidance ($\beta 0,29$; $t=3,60$; $p < 0,00$).

Results indicated that EI and coping strategies predicted 11% of the variance explained in emotional exhaustion.

Table 11

Multiple regression analyses with cynicism as dependent variable

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>R</i>	R^2	ΔR^2
	<i>B</i>	SE	<i>Beta</i>						
1 (Constant)	9,89	2,91		3,39	0,00	2,98	0,18	0,03	0,02
Emotional Appraisal	-0,10	0,04	-0,22	-	0,01				
Emotion Utilization	0,07	0,05	0,11	1,28	0,20				
2 (Constant)	3,55	3,35		1,05	0,29	5,94	0,42	0,17	0,14
Emotional Appraisal	-0,06	0,04	-0,14	-	0,14				
Emotion Utilization	0,01	0,05	0,02	0,24	0,80				
Approach Coping	-0,08	0,06	-0,11	-	0,17				
Avoidance	0,27	0,05	0,37	4,86	0,00				
Turning to Religion	-0,04	0,13	-0,02	-	0,72				
Seek Emotional Support	0,13	0,08	0,14	1,66	0,09				
				0,34					

* $p < 0,05$

Table 11 shows that when EI was entered into the first step of the multiple regression analyses a non-significant model was produced ($F=2,98$; $p < 0,05$). When coping strategies were added into the regression the statistical significance of R^2 increase ($\Delta R^2 = 0,14$) with 14%. Avoidance was a significant contributor to the variance explained in cynicism ($\beta 0,37$; $t=4,86$; $p < 0,00$). EI and coping predicted 17% of the variance explained in cynicism.

Hypothesis 2 is therefore partially accepted.

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to determine the relationship between EI, well-being (burnout and engagement) and coping of non-professional counsellors in the North-West Province and Gauteng. The results indicated:

The Cronbach alpha coefficients of all the measuring instruments are considered acceptable according to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,70$ (Nunnally & Berstein, 1994) except for the alpha coefficients of cynicism (0,60) and work engagement (0,67).

The results attained from with the product-moment correlations indicated that emotional exhaustion and avoidance is positively related to cynicism. Emotional appraisal is positively related to Emotion utilisation, engagement, approach coping and seeking emotional support.

Emotion utilisation is positively related to approach coping and seeking emotional support. Furthermore, approach coping and seeking emotional support are positively related to each other. Turning to religion is positively related to seeking emotional support.

From the results it was established that emotional intelligent non-professional counsellors are able to recognise and manage their emotions, express emotions accurately and use emotions for decision-making and problem-solving.

It is also evident from the study that non-professional counsellors that display EI will have work engagement and be able to apply coping such as approach coping and seeking emotional support.

With EI non-professional counsellors are able to prevent and cope with burnout. From the results it is clear that non-professional counsellors that are cynical are likely to use avoidance as coping. The highly emotional intelligent individuals may apply coping strategies with more positive outcomes (Pau et al., 2004).

The counsellor who is aware of non-verbal messages people send, shares emotions with others, knows when to express personal emotions and compliments others (emotional appraisal) would also expect good things to happen, comes up with new ideas when in a good mood, recognises and controls emotions (emotion utilisation).

With emotional appraisal, a counsellor will find it easy to be engaged in the work situation. Furthermore, literature confirms that engagement is the opposite of burnout. It will be easier to approach the problem, accepting what had happened or seek support if counsellors are able to identify, express, recognise and control emotions.

According to Goleman (1995) people with EI are able to increase self-esteem, and improve self-care and work performance.

EI is a vital factor in determining one's ability to achieve in life and is said to directly influence one's psychological well-being and emotional health (Bar-On, 1997). The highly emotional intelligent individuals may apply coping strategies with more positive outcomes (Pau et al., 2004).

A MANOVA analysis was conducted in order to determine the relationships between well-being and coping with gender, language, education, province and age. The results indicated that no significant differences were found in the well-being of the different demographic groups.

