

**The Effects of Emotional Intelligence on Coping Styles and Resilience among
Facilitators of the University of the Free State**

By

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DECLARATION

I, Lerato Edward Sekonyela, declare that the Master’s Degree research dissertation that I herewith submit for the Master’s Degree qualification MSocSc Industrial Psychology at the University of the Free State is my independent work, and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education.

.....

L.E. Sekonyela

.....

Date

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ABSTRACT

The University of the Free State (UFS) is increasingly making use of the student-centred approach to teaching and learning, and in-turn the number of employed facilitators is steadily increasing. This type of teaching and learning requires facilitation, which involves understanding the prescribed module content, and ability to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships with students as to allow for effective teaching and learning environment. This type of teaching, move away from traditional lecture-centred teaching and learning. Facilitation poses serious challenges, because facilitators are required to build rapport and interpersonal relationships with students, of which have a direct and indirect effect on facilitators. Literature further indicated that to be effective in teaching and learning, facilitators' ability to manage emotions and apply effective coping styles while remaining resilient in challenging situation is crucial. The primary aim of this study was to explore the effects of emotional intelligence on coping styles and resilience among the UFS facilitators. The secondary aim was to determine whether differences exists in levels of resilience amongst UFS facilitators with regard to gender.

The survey research design was applied and questionnaires were distributed to the UFS Access Programme facilitators. Information was collected from 88 respondents from a population of 220 facilitators. The UFS facilitators are responsible for the teaching and learning of students who do not meet the minimum requirements for admission to the UFS across the four faculties and seven campuses. The data-gathering instruments used in this study were the Resilience Scale (RS) to measure resilience; the Emotional Intelligence Index (EQI) to measure emotional intelligence competencies; and the Coping Strategies Indicator (CSI) to measure respondents' preferred coping styles. These three instruments had the reliability estimates between 0.764 and 0.963.

The correlation coefficient and stepwise regression were used to analyse the primary alternative research hypothesis, namely the variance in resilience scores can be statistically explained by emotional intelligence and coping styles amongst the UFS facilitators. The Mann-Whitney U test analysed the secondary alternative research

hypothesis, namely there is a statistically significant difference in scores achieved on resilience with regard to gender amongst the UFS facilitators.

The results indicated that the majority of the respondents were females, accounting for 80.7% and majority of the respondents had obtained an honours degree. The correlation results indicated a statistically significant correlation between facilitators' levels of emotional intelligence and resilience. Specifically, the results indicated a significant relationship between EQI: self-regulation and RS: equanimity, self-reliance and perseverance. Furthermore, EQI: social skills correlates with RS: self-reliance and perseverance. The results also indicated a statistically significant positive relationship between the problem-solving coping style and RS: self-reliance. The problem-solving coping style was also significantly correlated with emotional intelligence.

Stepwise regression results showed that the variance in total scores of resilience can be attributed to emotional intelligence specifically self-regulation, but not coping styles. Meaning that self-regulation influences resilience amongst the UFS facilitators. The Mann-Whitney U test results showed that there is no statistically significant differences in resilience scores with regard to gender among the UFS facilitators.

The results of this study indicated some relationship between emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience. However, some dimensions of these variables did not seem to have any relationship. Therefore, future research can investigate how and why there is no relationship between some of the emotional intelligence competencies and resilience components, and some coping styles and resilience components in the South African educational context. Future research can also make use of combination of data-gathering methods to yield a high response rate and get a sample with equal gender representation. In practice, UFS can provide resilience education for Access Programme facilitators' that develops emotional intelligence competencies and effective coping styles.

Key terms: Facilitators, Emotional Intelligence, Resilience, Coping Styles, Access Programmes.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

This chapter will discuss the nature of the facilitator's job and provide an explanation as to why resilience is important in the facilitator's work. The discussion will also focus on the influence of both emotional intelligence and coping styles on resilience, as well as gender difference with regard to resilience. After the discussion, problem statement, the research questions, research objectives and research hypotheses will be stated. Lastly, a brief outline of the study will be provided.

1.1. The nature of the facilitator's job

According to Clapper (2009), a facilitator is a person who understands that learning entails the putting together of teaching and learning strategies and activities to improve students' understanding and their achievement of learning outcomes. Wang (2008) indicated that facilitators have important roles to undertake. First, they have to understand teaching and learning methods to be able to assist their students in achieving certain learning outcomes. Secondly, they fulfil a social role, namely to create and maintain a safe, comfortable and interactive environment where students can participate and interact with one another. Finally, they have to demonstrate leadership by monitoring and controlling discussions to keep them focused.

As Massyn (2002) and Richards (2014) indicated, to be an effective facilitator, one needs to be an initiator, questioner, leader and guider in the classroom. At the University of the Free State (UFS), some facilitators are also module coordinators, meaning they also need to develop teaching and learning material that allows for a student-centred approach (Naude & Bezuidenhout, 2013). Similarly, Burgess (2008) indicated that the UFS requires material of a high standard, because the material forms the central principle of the learning process. Therefore, the role of facilitators goes beyond classroom management, as they need to be subject experts in preparing, planning and implementing discipline-specific outcomes.

Teachers have similar roles as facilitators, because teachers are also experts in their discipline and have to encourage students to achieve certain learning outcomes

through discussions (Clapper, 2009). Hence, Brown (2014) stated that facilitators could also be seen as teachers, and teachers as facilitators. Facilitators and teachers share certain characteristics and use their skills to enhance classroom effectiveness. Both facilitators and teachers display strong listening, reasoning, organisational and time management skills (Demorest, 2014).

A study by Ghanizadeh and Jahedizadeh (2016) found that teachers are moving away from a traditional teaching approach in which they are experts and leaders dictating information to students and emphasising acceptable standards, to a more student-centred approach. In the student-centred approach, teaching is about facilitation and delegation. Teaching in this approach is directed by questions, exploration and suggestion of opportunities or alternatives, providing students with the autonomy to become independent thinkers.

However, facilitation as a type of teaching faces serious challenges, because teachers need to facilitate or become facilitators by building rapport and inter-personal relationships with students (Ghanizadeh & Jahedizadeh, 2016). A study by Gill (2014) suggested that teachers exposed to the stress of other people, that is, supervisors, peers, subordinates, students and family, all of whom have a direct and indirect effect on them. As Mampane and Bouwer (2006) mentioned, educators are faced with the challenge of facilitating and supporting students who are, in turn, faced with personal and environmental challenges.

The UFS Access Programmes have acknowledged that students enter their programmes (i.e., the University Preparation and Extended Programmes) with different challenges, such as a lack of confidence in academic performance and financial problems (Burgess, 2008; Naude & Bezuidenhout, 2013). In Naude and Bezuidenhout's (2013) study the UFS facilitators reported being under pressure to lecture (which is according to the traditional teaching style) as opposed to facilitate learning.

The current study was motivated by a challenge cited by Lekalakala-Mokgele and du Randt (2005), namely the lack of self-knowledge and self-understanding amongst UFS facilitators. This lack of self-knowledge leads to frustrations amongst students, as

facilitators do not understand their potential, abilities and limitations (on both an emotional and cognitive level). There is also evidence that more and more faculties are making use of the student-centred approach to learning, which implies that the number of facilitators employed by the UFS will increase (Massyn, 2002). The number of students in programmes such as the University Preparation Programme that follows only the student-centred approach has increased from 478 students in 1995 to 1 072 students in 2017 (University Access Programme Longitudinal Report, 2017).

Another motivation for the study is the lack of research into the emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience of educators in higher education. As McLafferty, Mallett and McCauley (2012) argued, more investigation of emotional intelligence and coping styles is needed in the educational environment and not only with a focus on students, but also on educators (i.e., teachers, lecturers and facilitators/tutors). Then, educators will understand their own emotional intelligence abilities and effective coping styles, as emotional intelligence training and strategies that promote effective coping need to be incorporated into the teaching curriculum and environment. McLafferty et al. (2012) claimed that this knowledge will assist both educators and students to cope with the demands of a course. Grant and Kinman (2014) also pointed out that emotional intelligence skills are transferable and can assist individuals in managing both their personal and professional life.

Ghanizadeh and Jahedizadeh (2016) emphasised the importance of research into how *facilitators* manage to succeed in the educational environment, as most research usually focuses on the demands or challenges faced by *teachers*, such as work overload, student misbehaviour (Domenech & Gomez, 2010), role overload and unpleasant emotional experiences as a result of student behaviour (Dorman, 2003). According to Vesely, Saklofske and Lescheid (2013), the ability to manage emotions and apply effective coping styles while remaining resilient in challenging situations is a “hallmark” for effective teaching. Therefore, further research on the effects of these components in the educational environment is required.

Teachers encounter many situations that generate conflict and stress; therefore, teachers’ resilience is a critical element in classroom success and teacher retention (Bobek, 2010). Coetzee and Rothmann (2005) found that South African university

employees are stressed about the constant changes within the institutions and a lack of resources and communication. Gill (2014) also outlined that teachers specifically work in an unstable work environment with threats of job loss, downsizing and restructuring.

Howard and Johnson (2004) suggested that educators (including facilitators) need to be resilient in order to deal with students effectively. Research by Ghanizadeh and Jahedizadeh (2016) also revealed that, if teachers are to succeed, emotional intelligence and effective coping styles are essential. Similarly, Burns (2011), Erozkhan (2013) and Noorbakhsh, Besharat and Zarei (2010) argued that emotional intelligence is linked to coping styles, and high levels of emotional intelligence are related to better coping styles in times of stress (Bibi, Kazmi, Chaudhry, & Khan, 2015; McLafferty et al., 2012; Shah & Thingujam, 2008). Therefore, developing emotional intelligence is imperative if teachers are to remain resilient while maintaining good performance, especially working in such a challenging work environment (Gill, 2014).

1.2. The importance of resilience for facilitators

The definition of resilience varies across different cultures and contexts (Pearson & Hall, 2007). Resilience, according to Edward and Warelow (2005) and Gill (2014), means the ability to bounce back from negative emotional experience. In general, resilience refers to one's ability to cope well with adversity, to persevere and adapt when things do not go as planned (Pearson & Hall, 2007). Wagnild (2009) defined resilience as an individual's "emotional stamina" or inner power, control, adaptability and ability to cope successfully with stress. Edward and Warelow (2005) found that a resilient individual is responsible, positive, self-reliant, committed and socially skilful.

According to Edward and Warelow (2005), resilience is critical for individuals as an inner strength that helps them bounce back from problems that have the potential to lead to failure. In a similar vein, Pearson and Hall (2007) cited that resilience is important in helping people deal with stress and adversity and reach out to new opportunities. In social, work and school environments, resilient individuals are more healthy and successful, enjoy social relationships, and are less prone to depression than those who are not as resilient.