Statistically significant differences were found between the use of avoidance and seeking emotional support as coping strategies based on language groups. It appears that African language groups use more avoidance and seeking emotional support as coping strategies than Afrikaans language groups.

Statistically significant differences were also found between the use of avoidance coping strategy based on the province where the participants were sited. It seems that participants in the North-West Province use avoidance more as a coping strategy than do the participants in the Gauteng Province.

A multiple regression analyses indicated that EI and coping do predict the well-being of non-professional counsellors. Multiple Regression analyses showed that emotional intelligence and coping predicted 16 % of the variance in work engagement, 17% of the variance explained in cynicism and 11% of the variance in emotional exhaustion. According to the results the following is hypothesised. EI predicted engagement, therefore the emotional intelligent counsellor will be more engaged in his/her work situation; therefore the counsellor who is engaged in work will be able to prevent burnout. The counsellor who experiences work engagement will have a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind, and be able to apply coping such as approach coping and seeking emotional support. In addition, non-professional counsellors that are cynical are likely to use avoidance as coping and the results thereof can be that the counsellor will be emotionally exhausted. If the counsellor utilises coping skills such as approach coping and seeking emotional support, the counsellor will find it easy to be engaged in his/her work and therefore alleviate the probability of experiencing burnout.

The study has several limitations. Self-report measures were exclusively relied upon. There is a possibility that future studies conducted in this manner would confirm whether bias and equivalence do exist for different language groups. Other limitations are the size of the sample and that the questionnaires were only in English; thus the language disparity could also have influenced the results.

RECOMMENDATIONS

It would be useful to make use of interventions and counsellor assistance programmes to prevent the effects of burnout and increase the functional effect of work engagement.

It is suggested that well-being levels should be monitored on an annual basis since counsellors work with trauma victims. EI competencies should be included in training and development programmes or induction.

Future research can focus on the development and validation of a casual model of the well-being of non-professional counsellors.

It will be beneficial to translate the measuring instruments into different African languages to determine the construct equivalence thereof. The development of an EI measure for South Africa, as well as establishing norms within different occupational groups would be highly valuable; the differences in experiencing emotions and emotion management should be investigated for all the different cultural groups in South Africa.

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CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter includes conclusions regarding the literature review and the empirical study according to specific objectives. It highlights the limitations for the study and offers recommendations for the organisation as well as future studies. *In this study the abbreviation EI will refer to emotional intelligence.*

4.1 CONCLUSIONS

In this section, conclusions are drawn in terms of specific objectives and empirical findings obtained in the present study.

- *To conceptualise burnout, engagement, coping and EI in counsellors and the relationship between them from a literature review.*

Burnout is a phenomenon said to occur particularly in occupations where a significant proportion of time is spent in close involvement with other people (Kilfedder, Power, & Wells, 2001) and concerns job-related affective well-being (Bakker, Schaufeli, Demerouti, Janssen, & Van der Hulst, 2000). Counsellors have unique and intense psychological demands placed on them each day that could make them more prone to experiencing burnout (Gueritault-Chalvin, Demi, Peterson, & Kalichman, 2000; McManus, Winder, & Gordon, 2002; Rowe, 1997;).

Burnout is generally viewed as a syndrome consisting of three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and reduced personal accomplishment (Storm & Rothmann, 2003). Emotional exhaustion refers to energy depletion or the draining of emotional resources (Bakker et al., 2000). Depersonalization refers to the development of negative, cynical attitudes toward the recipients of one's services (Bakker et al., 2000). Lack of personal accomplishment is the tendency to evaluate one's own work with recipients negatively, an evaluation that is often accompanied by feelings of insufficiency and poor self-esteem (Bakker et al., 2000).

Symptoms of burnout include reduced self-esteem, lack of confidence, reduced job satisfaction, inability to relax and enjoy life, and the inability to keep things in perspective and form balanced judgements (Pompili et al., 2006). Higher levels of burnout are likely to be found among workers who report high levels of anxiety, stress, who use external coping strategies and who use higher amounts of tangible support (Shoptaw, Stein, & Rawson, 2000). Engagement is the positive expansion of burnout (Gan, Yang, Yan, & Zhang, 2007). Job engagement has been proposed to describe a job-related, positive, and mentally rich state, including vigor, dedication and absorption (Shaufeli, Martinez, Marques, Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002).

In contrast to burnout, work engagement is defined as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind, characterized by vigor (high levels of energy while working, willingness to invest effort in work and persistence in the face of difficulties), dedication (sense of enthusiasm, inspiration, pride and challenge) and absorption (being happily engrossed in ones work, time passes quickly and one has difficulties detaching) (Shaufeli et al., 2002).

Vigor and dedication are directly opposite to exhaustion and cynicism (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Shaufeli et al., 2002). Low scores on exhaustion and cynicism, and high scores on efficacy are indicative of engagement (Shaufeli et al., 2002). Burnout and engagement scales are significantly and negatively related (Shaufeli et al., 2002).

Gan et al. (2007) determined that coping alleviated the impact that stress has on engagement. Burnout and engagement offer different pathways to understand stress and corresponding interventions (Gan et al., 2007).

In the terms of individual characteristics that might protect individuals from experiencing burnout even in stressful work environments, most researchers have drawn on models of stress and coping, such as proposed by Folkman and Lazarus (1980).

Research on the prevention of stress and burnout emphasizes the importance of identifying coping strategies to deal effectively with specific stressors (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000). Lazarus and Folkman (1984), define coping as, 'cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage

specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person’.

Coping strategies are often categorized into two groups: problem-focused and emotion-focused. Problem-focused strategies can be defined as activities used to change something about the situation or about oneself (Long, 1988), whereas emotion-focused strategies can be defined as activities used to manage or control one's feelings (Irion & Blanchard-Fields, 1987).

It has been proposed that the ability to perceive emotions in self and others, manage them, and handle relationships are important attributes to cope with stress (Pau, Croucher, Sohanpal, Muirhead, & Seymour, 2004). These attributes are encapsulated in the psychological construct called Emotional Intelligence (EI), popularized by Goleman (1995). Dewe (2004) argues that emotion management is a vital skill for counselling and guidance professionals.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) define Emotional Intelligence as the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Some conceptualizations of EI are rather broad and include a range of adaptive characteristics associated with emotions, whereas other conceptualizations of EI emphasize the cognitive elements, such as emotions aiding judgment and memory (Schutte et al., 2001).

According to Bar-On (2001) individuals with high levels of EI have several advantages over individuals with low EI. These advantages include emotional self-awareness, stress management, problem-solving, mood regulation, empathy and the ability to prevent distress from swamping one's ability to think clearly. EI has been found to be positively correlated with variables such as empathy, verbal intelligence, extraversion, openness to feelings, self-esteem, and life satisfaction (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi 2000; Schutte et al., 1998).

EI is a better predictor of success in the social world than the traditional IQ construct (Goleman, 1995). Svyantek and Rahim (2002) proposed that EI is critical to the individual's success in many social situations. EI is an attribute that may enable individuals to recognise and manage emotions evoked by stressful experiences (Pau et al., 2004). High emotional intelligent individuals may apply coping strategies with more positive outcomes (Pau et al., 2004).

The conclusion follows that burnout, coping and EI will have an impact on the well-being of non-professional counsellors.

Ashkanasy, Haertel and Daus (2002) established that EI is negatively related to burnout. With EI one is able to prevent burnout and other negative ideations (Stuart & Paquet, 2001). Ashkanasy et al. (2002) found that EI is negatively related to burnout and one is more able to cope with burnout if one has EI competencies to manage stress (Meyer, Fletcher, & Parker, 2004).

Coping skills play an important role in the prevention of burnout. The ability to cope well with stress is important because stress can result in health damaging behaviours and psychological morbidity (Steptoe, Wardle, Pollard, Canaan, & Davies, 1996). Workers with low burnout levels are likely to use internal coping strategies, to exhibit greater affiliation with the community, and to report better satisfaction with their personal and social support systems (Shoptaw et al., 2000).