Delany et al. (2015) highlighted resilience as the construct that underpins effective and adaptive coping styles in the learning environment and beyond. In an educational environment, resilient educators demonstrated effective strategies to work with difficult students, responded to critical incidents and students' personal problems and needs in a genuine but emotionally self-protective way, manage relations with colleagues effectively, manage time and workload successfully, and deal with change flexibly and creatively (Howard & Johnson, 2004).

Therefore, it is vital for teachers, including facilitators, to develop resilient behaviour which is then to be transferred to the classroom and be of benefit to students. Indeed, resilience and resilient behaviour can be learned and added to contextual life experience (Bonnie, 1997; Corcoran & Tormey, 2013). McLafferty et al. (2012) advised that it is important to develop resilience early in careers, especially in the caring professions (e.g., teaching and social work).

1.3. The influence of emotional intelligence on resilience

1.3.1. Definitions of emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence has been defined in different ways in the literature. Salovey and Mayer proposed the concept "emotional intelligence" in the early 1990s (Corcoran & Tormey, 2013; Sternberg, 2000). Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004) indicated that the concept of emotional intelligence partly originates from earlier ideas of social psychology, while Corcoran and Tormey (2013) are of the opinion that the roots of emotional intelligence can be traced to the psychometric tradition in psychology. However, in an academic environment the term is considered relatively new (Corcoran & Tormey, 2013).

Edward and Warelow (2005), Erozkhan (2013), Gill (2014), Noorbakhsh et al. (2010) and Sternberg (2000) defined emotional intelligence as a person's ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in oneself and others. Kotze and Venter (2011) defined emotional intelligence as the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own feelings and emotions to discriminate among them, as well as to use the information to guide one's thinking.

The concept of “emotional intelligence” is proposed by Edward and Warelow (2005) as the ability to make one’s emotions work by using them in ways that generate a desired outcome. The concept has since its inception attracted attention and a number of powerful claims have been made about its importance for predicting coping success (Sternberg, 2000). Furthermore, there is growing evidence that the ability to understand emotion is an important part of teachers’ skill set. Teachers’ emotional skills have been found to influence students’ behaviour, engagement and attachment to school, as well as their academic performance (Corcoran & Tormey, 2013).

In light of the above, emotional intelligence abilities seem vital to university facilitators, because their duties involve encouraging learning through team building and cooperative learning strategies (Richards, 2014). As mentioned earlier, facilitators take on different roles in the classroom (Massyn, 2002; Richards, 2014); therefore, an understanding of their own and others’ (especially students’) emotions is critical, which is the basic competency of emotional intelligence (Edward & Warelow, 2005; Erozkhan, 2013; Gill, 2014; Noorbakhsh et al., 2010; Sternberg, 2000). Verma and Deepti (2011) highlighted empathy in teachers as an important additional competency in emotional intelligence. Furthermore, emotionally intelligent teachers are able to adjust their personal and professional life and use effective classroom techniques.

However, little attention has been paid to how emotional intelligence can be incorporated into teaching and the teaching profession (McLafferty et al., 2012; Mortiboys, 2012; Perry & Ball, 2007). As Mortiboys (2012) suggested, emotional intelligence is an unrecognised competency that teachers should be able to offer students to complement their subject expertise and pedagogical skills. Perry and Ball (2007) also indicated that teaching involves knowledge, emotion, cognition and motivation activities.

1.3.2. The relationship between emotional intelligence and resilience

Armstrong, Galligan and Critchley (2011) mentioned that emotional intelligence can be related directly to resilience. McLafferty et al. (2012) found that resilience mediates the negative association between emotional intelligence and stress, and that resilience and emotional intelligence are predictors of coping styles. These findings support the

importance of emotional intelligence in developing resilience and managing stress. Also, the intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence distinguishes between vulnerable and resilient individuals (McLafferty et al., 2012).

Armstrong et al. (2011) theorised that individuals with high emotional intelligence cope better with the emotional demands of stressful circumstances, because they can accurately perceive and appraise their emotions, know-how and when to express their feelings. Gill (2014) ascribed this behaviour to high resilience, because people with high resilience have great insight into themselves and others. Therefore, resilience is the outcome of well-developed emotional intelligence that can be applied to manage emotions by drawing on a positive affective outlook (Gill, 2014).

Oginska-Bulik's (2005) study determined that individuals with high emotional intelligence can adopt reflection and appraisal, social, organisational and time-management skills, all of which are important predictors of team/work success. These individuals have the ability to recognise and express emotions, manage and control them, and use effective coping styles; therefore, becoming more resilient (Noorbakhsh et al., 2010; Oginska-Bulik, 2005).

1.4. The influence of coping styles on resilience

1.4.1. Definitions of coping styles

Coping is defined as cognitive and behavioural responses to external demands (Kim & Agrusa, 2010). Beasley, Thompson, and Davidson (2003) described coping as all efforts to manage taxing demands without regard to self-efficacy, which means that coping is finding ways of dealing with a situation assessed to be challenging. Amirkhan (1994) defined coping styles as behavioural characteristics that are consistent (but not fixed) in response to a variety of stressful situations. In general, coping styles are patterns of behaviour that characterise an individual's response when faced with challenging situations which require some form of response (Beutler, Moos, & Lane, 2003).

Another definition, by Kim and Han (2015, p. 276), proposes that coping styles are "specific efforts, both behavioral and psychological, that people employ to master, tolerate, reduce or minimize stressful events". In an organisational context, coping

styles refer to how professionals (and employees) manage stressful events or demands (Montes-Berges & Augusto, 2007). These methods of coping can be adaptive (effective) or maladaptive (ineffective) (Thomas, Hodge, & Kotkin-Jaszi, 2016).

Lewis, Roache, and Romi (2011) stated that adaptive coping styles are specifically important in professions that involve engagement with other people, such as teaching. Teachers who have fewer resources and/or use maladaptive coping styles have been found to be experiencing high levels of stress, leading to burnout and ineffective classroom management. Gill (2014) strongly recommends the following to develop adaptive coping styles: gaining self- and others-awareness, finding positive ways of expressing emotions, allowing emotion to assist judgement, and employing emotional knowledge and reflective regulation of emotions to advance emotional and intelligence growth. Coping styles and resilience through emotional intelligence development will assist individuals to survive (Gill, 2014).

Erozkan (2013) pointed to a direct connection between emotional intelligence and coping styles. There is evidence that individuals who engage in positive/effective coping styles experience positive emotions and, consequently, become much happier than those who have not figured out which coping styles work best for them (Erozkan, 2013).

1.4.2. The relationship between coping styles and resilience

Skinner, Pitzer and Steele (2013) established that individuals who engage in maladaptive coping styles have low levels of resilience and emotional reactivity. Therefore, resilience is linked with successful coping (Hart, Brannan, & Chesnay, 2014; Li, Cao, Cao, & Liu, 2015). Similarly, Hart et al. (2014) stated that effective coping is an outcome of resilience, and that an understanding of effective and ineffective coping styles is, thus, important.

According to Khawaja and Stallman (2011), individuals who apply passive/ineffective coping styles experience more health problems, an increase in overall stress levels, psychological problems and physical complains. These authors indicated that

individuals with positive coping styles and resilient behaviours seem to have high self-knowledge, greater understanding of others, an expanded worldview, and help-seeking behaviours.

The cost of ineffective or limited coping styles in any occupation is detrimental to the employee, customer and organisation, especially to those involved in social services such as teachers and facilitators. If a facilitator has limited coping styles, the results might be high stress levels, leading to burnout which causes depersonalisation of students and emotional exhaustion (Lewis et al., 2011). There can still be joy, excitement, passion, hope and pride in the teaching profession as long as facilitators are able to establish and feel closeness in student relationships (Ghanizadeh & Jahedizadeh, 2016).

1.5. Gender difference and resilience

Previous researchers have found contradictory results with regard to resilience and gender differences (Lee Nam, Kim, Kim, Lee and Lee, 2013). Also, Losoi et al. (2013) indicated that there is limited research on the relations between resilience and gender. But, as Ravera, Iniesta-Arandia, Martin-Lopez, Pascual, and Bose (2016) clearly pointed out, understanding these differences is important, as gender affects the way individuals think, experience events and adapt.

The problem statement, research question, research objectives, research hypotheses and delineation of the chapters follow next.

1.6. Problem statement

The current study explored the effects of emotional intelligence on coping styles and resilience among UFS facilitators.

1.7. Research question

Considering the preceding introduction and problem statement, the following research questions were identified:

1.7.1. Primary research question

- Does emotional intelligence have an effect on coping styles and resilience amongst UFS facilitators?

1.7.2. Secondary research question

- Do differences exist in levels of resilience amongst UFS facilitators with regard to gender?

1.8. Research objectives

From the stated research questions, the objectives of this study were:

1.8.1. Primary research objective

- To determine by means of a non-experimental research design whether emotional intelligence has an effect on coping styles and resilience amongst UFS facilitators.

1.8.2. Secondary research objective

- To determine by means of a non-experimental research design whether differences exist in resilience amongst UFS facilitators with regard to gender.

1.9. Research hypotheses

Considering the above-mentioned objectives, the following research hypotheses were formulated:

1.9.1. Primary research hypotheses

Null hypothesis (H₀):

- Variances in resilience scores cannot be statistically explained by emotional intelligence and coping styles scores amongst UFS facilitators.

Alternative hypothesis (H₁):

- Variances in resilience scores can be statistically explained by emotional intelligence and coping styles scores amongst UFS facilitators.

1.9.2. Secondary research hypotheses

Null hypothesis (H₀):

- There are no statistically significant differences in scores achieved on resilience with regard to gender amongst UFS facilitators.

Alternative hypothesis (H₁):

- There is a statistically significant difference in scores achieved on resilience with regard to gender amongst UFS facilitators.

1.10. Delineation of the study

This section provides a brief description of the study chapters. The study is set out in seven chapters. Chapter 1 focuses on the general introduction and problem statement. The importance of studying the effects of emotional intelligence on coping styles and resilience amongst facilitators of the UFS is highlighted. This chapter also presents the research questions, objectives and hypotheses.

The literature review will span over four chapters. Chapter 2 provides the important discussions on resilience. In this chapter the discussion focuses on the nature and definitions of resilience, the three models of resilience, as well as the characteristics of resilient individuals. The protective factors critical to resilience are also discussed, followed by the strategies used to enhance resilience in individuals.

Chapter 3 focuses on emotional intelligence, providing an in-depth discussion on the topic. The discussion includes the nature and definitions of emotional intelligence, with emphasis on understanding the two concepts (“emotion” and “intelligence”) before defining the concept of “emotional intelligence”. Furthermore, emotional intelligence models are discussed, together with the important characteristics of emotional intelligence. The chapter concludes with a description of individual and organisational benefits of emotional intelligence, as well as the development of emotional intelligence.

Chapter 4 is a continuation of the literature review, but shifts the focus to coping styles. This chapter offers definitions of “coping” and “coping styles”. The different models of

coping and coping styles are also discussed. Attention then shifts to the coping resources required while going through challenging situations and factors influencing the choice of preferred coping style. A description of the benefits of effective coping styles and the development of coping styles concludes the chapter.

Chapter 5 focuses on uncovering the inter-relationship between emotional intelligence, resilience and coping styles. The chapter also discusses previous findings on these three variables.

Chapter 6 provides a detailed explanation of this study's research methods and procedures, after which the research design, selection of the respondents, ethical clearance and data-gathering procedures are set out. The chapter also outlines the statistical methods employed in the study.

Chapter 7 presents the analysis of the data collected. An outline of the limitations and recommendations for future research concludes the chapter.

CHAPTER 2

RESILIENCE

2.1. Introduction

According to Jackson, Firtko and Edenborough (2007), the concept of “resilience” originates from the 1800s. Noticeably the contribution of resilience to effective functioning has gained prominence in the education setting, as educators are increasingly being faced with tasks of offering and facilitating authentic support to the majority of students, who experience personal and environmental challenges (Mampane & Bower, 2006). Resilient employees (e.g., facilitators) are understood to have the ability to control stress effects amidst a challenging situation by changing their behaviour to facilitate and function above normal despite experiencing stress (Gillespie, Chaboyer, Wallis, & Grimbeek, 2007).

To understand resilience, the conceptual development of resilience needs to be explored, as resilience has been constructed as a system, trait, cycle and qualitative category (Jackson et al., 2007). In the next section, the discussion of resilience will continue, focusing on its nature and definition, the different models of resilience, as well as the characteristics of resilient individuals and factors contributing to resilience. The benefits of resilience and strategies to promote and strengthen resilience will also be under scrutiny in this chapter, as well as gender differences with regard to resilience.

2.2. Nature and definition

This section will shed light on the nature of resilience, as well as the different definitions of the concept.

According to Brown (1996), organisations that embrace resilience have a huge advantage over other organisations, as well as benefits to employees. As Robertson and Cooper (2011) found, resilient employees are able to mobilise and utilise effective coping strategies. Organisations that motivate employees and enable them to improve their skills are more likely to retain competent employees. Those organisations that understand the importance of resilience investigate and test potentially harmful information against current assumptions and mental models. In this way these organisations are able to detect the unexpected, allowing them to respond quickly to

exploit opportunity or prevent irreversible harm (Lamb, 2009). Organisational resilience further enables employees to overcome career obstacles and could set the stage for upcoming career success (Lamb, 2009). Therefore, the concept of resilience is important for organisational survival and individual development.

The focus of this study was on understanding individual resilience. However, this could not be achieved without understanding the impact that the environment, in this case the organisation, has on individual employees. In this regard, the UFS can assist in creating an environment that provides support to the growing number of academics (including facilitators) in developing the resilience needed to be successful. As Wissing, Potgieter, Guse, Khumalo, and Nel (2014) emphasised, resilience develops in an environment that provides purpose and meaning to the individual.

Theories of resilience as a trait propose that a combination of physical and psychological characteristics (i.e., body chemistry and personality factors) afford an individual the skill to be resilient (Jackson et al., 2007). However, resilience can also be viewed as a process and not as a fixed personal attribute or trait. That is why some people exhibit resilience over different circumstances and outcomes and the same characteristics are not necessarily protective in relation to all risks (Rutter, 2012).

Rutter (2012) viewed resilience as an interactive concept that has to be deduced rather than measured directly like in a study of personality (characterological trait). In other words, the existence of resilience has to be assumed from a perspective of individual differences, that is, from those individuals who have been through major stress or adversity. Jackson et al. (2007) distinguished between two major discourses of resilience. First is the physiological discourse, which refers to the fact that human beings have homeostatic mechanisms (meaning built-in reaction) to foster resilience in the event of adversity such as stress. Secondly, the psychological discourse is defined as the capacity to move on in a positive way from a traumatic, stressful experience. The latter type is the focus of the study.

Wagnild and Young (1993) and Wagnild (2009) defined resilience as an individual's "emotional stamina", or inner power, control, adaptability and ability to cope successfully when dealing with stress (Wagnild, 2010, p. 1). This implies that

individuals should be able to change quickly and maintain balance in their lives and avoid potentially harmful outcomes of stress (by applying effective coping styles) while remaining emotionally intelligent (Wagnild & Young, 1993). Wagnild and Young (1993), moreover, outlined that resilient individuals rely on protective factors which can be internal (e.g., emotional intelligence, self-reliance) or external (e.g., social relationships) to restore order in their lives. For this reason, emotional intelligence and coping styles are viewed as internal resilience factors that can be applied by facilitators to become more resilient, as depicted in the transactional resilience model discussed later in the chapter.

Another definition views resilience as an individual's ability to quickly design and implement positive adaptive behaviours that match the immediate situation, while enduring minimal stress (Mallak, 1998). According to Management Service (2005), the process of adapting well in the face of adversity, trauma, tragedy or other stressors is called resilient behaviour. Importantly, resilience involves behaviours, thoughts and actions that can be learned and developed.

Liebenberg and Ungar (2008, p. 40) view resilience as a “dynamic, developmental process involving positive adjustment in the face of significant adversity”. Therefore, resilient individuals can use internal or external resources to achieve age-appropriate developmental expectations. According to Ghanizadeh and Jahedizadeh (2016), internal resources can include emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and attribution. In the same vein, Rutter (2012, p. 336) described resilience as “reduced vulnerability to environmental risk experiences, the overcoming of stress or adversity, or a relatively good outcome despite risk experiences”. Hence, resilience is seen as an outcome of well-developed emotional intelligence that can be used to manage emotions by drawing on a positive affective outlook (Gill, 2014).

Psychological resilience is summarised by Vossler (2012, p. 68) as a “dynamic process encompassing positive adaptation within the context of significant adversity”. Wagnild and Young (1993) mentioned that adaptive outcomes had previously been described as evidence of resilience, which included social and psychological competencies (e.g., emotional intelligence).

Delany et al. (2015) described resilience as an adaptive process that guides individuals to bounce back from adverse situations while employing and/or developing sufficient personal qualities (e.g., emotional intelligence, self-efficacy) that lead to effective problem solving, creative thinking and purposeful establishment of trusting relationships. As stated in chapter 1, resilience definitions and meaning vary in different cultures and contexts, but generally resilience refers to one's ability to cope well with adversity and to persevere and adapt when things do not go as planned (Hand, 2008; Lundman, Strandberg, Eisemann, Gustafson, & Brulin, 2007; Pearson & Hall, 2007; Southwick & Charney, 2012). Although there is agreement about what constitutes resilience, some differences still exist. For the purpose of this study, the definition of resilience by Wagnild and Young (1993) will be adopted, because the resilient behaviour of UFS facilitators will be measured using their questionnaire.

Models of resilience will be discussed next, specifically the ecological perspective, the resilience developmental model and the transactional model of resilience.

2.3. Resilience models

According to Lamb (2009), there is no single resilience model, but a family of approaches which overlap considerably. The ecological perspective on resilience, the transactional resilience model, and the resilience developmental model will be discussed.

2.3.1. The ecological perspective on resilience

The ecological perspective on resilience can be traced back to the studies of Holling in 1973 (Berkes & Ross, 2013; Walker, Holling, Carpenter, & Kinzig, 2004). According to this perspective, resilience is not an attribute of any single individual, but an attribute of communities, organisations, institutions and families (Resilience Resource Centre, in Lamb, 2009). The ecological perspective specifies that well-being is significantly affected by the social contexts in which individuals' lives are embedded and is a function of the quality of relationships among individual, family and institutional systems (Lamb, 2009).

The ecological perspective describes resilience as the capacity of an individual, group or organisation to maintain its form or existence while experiencing adverse situations. The perspective outlines resilience as an adaptable state that is striving to maintain a balance or state of normality within an environment while using various resources (Longstaff, 2005, in Norris, Stevens, Pfefferbaum, Wyche, & Pfefferbaum, 2008). Berkes and Ross (2013, p. 6) summarised resilience as the “capacity of the system to continually change and adapt and yet remain within critical thresholds”. In other words, resilience is maintaining a normal state in a changing environment (Walker et al., 2004).

Norris et al. (2008, p. 134) identified the characteristics that contribute to the maintenance of resilience equilibrium in a changing environment. The first characteristic is *robust*, defined as the ability to cope with adversity without losing integrity. The second one is *redundancy*, described as the ability to build and maintain sufficient social relationships and solve problems using a variety of ways. The third characteristic, *rapid mobilisation*, refers to one’s efficiency and accuracy to achieve the set goals. Lastly, *resourcefulness* is defined as the ability to recognise challenges and using appropriate resources to deal with the challenges. Walker et al. (2004) stated that these resources define the capability to adapt and succeed during environmental change.

Resilience research has increasingly viewed the ecological model as significant, as this model views individuals’ functioning and behaviour within the context of bi-directional relationships, including family, work, colleagues, the community and the wider society (Lamb, 2009). Walsh (2003) added that resilience can be seen as the interaction of various risks and protective processes over a period of time. These processes include individuals, family and larger social and cultural influences. Therefore, to nurture and reinforce resilience, the resources from individual, family, work or educational settings need to be put together during times of adversity (Walsh, 2003). The model indicates the quality of interpersonal relationships and the importance of support networks.