Martin (1990) found that coping styles that involve cognitive and behavioural disengagement were associated with higher burnout and greater intentions to discontinue working in the field. Bennett, Kelaheer and Ross (1993) found that the use of external coping mechanisms led to higher levels of burnout. These results support studies that found external coping styles associated with increased stress and burnout compared to use of internal coping strategies (Gueritault-Chalvin et al., 2000).

Problem-focused coping strategies have typically been found to relate positively to various measures of psychological well-being (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Felton & Revenson, 1984) whereas certain emotion-focused strategies, such as wishful thinking and avoidance, have been found to relate negatively to psychological well-being (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987; Billings &

Moos, 1981; Felton & Revenson, 1984; Kampf, 1995). Seeking social support, which is both problem-focused and emotion-focused, has also been found to relate positively to psychological and physical well-being (Cohen, 1991).

Therefore coping strategies relate positively to well-being. Counsellors are better able to manage stress if they have the ability to perceive and manage emotions of self and others (Ashkanasy et al., 2002; Humpel, Caputi, & Martin, 2001; Pau et al., 2004). By exploring the importance of EI on workplace well-being, it outlines specific approaches, to coping with work stress.

The presence of high levels of EI is an important coping resource and may be crucial in helping counsellors work with people from a range of backgrounds (Constantine & Gainor, 2001). Emotionally intelligent counsellors appear to have interpersonal strengths that may enable them to better comprehend or be attuned to the experiences and issues of diverse others (Constantine & Gainor, 2001).

EI is often the key to good relationships with other people (Carter, 2002). EI is a vital factor in determining one's ability to succeed in life and is said to directly influence one's psychological well-being and emotional health (Bar-On, 1996).

- *To determine the validity and reliability of the measures of emotional intelligence, burnout, engagement and coping for non-professional counsellors in Gauteng and the North-West Province .*

According to the descriptive statistics the scores on the SEIS, MBI-GS, COPE and the UWES were normally distributed. The Cronbach alpha coefficients of all measuring instruments are considered to be acceptable compared to the guidelines of $\alpha > 0,70$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) except for the alpha coefficients of cynicism (0,60) and work engagement (0,67).

Two factors were extracted for EI (SEIS): emotional appraisal and emotion utilisation. Burnout (MBI-GS) comprises of two factors namely emotional exhaustion and cynicism. Engagement

consisted of one factor, work engagement. Coping (COPE) consisted of the following four factors: approach coping and avoidance, turning to religion and seeking emotional support.

- *To determine the relationship (correlation) between emotional intelligence, burnout, engagement and coping in a counsellor sample.*

Product-moment correlations indicated that emotional exhaustion and avoidance is positively related to cynicism. Emotion appraisal is positively related to emotion utilisation, engagement, approach coping and seeking emotional support. Emotion utilisation is positively related to approach coping and seeking emotional support.

Furthermore, approach coping and seeking emotional support are positively related to each other. Turning to religion is positively related to seeking emotional support.

It is evident from the research that non-professional counsellors that display EI will be able to manage their emotions, identify emotions, express emotions accurately and use emotions for decision-making and problem-solving. Non-professional counsellors that display EI will have work engagement and be able to apply coping such as approach coping and seeking emotional support. Furthermore the results show that non-professional counsellors that are cynical are likely to use avoidance as coping.

The results illustrate that the counsellor who is aware of non-verbal messages people send, share emotions with others, knowing when to express personal emotions and compliment others (emotional appraisal) would also expect good things to happen, coming up with new ideas when in a good mood, recognise and control emotions (Emotion Utilisation).

With emotional appraisal, a counsellor will find it easy to be engaged in the work situation; therefore the counsellor who is engaged in work will be able to prevent burnout.

It will be easier to approach the problem, accepting what had happened or seek support if counsellors are able to identify, express, recognise and control emotions.

With EI, non-professional counsellors are able to prevent and cope with burnout, therefore counsellors will be able to manage stress to prevent burnout if they have the ability to perceive and manage emotions of self and others.