2.3.2. The transactional resilience model

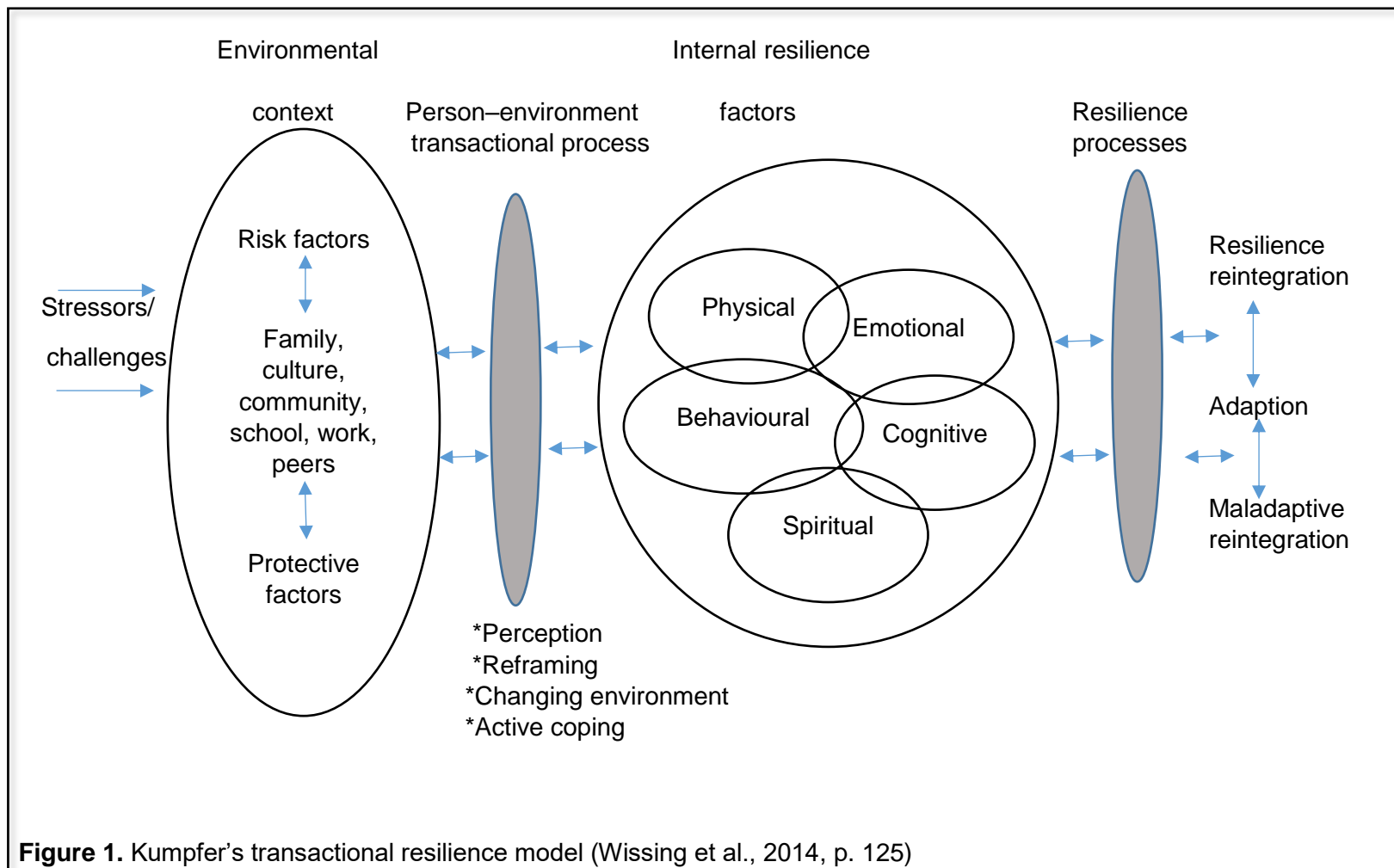
According to Wissing et al. (2014), the transactional resilience model by Kumpfer conceptualises resilience as a social concept. However, resilience is not only influenced by an individual's social environment but involves the personality characteristics of the individual (Jackson et al., 2007), resources available to the individual (Ablett & Jones, 2007; Grafton, Gillespie, & Henderson, 2010; Liebenberg & Ungar, 2008; Lundman et al., 2007; Norris et al., 2008; Walker et al., 2004) and outcome behaviour (Tebes, Irish, Puglisi-Vasquez, & Perkins, 2004) after an adverse encounter.

Hence, resilience is assumed to include environmental risk and protective factors (e.g., age, geographical location, culture, etc.) (Wissing et al., 2014). Wissing et al. (2014) explained that resilience will take place in an environment that allows for a clear sense of purpose and meaning to the individual, family and larger society. As argued by Antonovsky (in Vossler, 2012), the role of available resources and the sociocultural and societal context cannot be ignored in the development and strengthening of individual psychological resilience.

Therefore, high levels of resilience, effective coping styles and solid personal resources can be achieved through meaningful and healthy relationships between the individual, family, culture and larger society (Mampane & Bouwer, 2006; Wissing et al. 2014). The ability to meaningfully manage and maintain healthy relationship is referred to as emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Therefore, an individual's level of emotional intelligence plays a vital role in resilience.

When applying the transactional resilience model, researchers need to consider the diverse and collective cultures in different communities (especially in South Africa). In order to identify and understand a person's resilience level careful consideration should be taken with regard to the environmental and personal protective factors (Mampane & Bouwer, 2006).

Kumpfer (1999) (in Wissing et al., 2014) identified four important factors in the transactional resilience model and two points of transactional process. Figure 1 outlines Kumpfer's transactional resilience model.



Factors in the transactional resilience model

- 1) *Stressors and challenges*: These refer to the adverse situation that causes the disruption. The severity of the challenges (or adversity experienced) will then be influenced and determined by an individual's cognitive interpretation of the stimuli.
- 2) *External environmental context*: This includes both risk and protective factors that are related to age, culture, geographic location and historical period.
- 3) *Internal self-characteristics*: These include the components that are needed for a person to successfully perform a task in different environments. These components include cognitive (i.e., academic and problem-solving coping styles); emotional (i.e., emotional intelligence and empathy); behavioural (i.e., interpersonal skills and life skills); and spiritual characteristics.
- 4) *The positive outcome*: Successful outcomes can contribute positively to dealing with or adapting to new challenges later in life. As Robertson and Cooper (2011) stated, achieving mastery is critical for enhancing confidence and competence, which in turn are vital in building personal resilience.

The transactional process:

- a) *The person–environment interactional process*: This is the step-by-step process where challenges are consciously or unconsciously solved, transforming a high-risk environment into a risk-free environment. The processes include:
 - i) Selective perception, focusing on certain parts of the environment
 - ii) Cognitive reframing (also known as “flexible thinking”, Robertson & Cooper, 2001, p. 102), meaning that an individual can find new ways of doing things
 - iii) Changing environments, which imply actively changing how the situation is perceived, and
 - iv) Active coping, referring to directly dealing with the challenge in a good way, such as using problem-solving coping styles. The use of ineffective or passive coping styles (i.e., avoidance coping styles) can lead to maladaptation, while active coping styles (i.e., problem solving and seeking social support) can lead to adaptive

resilience (McLafferty et al., 2012). These different coping styles will be discussed in detail in chapter 4.

- b) *The resilience process*: This process includes the techniques employed by the individual to cope with the challenging situation and bounce back successfully (Wissing et al., 2014). The reintegration that the individual will experience (during the resilience process) depends on the personal and environmental protective factors, which either assist or hinder in dealing with the adverse situation or challenge (Mampane & Bouwer, 2006). Furthermore, this reintegration can lead to a normal or above normal state of functioning on the one hand, and to dysfunctional functioning (reintegration with loss) on the other.

Individuals who experience maladaptive resilience reintegration resort to avoidance coping styles because, first, they fail to realise and use protective factors available in the social system and, secondly, they lack flexibility and planning in their problem solving. These individuals usually experience life, work and academic problems. In contrast, individuals who successfully reintegrate have been found to be assertive, have internal locus of control and high self-efficacy, and are resourceful in their problem solving. Therefore, these individuals set goals, plan how to achieve their goals and see problems as challenges they can overcome (Mampane & Bouwer, 2006).

2.3.3. The resilience developmental model

According to Grafton et al. (2010), the resilience developmental model views resilience as an instinctive resource which individuals can use to motivate, rely upon, and assist to cope with, develop and educate themselves from adverse experiences in life and work. Richardson (2002) proposed that these motivational forces help individuals to realise and apply the inner force that drives them towards self-actualisation and to resiliently reintegrate from disruptions. Motivational forces are assumed to be available to all individuals (Grafton et al., 2010; Richardson, 2002).

With regard to the educational environment, Skinner and Pitzer (2012) proposed that both partners (students and facilitators) initially have a strong internal force/motivation, but that there seems to be a steady decline in this resilient behaviour as time goes by.

The decline can be attributed to individual ignorance towards nurturing this important energy resource. Therefore, enhancing individual personal resilience is not only a process of receiving assistance from outside the self, as the ecological model outlines, but also a repetitive process of discovering, using and developing the innate self (known as resilience that exists within) (Grafton et al., 2010).

Richardson (2002) adds that external resources can be used to trigger one’s built-in resilience. In this model, resilience is understood from a broad theoretical view that encompasses a view of resilience as personal characteristics (Jackson et al., 2007) and a dynamic process (Liebenberg & Ungar, 2008; Rutter, 2012; Wagnild, 2009; Wagnild & Young, 1993), and that sources of resilience are the individual’s spirit, mind and body (Grafton et al., 2010; Richardson, 2002). Figure 2 depicts the resilience developmental model, including the various understandings of resilience from different authors (Richardson, 2002).

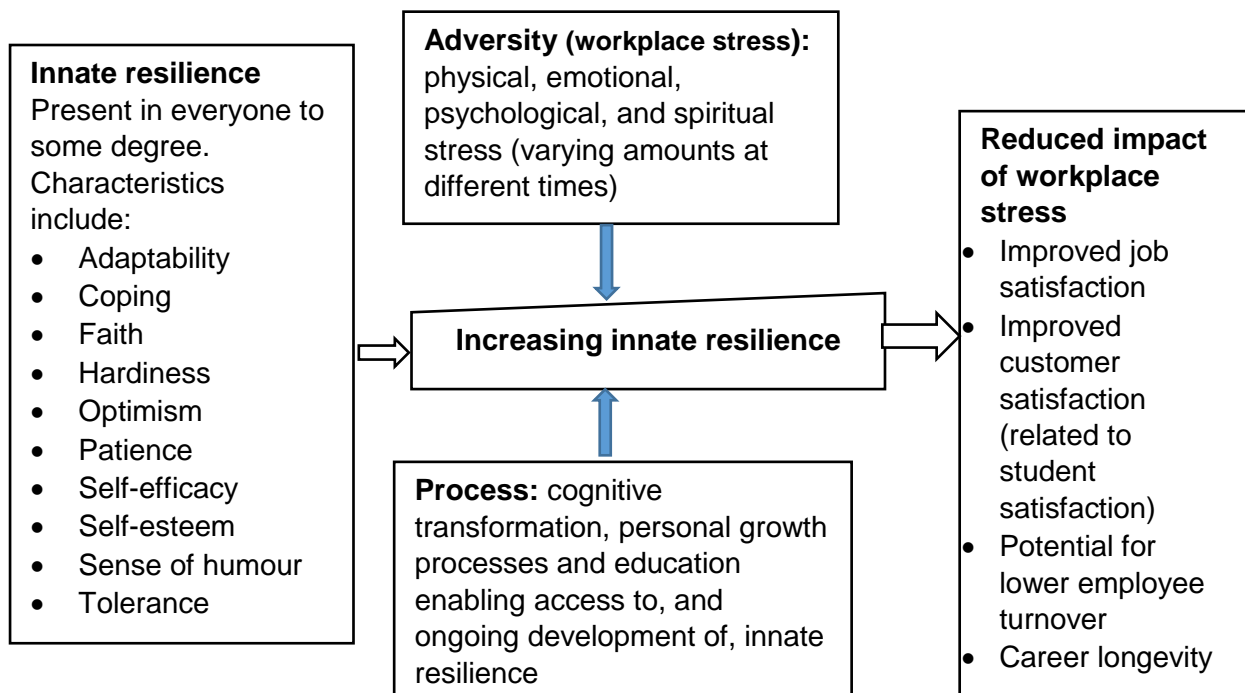


Figure 2. Resilience developmental model (Grafton et al., 2010, p. 701)

Grafton et al. (2010) claimed that resilience is a resource that individuals can utilise to a) effectively cope with adversity during stressful situations and b) convert the stressful situation into a learning experience to reconstruct and reinforce the mind, body and soul (spirit), which in turn will lead to well-being and a decrease in vulnerability to upcoming adverse events. This positive adjustment enables individuals to no longer

perceive stressful events as negative, but instead associate the experience with positive meaning and as an opportunity for personal change or growth (Tebes et al., 2004). This transformation is seen as evidence of resilience, because resilience is the ability to not only cope in challenging situations, but to also come out better equipped for future challenges (Lamb 2009; Liebenberg & Ungar, 2008; Richardson, 2002; Wagnild, 2009).

Clearly, the environment that an individual comes in contact with plays an important role in shaping the resilience factors or the innate self, as Grafton et al. (2010) mentioned. Both the ecological model and transactional model of resilience point out that the normal state or above-normal state of functioning cannot be achieved without the inputs and support of the social system (Mampane & Bouwer, 2006; Vossler, 2012; Walsh, 2003; Wissing et al., 2014). On the other hand, the resilience development model assumes that resilience is an innate process within the individual where the external environment acts as the activator of this innate resource (Richardson, 2002).

For the purpose of the current study, the developmental and transactional models of resilience were adopted, because resilience is considered to be an inner power (including internal and external resources) that individuals use when faced with an adverse situation. Wagnild and Young (1993) and Wagnild (2009) pointed out certain characteristics within the individual that need to be developed and re-developed for an individual to become resilient. According to the resilience developmental model, these characteristics include hardiness, coping styles, self-efficacy and self-esteem, while the transactional resilience model highlights the importance of internal resilience factors such as emotional (e.g., emotional intelligence), cognitive (e.g., problem-solving styles), physical, behavioural and spiritual attributes in maintaining one's ability to bounce back from an adverse situation. Similarly, Grafton et al. (2010) stated that building resilience is a process of discovering, using and developing the resilience that exists within (the innate self).

However, the environmental factors that trigger the innate self cannot be ignored, as they serve as risk and protective factors which assist an individual in maintaining a "normal state" in a changing environment. The next section will focus on the innate

characteristics of resilient individuals and the protective factors which enhance adaptation.

2.4. Characteristics of resilient individuals

As mentioned above, Wagnild (2009) and Wagnild and Young (1993) indicated certain characteristics that individuals need to develop and re-develop in order to become resilient. These characteristics are psychological (e.g. cognitive abilities, emotional intelligence, coping styles) and biological (Wagnild & Young, 1993). However, note should be taken that these characteristics work differently in the presence of stress (Rutter, 2012), as Tebes et al. (2004) found that individuals might be resilient in stressful situations but not in other situations, and the level of resilience might change, given the circumstances.

According to Edward and Warelow (2005) and Gill (2014), a resilient individual is characterised by the ability to bounce back from negative emotional experience. As McLafferty et al. (2012) stated, emotional intelligence plays a significant role in developing resilience and managing an adverse situation. In other words, individuals have an inner strength that helps them recover from problems that seem to have the potential to lead the person to failure. This statement seems to imply that people with high resilience will also have high emotional intelligence. Grafton et al. (2010) acknowledged that resilience is an inner strength available within the person which further allows the person to respond positively to adverse situations.

Similarly, Edward and Warelow (2005) and Losoi et al. (2013) found that a resilient individual shows adaptive behaviours such as being responsible, positive, self-reliant, committed and socially skilful, especially in areas of social, morale and physical health (Wagnild & Young, 1993). Also, Lundman et al. (2007) and Vossler (2012) argued that resilient people are those who have more personal resources (e.g., emotional intelligence and access to different coping styles), high self-esteem, self-confidence and self-discipline than people who are less resilient. These individuals are courageous, remain positive when dealing with adversity and have above-average cognitive abilities.

Wagnild (2009; 2010) and Wagnild and Young (1993) discovered five characteristics of resilience that summarise the resilient individual, namely perseverance, equanimity, meaningfulness, self-reliance and existential aloneness. *Perseverance* refers to the desire to reconstruct one's life and remain involved amidst adversity. *Equanimity* is described as the objective interpretation of life and experiences. Individuals with equanimity often have a sense of humour. *Meaningfulness* implies the recognition and understanding that life has purpose – these individuals have something to live for. *Self-reliance* refers to the belief in personal strength and capabilities, and these individuals rely on themselves in challenging situations. Lastly, *existential aloneness* is the realisation and acceptance that individuals are unique; therefore, some experiences can be shared, while others need to be faced alone. In this study, these characteristics were measured using Wagnild and Young's Resilience Scale to understand the level of resilience amongst UFS facilitators.

Research shows that people who are resilient do not only reduce the existence of stress in their lives, but also see stressful conditions as opportunities for growth and development as opposed to a threat to well-being (Lamb, 2009). A study of Sood, Bakhshi, and Devi (2013) found that high levels of resilience have a positive correlation with better psychological well-being, high emotional intelligence and general positive affect. Pearson and Hall (2007) cited that resilience is critical in helping people deal with stress and adversity and reach out to new opportunities. In the social and work environments, resilient individuals are healthier, successful at work and/or school, enjoy social relationships and are less prone to depression.

In an educational environment, Howard and Johnson (2004) study demonstrated that resilient educators applied effective strategies to work with difficult students, responded to critical incidents and students' personal problems and needs in genuine but emotionally self-protective ways, managed relations with colleagues effectively, managed time and workload successfully, and dealt with change flexibly and creatively. Therefore, it is important for facilitators to develop resilient behaviour, as this behaviour can be transferred to the classroom and, in turn, be of benefit to students, as Bonnie (1997) argued that resilience can be learned.

In a study by McLafferty et al. (2012) older individuals showed high resilience and emotional intelligence compared with younger individuals. The authors therefore advised that resilience be developed early in careers, especially in those who work in caring professions (e.g., education). Losoi et al. (2013) and Lundman et al. (2007) concur that resilience increases with age. Therefore, facilitators can develop resilient behaviour as they grow in the academic environment. For the purpose of this study, the understanding of individual inner characteristics and protective factors to resilience provides a clear basis for enhancing facilitators' resilience. The next section will focus on protective factors to resilience.

2.5. Protective factors to resilience

In addition to the characteristics above there are protective factors that reinforce the five innate characteristics of resilience identified by Wagnild and Young (1993) and Wagnild (2009). Edward and Warelow (2005) affirmed that these factors help individuals to thrive in and as a result of adversity. Therefore, resilience can be best promoted when an individual pays attention to these factors.

The following section focuses on social, cognitive and psychological protective factors that increase resilience as outlined in the development and transactional models of resilience. This section will help us understand the role of these factors (social, cognitive and psychological) in resilience.

2.5.1. Social, cognitive and psychological factors

Hand (2008) and Edward and Warelow (2005) identified three major categories of factors that promote and maintain a resilient attitude, namely a) *social support* (e.g., cultural influences, community, work, personal and family/colleagues support); b) *cognitive skills* (e.g., intelligence, coping styles, self-efficacy and perception); and c) *psychological resources* (e.g., emotional intelligence, internal locus of control, empathy and curiosity, a tendency to seek novel experiences, a high activity level, flexibility in new situations, and a sense of humour). In addition, Bonnie (1997) stated that resilience skills include the ability to form relationships, solve problems, develop a sense of identity, and plan and hope.

Jackson et al. (2007) argued that individuals can develop and strengthen personal resilience through developing strategies to reduce their own vulnerability and personal impact of adversity in the workplace. Furthermore, Jackson et al. (2007) suggested that one's level of resilience potential is determined by one's experiences, qualities and the environment, and by each person's ability to balance risk and protective factors, which in turn help individuals to achieve positive outcomes regardless of the risk. Jackson et al. (2007) also proposed that personal and individual resilience can be achieved through the following factors:

2.5.1.1. Hardiness

The process of hardiness helps to neutralise stressful events or extreme adversity. Hardiness is described by three dimensions, namely:

- Being committed to finding meaningful purpose in life
- The belief that one can influence one's surroundings and the outcome of events, and
- The belief that one can learn and grow from both positive and negative life experiences (Bonanno, 2004). Change in life is experienced and seen as an opportunity for growth and a normal part of life (Ablett & Jones, 2007).

Ablett and Jones (2007) identified a sense of coherence as closely related to hardiness, which is the characteristic that is considered to be a resource of resilience. Sense of coherence is described as a person's integrated view of life as being manageable, comprehensible and meaningful. In this regard, Amirkhan and Greaves (2003) argued that a sense of coherence can also affect an individual's choice of coping styles, because the individual has the ability to view the world as under control (whether personal control or superior force control). Wagnild and Young (1993) and Wagnild (2009) agree that the resources can be from within or outside the individual.

Individuals should be able to cognitively interpret their life as rational, structured and predictable, and view life demands as challenges that deserve the investment of energy. Furthermore, they should believe that they possess the resources or energy to deal with challenges (Amirkhan & Greaves, 2003; Super, Wagemakers, Picavet, Verkooijen, & Koelen, 2015; Vossler, 2012; Wagnild, 2009; Wagnild & Young, 1993).

In this study, a sense of coherence is seen as the protective factor that assists individuals in improving and developing their resilience.

Both hardiness and sense of coherence draw from the salutogenic paradigm, because they both draw from an understanding of personality variables and investigate the sense of meaning which individuals make within the social context (Ablett & Jones, 2007). The salutogenic paradigm is viewed as the process of enabling individuals, groups and organisations to emphasise abilities, resources, capacities and strengths in order to create a sense of coherence to allow them to perceive life as comprehensible, manageable and meaningful (Lamb, 2009). As discussed in chapter 4, a sense of coherence is positively associated with adaptive coping styles (i.e., problem-solving coping styles), and individuals become resilient when dealing with challenging situations by drawing upon their general resources of resistance (Vossler, 2012).

2.5.1.2. Building positive, nurturing professional relationships and networks

Stein (2007) indicated that employees who support one another are cooperative and feel positive. The positive relationship between colleagues helps individuals to cope better and remain resilient. Social support has been identified as an important component in resilience; therefore, relationships need to be maintained as a component of social support. Relationships need also to be developed with people who can give guidance and support when needed (e.g., mentoring which is the formal relationship between an experienced academic lecturer and facilitator) (Jackson et al., 2007). Walsh (2003) also found that mentors, teachers or coaches should direct their support to the efforts of the individuals and encourage the individuals to make the most of their lives.

Southwick and Charney (2012) posited that supportive caretakers, stable role models and well-built social support can be beneficial to one's ability to find meaning from stressful situations. Furthermore, this support can be from religious or spiritual sources, family, friends or senior/experienced co-workers, as older individuals have been shown to be more resilient than younger adults (Losoi et al., 2013; Lundman et al., 2007; Southwick & Charney, 2012). Walsh (2003) also established that it is possible to develop resilience throughout one's life. However, individuals should

realise that some situations can be shared, while others need to be faced alone (i.e., existential aloneness) as mentioned above (Wagnild, 2009; Wagnild & Young, 1993).