EI arises from a productive union of the cognitive and emotion systems (Mayer, Perkins, Caruso, & Salovey, 2001). EI is a vital factor in determining one's ability to achieve in life and is said to directly influence one's psychological well-being and emotional health (Bar-On, 1997). The High emotional intelligent individuals may apply coping strategies with more positive outcomes (Pau et al., 2004).

It is important to adapt the necessary emotional skills to be more organised, to attend to important matters, social communication and to be more tolerant (Lee, 2003). With EI counsellors are able to prevent and cope with burnout.

- *To determine differences in the experience of emotional intelligence, burnout, engagement and coping of counsellors according to different demographical groups.*

The results of the study indicated that no significant differences were found between EI, gender, language, education and province.

The results obtained for the relationships between well-being and coping with gender, language, education, province and age indicated that there was no significant differences regarding well-being of the different demographic groups.

Furthermore it appeared that African language groups use more avoidance and seeking emotional support as coping strategies than Afrikaans language groups for the reason that a relationship was found between the use of avoidance and seeking emotional support as coping strategies based on language groups.

It was also found that participants in the North-West Province use avoidance more as a coping strategy than the participants in the Gauteng Province, since a relationship was found between the use of avoidance coping strategy based on the province where the participants were sited.

- *To determine if EI and coping predict the well-being (burnout, engagement) of non-professional counsellors.*

The results of the study indicated that EI and coping does predict the well-being of non-professional counsellors. The results indicated that EI predicted engagement, emotional exhaustion and cynicism. It was further found that avoidance coping predicted emotional exhaustion and cynicism. Approach coping and seeking emotional support predicted engagement.

- *To make recommendations for the future research regarding the wellness of non-professional counsellors.*

It is recommended that larger samples be used in order to determine relationships in demographic groups and that a more equal representation of gender be used to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence, burnout, engagement, coping and gender. Future research can also focus on the development and validation of a casual model of the well-being of non-professional counsellors.

It is also highly recommended that the questionnaires that were used in this study be translated into other South African languages, in order for all participants to fully understand the questions, since language could pose as a possible difficulty in fully understanding what the questions are asking.

4.2 LIMITATIONS

This study had several limitations. Firstly, a cross-sectional design was used and therefore causal inferences could not be drawn and the causal relationships between variables were interpreted rather than established. Self-report measures were also relied upon.

It is suggested that future studies conducted in this manner should corroborate whether bias and equivalence exist for the different language groups.

A further limitation is the size of the sample to ensure equal representation of gender. The questionnaires were only in English; thus the language disparity could also have an influence on the results.

Future studies could benefit hugely in terms of a stratified random-sample design, which would ensure sufficient representation of the different groups making up the total population of non-professional counsellors in South Africa.

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are given to the profession as well as for future research in South Africa.

4.3.1 Recommendations for the profession

Non-professional counsellors play a vital role in the community by means of helping people cope with disease, trauma, extreme loss and stress. The work of non-professional counsellors requires constant interaction with people who are distressed, and it is essential to regulate emotions of self and others, to prevent stress.

It is highly recommended that interventions and counsellor assistance programmes be made use of to prevent the effect of burnout and increase the effect of work engagement. It is also

suggested that the well-being levels of non-professional counsellors be monitored on an annual basis and they should receive EI training.

EI training will assist to develop sensitivity, and understanding of the emotional dimension. Once the non-professional counsellor is trained in this area, it is expected that he/she would experience less stress, will be able to cope with the stressors existing in the profession and be more engaged in the work situation.

4.3.2 Recommendations for future research

Future research could focus on the reliability and validity of the SEIS for other occupational settings and determine norm levels for other occupations in South Africa. It is recommended that adequate statistical methods, such as structural equation modelling, equivalence and bias analysis be used. Future research can focus on the development and validation of a casual model of the well-being of non-professional counsellors.

A larger sample could be used and a more equal representation of gender should be used to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence, burnout, engagement, coping and gender. It is suggested that the questionnaires should be translated into other South African languages.

It is further recommended that adequate statistical methods, such as structural equation modelling, equivalence and bias analysis be used.

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