2.5.1.3. Maintaining a positive attitude

Resilient people are able to draw on some form of positive emotion even in times of stress and hardship. Resilient individuals are also able to see the positive aspects and potential benefits of a situation, instead of being negative or doubting their abilities or inner strength (Jackson et al., 2007). Furthermore, these individuals have the ability to not only accept and tolerate negative affect, but to also reframe and persevere (Wagnild, 2009; Wagnild & Young, 1993) in a challenging situation while remaining positive, which are also the qualities of emotionally intelligent individuals.

Robertson and Cooper (2011) emphasised the importance of maintaining a balance between positive and negative emotions. In simple terms, people can maintain this balance by experiencing more positive emotions than negative emotions. Cannella, Lobel, Glass, Lokshina, and Graham (2007) and Thomas et al. (2016) argued that a positive outlook of the future is an intrapersonal coping resource which assists in reducing or controlling the effects of stressful situations. This positive attitude can lead to better well-being, as well as the use of adaptive coping styles such as problem-solving coping and seeking social support, as identified by Amirkhan (1990).

2.5.1.4. Developing emotional insight

According to Lamb (2009), emotional intelligence refers to the degree of psychological skilfulness with which people deal with events. Because emotionally intelligent individuals are aware of their own emotions and others', developing insight into negative and positive emotions could be a first step in strengthening personal resilience, together with the use of journaling and self-reflection as some of the strategies that enhance emotional insight (Jackson et al., 2007).

Southwick and Charney (2012) established that the mental capacity to regulate emotions and selfless concern for the well-being of others can foster positive emotions when dealing with stressful situations. A positive frame of mind is important for individuals, as it guides the interpretations and cognitive processes applied in challenging work situations (Robertson & Cooper, 2011).

Hayward (2005) claims that high levels of emotional intelligence can also increase an individual's resilience to workplace demands while utilising effective coping styles. As cited by Cox (2011), positive emotions may broaden the mode of thinking, making the members of the organisation more flexible, creative, empathic, resilient and socially integrated. In turn, this affects how individuals feel and how they act. Therefore, it is critical for facilitators to understand how their emotions affect them and, in turn, how to control the effects of their emotions.

2.5.1.5. Achieving life balance and spirituality

Increasing the levels of resilience is important for participation in a range of healthy activities outside one's professional life. These activities can include those that are physically, emotionally and spiritually nurturing (Jackson et al., 2007). Robertson and Cooper (2011) added physical exercise, as a way of maintaining and looking after one's physical health, as an important contributor to the development of personal resilience.

2.5.1.6. Self-assessment and feedback

According to Kerfoot (2005), self-assessment and regular feedback (formal and informal) to the individual employee is vital in enhancing career and personal resilience (Robertson & Cooper, 2011) and serves as an indicator of individual developments and weakness. Jackson et al. (2007) also mentioned that self-assessment is a way of developing insight and understanding into experiences, as well as knowledge that can be used in subsequent situations. Furthermore, to build resilience, individuals need to identify and know their own strengths and weaknesses, as this knowledge will assist in developing additional talents, skills and resources within their area of interest.

In light of the contributing factors above, it is imperative that individuals have an innate awareness and understanding of self (e.g. cognitive skills) with regard to their emotions (whether positive or negative), strengths or abilities. Furthermore, individuals should have a reliable and accessible social support system to draw on in situations that require support from others and to provide constructive feedback. Wagnild and Young (1993) reiterated that resilient individuals are able to regain balance and keep going despite adversity and misfortune, and they are able to find meaning amidst

confusion and turmoil. These individuals are said to be confident and to understand their own strengths and weaknesses.

In the following section, the benefits of resilience and strategies in promoting and strengthening of resilience will be discussed.

2.6. Benefits of resilience

Resilience can offer a number of benefits to both individuals and organisations. In this section, the benefits associated with resilience will be discussed.

Mampane and Bouwer (2006) stated that resilient individuals are not only productive, but have an ability to apply adaptive coping styles (i.e., problem solving). These individuals refrain from using denial or avoidance as coping styles. However, Gillespie et al. (2007) slightly disagree with Mampane and Bouwer (2006), as they found moderate statistical association between coping, specifically the problem-solving coping style and resilience. This finding offers a different, critical interpretation, namely that emotion-focused coping or avoidance might have been used by the participants in Gillespie et al.'s study in a situation perceived as uncontrollable.

Lundman et al. (2007) outlined that resilience can be positively associated with better health and well-being, successful aging, life satisfaction and ability to cope, whereas a lack of resilience can lead to depression (loneliness and hopelessness) and physical and psychological distress.

Ablett and Jones (2007) and Robertson and Cooper (2011) found that employees who are resilient and have a sense of well-being are more likely to stay longer in an organisation and remain committed to the organisation and their work. Robertson and Cooper (2011) also observed increased performance and productivity among resilient employees. In an educational environment, a resilient facilitator will encourage awareness and development of strengths and talents among students, which will counteract the students' personal weaknesses (Mampane & Bouwer, 2006). As Lantieri, Kyse, Harnett, and Malkmus (2011) pointed out, resilient facilitators can promote a learning environment where there is autonomy and an increased sense of student engagement.

Therefore, the ability to identify and understand one's resilient strategies is key in assisting facilitators to determine and unlock their own resilience mechanism to deal with challenges. In this regard, Mampane and Bower (2006) argued that resilience factors can be developed through the effective empowerment of educators.

The next section focuses on strategies in promoting and strengthening resilience.

2.7. Strategies in promoting and strengthening resilience

This section will focus on strategies to promote and strengthen resilience to enable individuals to deal with adversity and move on. Research by Lantieri et al. (2011) indicated that effective coping styles that are used by resilient individuals can be taught to individuals at risk to help them manage adverse situations.

Mampane and Bower (2006) and McLafferty et al. (2012) stated that resilience education can fulfil a significant role in developing and improving individual resilience. Resilience trainers need to provide resilience skills programmes and encourage and guide individuals towards self-awareness. Lantieri et al. (2011) found that resilience programmes are effective when they are focused on improving the resilience mind-set by educating individuals to adopt and use stress management techniques and effective coping styles. The adoption of these techniques assists in changing individuals' internal response to adverse situations and encourages them to call upon others for support when needed.

McLafferty et al. (2012) suggested mentor-mentee programmes where an older individual is paired with a younger one to strategically improve resilience and emotional intelligence. For example, an individual with expertise (i.e. a Professor) in different areas can be paired with the younger employee (i.e. facilitator) to provide resilience development and support. Furthermore, Mampane and Bower (2006) explained individual talents and strengths should be developed while taking into account the environmental factors and roles of social interactions that individuals experience. Supportive and reliable mentors and/or role models can influence the success and failures in one's life.

According to Wagnild (2010), resilience can be strengthened by developing and/or increasing an individual's resilience core, involving the five important characteristics, namely *meaningfulness*, *perseverance*, *equanimity*, *self-reliance* and *existential aloneness* of resilient individuals. First, one should find one's purpose, in other words *meaningfulness*, because life without purpose is perceived to be aimless. Wagnild (2010) claimed that life purpose usually finds us, and individuals need to focus on the purpose for which they are needed each day. Questions such as: "What do I do that others value?" "In what ways am I needed every day, and by whom?" and "What in my life has the most meaning?" will help individuals to identify their life meaning.

Secondly, *perseverance* means the ability to continue with one's life goals irrespective of challenging situations. Setting realistic goals and attaining these goals are the strategy that can enhance an individual's perseverance, as resilient individuals complete the tasks they have started. Hence, resilient individuals can be relied upon. To identify the level of an individual's perseverance, the following questions can be asked: "Do I finish what I have started?"; "How often am I defeated before I even try?" and "Am I able to stay focused on my goals, or am I easily distracted?".

Equanimity, or the ability to realise that life is not "black and white" or "good and bad", but that there are several possibilities in any situation, is the third characteristic. According to Wagnild (2010, p. 3), equanimity means "balance and harmony". Resilient individuals use what they have learnt from their own life and others' life experiences and wisdom to guide their reactions to situational challenges.

The fourth characteristic, *self-reliance*, refers to believing in oneself, with a clear understanding of one's abilities and weaknesses. Delany et al. (2015) found that, by realising and making use of intrinsic skills and abilities, individuals demonstrate an improved resilience. To test and strengthen this characteristic, Wagnild (2010) suggested the following questions: "Am I aware of all the things I do well?", "Do others who know me well describe me as a capable person?" and "Can I do what needs to be done in an emergency and work out a good solution or will fall apart?"

Lastly, Wagnild (2010) mentioned that improving one's acceptance of self would reinforce one's resilience. Self-acceptance is a critical dimension of emotional

intelligence, because it directly affects self-perception, which is the cognitive interpretation of who an individual is. Delany et al. (2015) and Pearson and Hall (2007) also emphasised the importance of improving those resilience skills which are focused on enhancing the cognitive abilities that will allow a more accurate and flexible analysis of a stressful situation. Therefore, it is vital for individuals to cognitively understand their self-worth. In this regard, Wagnild (2010) suggested the following in order to strengthen self-acceptance, namely that individuals need to:

- Be willing to take their own course of action which they perceive to be right, without conforming to others
- Understand their weaknesses and learn from past mistakes, and
- Find their uniqueness (what sets them apart from others).

In the next section the focus will be on resilience and gender.

2.8. Resilience and gender

Previous researchers have found contradictory results with regard to resilience and gender differences (Lee Nam, Kim, Kim, Lee and Lee, 2013). Also, Losoi et al. (2013) indicated that there is limited research on the relations between resilience and gender. But, as Ravera, Iniesta-Arandia, Martin-Lopez, Pascual, and Bose (2016) clearly pointed out, understanding these differences is important, as gender affects the way individuals think, experience events and adapt. Therefore, the following discussion will focus on the differences or similarities, if any, between males and females with regard to resilience.

A number of studies (Losoi et al., 2013; Lundman et al., 2007; Wagnild & Young, 1993; Wells, 2010) into resilience and gender found no significant difference between males and females with regard to resilience. Although there are no specific reasons for the non-significant difference in resilience and gender reported by the researchers (Losoi et al., 2013; Wagnild & Young, 1993; Wells, 2010). Lundman et al. (2007) noted that the development of the Resilience Scale was based mainly on interviews with women. Ultimately, Wagnild and Young (1993) stated that both genders have an equal opportunity to develop resilience, as resilience skills increase with time and experience (i.e., older individuals will show more resilience).

As the study of Lundman et al. (2007) indicated, the mean difference between males and females within the age groups of 50-59 years, where females scored higher than males in the Resilience Scale. Females within that age group were found to have better social relationships with others (i.e., peers and family), problem-solving abilities and hardiness, which in turn enhanced their ability to adapt in different environments. Therefore, the resilience gender difference can be observed in individuals' coping styles. Females seem to be building resilience strategies from young age, where mothers would teach their daughters different techniques to adapt to the environment (Ravera et al., 2016).

Some studies have, however, found gender differences with regard to resilience, for example, Ma, Chang, Liu, Hsieh, Lin, Lo and Lu (2013). Also, Stratta, Capanna, Patriarca, de Cataldo, Bonanni, Riccardi and Rossi (2013) mentioned that males have higher resilience than females, similar to Nikolova, Small, and Mengo (2015). Within the educational environment, Abiola and Udofia (2011) found that male and female students experienced different resilience levels, where Wasonga, Christman, and Kilmer (2003) found that female participants had higher resilience than male participants.

In general, the difference between males and females with regard to resilience is mainly attributed to the availability of the protective factors (e.g., emotional intelligence and coping styles) of each gender orientation (Stratta et al., 2013). Specifically, Nikolova et al. (2015) attributed the difference to men having more access to protective factors (such as optimism, self-esteem and hardiness). Secondly, Wasonga et al. (2003) ascribed the observed differences in their study to female participants having more protective factors than male participants. In a similar vein, Ravera et al. (2016) argued that females are proactive, develop innovative strategies to adapt to environmental changes and that they are, in fact, equally resilient as males and use similar coping styles as men.

Stratta et al. (2013) established that the male participants in their study drew on problem-solving skills (i.e., problem-solving coping style) when dealing with adverse situations, while the females tended to focus on caring relationships for emotional support (i.e., seeking social support). These findings attest that resilience differences

in gender are due to the availability of protective factors in each individual. In addition, Lee et al. (2013) attributed these conflicting results to the small homogenous samples. Abiola and Udofia (2011), Lee et al. (2013) and Losoi et al. (2013) concur that resilience differences between males and females need to be explored further.

2.9. Summary

This chapter focused on the nature and definitions of resilience. The concept of “resilience” was outlined as an inner drive or characteristic that allows individuals to cope effectively while maintaining their emotional intelligence. Therefore, resilient individuals are able to use their inner strengths, draw on resources (internal and external) and follow through a process that will assist them in successfully dealing with adverse situations.

Based on the definition of resilience for this study, three models were discussed, namely the ecological perspective, transactional resilience and resilience developmental models. The ecological perspective views resilience as the system’s ability to adapt and change to maintain the normal state. In order for the system to remain normal during an experience of adversity, the contributions of the external or social contexts are important in providing the strength required to survive the adversity. The transactional resilience model emphasises social relationships in resilience, but adds the environmental factors and internal resilience factors (i.e., emotional intelligence and cognition) that can influence resilience in individuals.

The transactional resilience model indicates the importance of employing effective coping styles during an adverse experience, which can lead to normal or dysfunctional functioning. On the other hand, the resilience developmental model describes resilience as an ability which is inherent in all people. This model provides the intrinsic characteristics of individuals (i.e., coping styles, self-efficacy, self-esteem, emotional intelligence) that assist individuals in dealing with adverse situations successfully and coming out stronger and equipped to deal with future challenges. The transactional model of resilience and the resilience developmental model were adopted for this study, because each model supports a specific variable of the study.

Also in this chapter, individual resilience characteristics and protective factors were discussed, including different ways of developing resilience. Resilient individuals have multiple characteristics, which can be summarised into perseverance, equanimity, meaningfulness, self-reliance and existential aloneness. Over and above these characteristics, three protective factors that promote and maintain a resilient attitude were also discussed, namely social support, cognitive skills and psychological resources.

The chapter also focused on both personal and organisational benefits of resilient individuals, as well as on different strategies to improve resilience. Studies regarding gender differences in resilience were also discussed. Although findings are conflicting, they do confirm that the availability of protective factors is important in explaining resilience and gender differences.

The next chapter will be focusing on emotional intelligence.

CHAPTER 3

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

3.1. Introduction

The analysis of emotional information in an intelligent manner is considered critical for psychological well-being, and individuals possess different abilities to process emotional information. These abilities are known as emotional intelligence (Austin, 2005; Ruiz-Aranda, Extremera, & Pineda-Galan, 2014). Austin (2005) claimed that differences in emotional intelligence have real-life consequences, because emotional intelligence includes one's understanding of one's own emotions and those of others. For example, an employee who is not aware of her own and others' emotions will not be effective in interpersonal relationships with colleagues. As Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015) reiterated, organisations currently need employees who are high in emotional intelligence because work is organised and achieved through collaboration in teams.

Goleman's book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ* has created a great deal of interest in the topic of emotional intelligence (Mortiboys, 2012). The book established a growing interest in the corporate world, specifically as to how companies can develop and measure emotional intelligence in order to be more successful. On the other hand, little attention has been paid to how emotional intelligence can be incorporated into teaching and the teaching profession (McLafferty et al., 2012; Mortiboys, 2012; Perry & Ball, 2007). As Mortiboys (2012) suggested, emotional intelligence is an unrecognised competency that teachers should be able to offer students and to complete the subject expertise and pedagogical skills. Similarly, Perry and Ball (2007) indicated that teaching involves knowledge, emotion, cognition and motivation activities.

Verma and Deepti (2011) consider emotional intelligence to be an important intelligence because it enables success and achievement in life. Ybarra, Kross, and Sanchez-Burks (2014) indicated that success in life and work depends on more than just cognitive abilities (i.e., IQ) and includes the ability to perceive, understand and regulate emotions (i.e., emotional intelligence).

Goleman (in Rahim et al., 2002) argued that, in a work environment regardless of level/position, emotional intelligence is more important than technical skills and intelligence (IQ). In addition, Zeidner and Matthews (2016) stated that emotional intelligence consists of core competencies, such as the ability to identify, process and regulate emotions within the self and others. Emotionally intelligent individuals are able to use their capacity to control and manage their own and others' emotions and apply them productively in life (Verma & Deepti, 2011) and work (Ybarra et al., 2014).

The discussion in this chapter will focus first on the nature and definitions of emotional intelligence and then turn to the models of emotional intelligence and the characteristics of emotionally intelligent individuals. The focus will also be on the benefits of emotional intelligence for both the individual and organisation, as well as the strategies to development and strengthen emotional intelligence.

3.2. Nature and definition of emotional intelligence

According to Sternberg (2000), the term emotional intelligence has been used for several decades. However, since the 1990s emotional intelligence has gained prominence as an area of research specifically in organisations (Cox, 2011; Kotze & Venter, 2011; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Sternberg, 2000; Warwick & Nettelbeck, 2004). Rahim and Minors (2003) mentioned that "intelligence" has been understood as the use of adaptive cognitive processes and "emotional intelligence" as being aware of and an expression of emotions in an intelligent way, whether at work or home. The discussion to follow will focus on the definitions of "intelligence", "emotion" and "emotional intelligence".

Gardenswartz, Cherbosque, and Rowe (2010) explained that emotional intelligence is important in any environment that requires individuals to interact, because such an environment requires both emotional and intellectual responses. Mayer, Roberts, and Barsade (2007) add that emotional intelligence can improve understanding of both intelligence and emotions, seeing that emotional intelligence is related to both concepts. Therefore, Austin (2005) and Mayer et al. (2007) claimed that, to understand the concept of "emotional intelligence", it is critical to understand the two seemingly competing concepts of "emotion" and "intelligence" (Sternberg, 2000). As Rahim and

Malik (2010) stated, there is an interaction between emotions and intelligence that contributes to employees' performance in any organisation and position.

3.2.1. Emotions

The traditional view of emotional processes was that emotions are interruptions of rational mental activity (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), whereas contemporary psychologists have realised that emotions can be of great value in understanding adaptive social behaviour (Brink, 2009). Emotions are indeed a function of the social environment (Perry & Ball, 2007) and are, thus, recognised as one of the three fundamental classes of mental operations (i.e., motivation, cognitions and emotion) (Sternberg, 2000).

Mayer et al. (2000) viewed emotions as internal events that coordinate psychological subsystems, including physiological responses, cognitions and conscious awareness. These authors later (Mayer et al., 2007, p. 508) defined emotions as “an integrated feeling state involving physiological changes, motor-preparedness, cognitions about action, and inner experiences that emerges from an appraisal of self or situation”. For example, according to this definition, a happy facilitator will experience certain physiological changes (e.g., low-blood pressure) which will trigger the motor ability to interact with colleagues and students, and he will have positive thoughts, smile and feel good inside. Perry and Ball (2007) and Romero (2008) described emotions as important for motivation; therefore, being sensitive to emotions is an important task for individuals in leadership roles (which applies to facilitators who are also expected to take a role of leadership in the student–facilitator relationship) (Massyn, 2002; Richards, 2014).

Weiten (2013) supports the theory that emotions involve (1) subjective conscious experience (cognitive component) and (2) bodily arousal (physiological component) but adds (3) characteristics of overt expressions (behavioural component). Hence, emotions are viewed as organised responses crossing the boundaries of many psychological subsystems (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Salovey and Mayer (1990), as well as Mayer et al. (2000), further described emotions as a response (internal or external) to an event that has a positive or negative meaning for the individual.

The common positive emotions in the teaching profession include joy, satisfaction and pleasure associated with students' progress and support from colleagues. On the other hand, negative emotions are anger and frustration associated with goal conflict and misbehaving students. However, in the event of negative emotional experience, some teachers/facilitators are indeed able to bounce back from the experience, demonstrating resilient behaviour. Teachers who can distinguish between positive and negative emotions are said to be emotionally intelligent and possess a critical skill in the teaching and learning environment (Perry & Ball, 2007).

According to the above definitions, emotions can be viewed as adaptive processes or actions that can potentially result in the transformation of personal and social interactions into enriching experiences (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Similarly, Czabanowska, Malho, Schröder-Bäck, Popa, and Burazeri (2014) argued that emotional skills are vital for effective decision making and leadership. In addition, emotions determine whether an individual will accept, reject or avoid engaging in interpersonal relationships. The greater the understanding and management of the emotional response, the more individuals experience comfort in relationships and engage in effective interactions (Gardenswartz et al., 2010). "Intelligence", the second concept of emotional intelligence is defined differently in different theories (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and will be discussed below.

3.2.2. Intelligence

Intelligence is focused on the adaptive use of cognitions; however, theories such as those of Gardner (1999) and Sternberg (2000) have suggested more encompassing approaches to conceptualising intelligence. Sternberg (2000, p. 399) defined intelligence as the "global capacity to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment". Similarly, Mayer et al. (2007) described it as a mental ability that is useful for understanding and reasoning with specific and general information. Mayer et al. (2007) also provided a simplified working definition of intelligence as a mental ability that allows people to be aware of, learn, use memory and power to reason about specific or general information (which includes emotional information).

Sternberg (2000) suggested other dimensions of intelligence, such as social intelligence, verbal intelligence and practical intelligence. These dimensions, according to Mayer et al. (2007), involve learning and reasoning about a specific type of information. To improve these dimensions (including emotional intelligence), individuals need to be encouraged to learn and nurture the knowledge specific to each dimension.

Gardenswartz et al. (2010) argued that emotionally intelligent individuals have an ability to use and understand both rational (i.e., cognitive) and emotional reasoning; however, emotions are central to the energy, commitment and motivation of these individuals. For example, emotional intelligence is about reasoning with emotions and using emotions to strengthen cognition. The focus of this study will be on emotional intelligence. The definitions of emotional intelligence will be discussed next.

3.2.3. Emotional intelligence

Hayward (2005) cited that there are numerous definitions of emotional intelligence and what the concept actually encompasses. Mayer et al. (2007) also mentioned that different researchers have used the concept of emotional intelligence differently, that some defined emotional intelligence as an ability to reason with emotions, while others equated the concept to the list of traits. In the following sections, the different definitions and characteristics of emotional intelligence will be discussed.

3.2.3.1. Definitions of emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is conceptualised as using one's emotional capabilities to make sense of one's own and others' emotional experiences (Burns, 2011; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Thus, emotional intelligence is defined as the appraisal and expression of one's own and others' emotions, the regulation of one's own and others' emotions, and the implementation of emotions to guide decision making (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Another definition closely related to that of Salovey and Mayer (1990), is provided by Goleman (1998), namely that emotional intelligence is an individual's ability to organise and manage own (personal) and others' (social) feelings (emotions) within relationships with the aim to motivate oneself and maintain healthy relationships.

Rahim et al. (2002) identified and adopted this definition by Goleman. These authors, as well as Rahim and Minors (2003), pointed out that this definition of emotional intelligence consists of three important abilities: evaluation and expression of emotion, regulation and the use of emotions in motivation and decision making.

The term “emotional intelligence” is further explained by (Brackett & Salovey, 2006, p. 34) as “the mental process involved in the recognition, use, understanding and management of one’s own and others emotional states to solve problems and regulate behavior”, while Mayer et al. (2007, p. 511) defined the concept as “the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought”.

Cox (2011) goes further to state that emotional intelligence is an ability to recognise the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and to reason and solve problems based on them. Without this ability, an individual could lack the crucial quality of reading between the lines and hearing the unspoken. This skill facilitates problem solving, eases conflict resolution and brings collaborative teams to higher states of being.

Mohzan, Hassan, and Halil (2013, p. 305), Ruiz-Aranda et al. (2014, p. 107) and Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004, p. 1024) defined emotional intelligence in terms of four factors:

1. the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotions;
2. the ability to access and generate feelings when facilitating thought;
3. the ability to understand emotions and emotional knowledge; and
4. the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Bibi et al. (2015) concur by stating that the concept of “emotional intelligence” includes emotional expression, regulation, self-awareness and empathy. But emotional intelligence can also be viewed as a subset of social intelligence (Mohzan et al., 2013).

Czabanowska et al. (2014) defined emotional intelligence as the combination of both emotion and intelligence working cooperatively to influence an individual’s ability to cope successfully with stress. Zijlmans, Embregts, Gerits, Bosman, and Derksen

(2015) explained emotional intelligence as involving multiple abilities and skills (emotional, personal and social) that impact an individual's ability to apply effective coping styles when faced with adverse situation. The implication is that emotional intelligence affects the choice and use of coping styles in dealing with challenging situations.

Intrapersonal and interpersonal abilities are important for emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). These two concepts are the foundation in the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence (Rahim et al., 2002). "Intrapersonal" refers to one's ability to manage and understand one's emotions, while "interpersonal intelligence" refers to one's ability to manage and understand others' emotions (Rahim et al., 2002). The ability to reflect on emotions (whether within or outside the individual) is an important factor in the refinement of goals, beliefs, life choices and decisions, although there are differences among individuals in relation to their perception, understanding and use of emotional information (Erozkan, 2013). Hence, emotional intelligence is a matter of degree (high or low) that can differ amongst individuals.

Goleman's definition of emotional intelligence was used for the purpose of this study, as Goleman's dimensions of emotional intelligence are related to Rahim's Emotional Intelligence Index, the instrument administered in the study to measure facilitators' emotional intelligence.

The following discussion will focus on the characteristics of emotionally intelligent individuals.

3.2.3.2. Characteristics of emotionally intelligent individuals

Within any work environment, employees are expected to display certain emotions; therefore, individuals high in emotional intelligence will have the ability to manage emotions in the workplace, to show and experience situationally appropriate emotions (Austin, Dore, & O'Donovan, 2008). Furthermore, individuals high in emotional intelligence tend to be positive and focus their energy on positive perceptions of situations. According to Ruiz-Aranda et al. (2014), emotionally intelligent individuals are able to perceive stress-related emotions accurately and efficiently, then correctly identify the cognitive resources needed to cope effectively, and finally bounce back to

the normal state of functioning. Individuals high in emotional intelligence can deal effectively with challenging situations because emotional intelligence seems to include several non-cognitive skills, competencies and abilities (Rahim et al., 2002).

Emotionally intelligent individuals are positive, in control and future oriented, and experience less depression (Rahim & Minors, 2003). However, organisations have to be structured in such a manner that these individuals can thrive. Therefore, organisations need to have a culture of openness and transparency so that employees know the goals of the organisation. Organisations also need to tolerate diversity and constructive disagreement, and value flexibility (Stein, 2007).

According to Mayer et al. (2008), the ability to use, understand and manage emotions serve as adaptive functions that potentially benefit oneself and others. In a study by Perry and Ball (2007), teachers with high levels of emotional intelligence reported the ability to identify, use, understand and manage both positive and negative emotions. Similarly, individuals with a high degree of emotional intelligence know themselves well, as they can identify and regulate their emotions and sense those of others (Bibi et al., 2015; Fitzpatrick, 2016). According to Grant and Kinman (2014), emotionally intelligent individuals are flexible, positive, socially responsive and cooperative. Their skills include problem solving and making good decisions.

In their study, Verma and Deepti (2011) found that emotionally intelligent prospective college teachers have a better understanding of themselves (i.e. self-concept) and are emotionally stable. Teachers with emotional intelligence also seemed to engage in effective coping by using adaptive coping styles, while teachers with low emotional intelligence engaged in maladaptive coping styles. Warwick and Nettelbeck (2004) agree by stating that individual differences in the abilities to perceive, express, understand and manage emotion-related information cannot be ignored. Regardless of the differences, emotional intelligence has a great influence on one's psychological well-being, as it provides useful skills to make sense of emotions. Therefore, emotional intelligence can assist individuals in making a valid assessment of not only their own emotional state and that of others, but of the situation as well, and then choose appropriate coping styles (Erozkan, 2013).

According to Rahim and Minors (2003) and Rahim et al. (2002), emotional intelligence can be summarised as a multidimensional concept consisting of five competencies, which are self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Brink (2009) and Ruiz-Aranda et al. (2014) asserted that these competencies work together to help individuals adapt to life changes through the use of rational and effective coping styles in dealing with environmental demands. In this regard, Ruiz-Aranda et al. (2014) found that emotionally intelligent individuals experience lower levels of perceived stress and are able to discriminate among emotional information to cope effectively. These competencies will be discussed later in the chapter. The following section will focus on different models of emotional intelligence.

3.3. Models of emotional intelligence

Mayer et al. (2008) cited that some individuals have a better capacity than others to perform sophisticated information processing about emotions and emotion-related stimuli and to use the information as a guide to thinking and behaving. These sets of abilities are known as emotional intelligence. The notion of emotional intelligence began as a tentative proposal (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and has since grown into a small industry of publication, testing, education and consulting (Mayer et al., 2008).

Researchers studying emotional intelligence have conceptualised the construct differently, as some researchers focus on emotional intelligence as a separate group of mental abilities, while others study it as a mix of positive traits (Hayward, 2005; Mayer et al., 2008; Nel, du Plessis, & Bosman, 2015). The researchers thinking are believed to be different, but somehow related (Mayer et al., 2007; Nel et al., 2015).

Mayer et al. (2007) outlined that the specific-ability models of emotional intelligence are focused on core principles of emotional intelligence abilities such as accuracy in emotional perception, how emotions facilitate thinking, reasoning and understanding of emotions, and emotion management. The models focus on a number of specific abilities to understand emotional intelligence, for example, the four-branch model which combines the following abilities: a) accurately perceiving emotions, b) using emotions to facilitate thinking, c) understanding emotions, and d) managing emotions.

The mixed model is said to use broad definitions of emotional intelligence that incorporate non-cognitive abilities, social intelligence and personality dispositions. The Bar-On and Goleman's competency models will be discussed as mixed models of emotional intelligence in this study. Ruiz-Aranda et al. (2014) explained that other models describe emotional intelligence as a trait, meaning an emotional personal characteristic within an individual and that it can be measured by self-reported questionnaires. On the other hand, there are models that view emotional intelligence as an ability, meaning how people perform tasks and solve problems which has to be assessed by performance scales. The advantage of seeing emotional intelligence as an ability is that an individual's performance can be known and not their beliefs regarding emotional intelligence.

The next section provides a discussion of the ability-based model of emotional intelligence and mixed models of emotional intelligence ability (including the Bar-On emotional-social intelligence model and Goleman's model of emotional intelligence).

3.3.1. Ability-based model of emotional intelligence

As mentioned above, the ability-based model focuses on an individual's mental abilities that are important to emotional intelligence. In this model emotional intelligence is conceptualised as an ability to recognise emotional meanings or patterns and to reason and solve problems based on emotional information (Dong, Seo, & Bartol, 2014; Sternberg, 2000). Emotional intelligence, according to Mayer and Salovey's ability model, is considered to be a genuine intelligence, based on the adaptive use of emotional information in thinking processes that guide problem solving and effective adaptation to the environment (Romero, 2008).

Emotional intelligence describes several discrete emotional attributes, which can be categorised into four branches or classes, namely accurate emotional perception; how emotions facilitate thinking; understanding emotions and reasoning; and emotion management (Mayer et al., 2007; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). According to Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006), these four branches are organised in a hierarchy where emotional perception is considered to be at the most basic level, and emotion management at the highest level, of the hierarchy. Therefore, the ability to regulate

emotions in oneself and others is dependent on the other three branches. The discussion below focuses on these specific abilities.

- **Accurate emotional perception**

The first and most basic skill is perception and appraisal of emotion, which is the ability to identify emotions in oneself and in others, as well as emotional stimuli (Brackett & Salovey, 2006; Mayer et al., 2008; Sternberg, 2000).

- **How emotions facilitate thinking**

According to Mayer et al. (2007), emotional facilitation is the ability to know when and how to involve, or not involve, emotions in the thinking process. Emotions can lead to different ways of thinking and decision making. For example, positive emotions can lead to creativity and a positive outcome, while negative emotions can lead to a lack of novel ideas and a negative outcome. Thus, emotionally intelligent individuals experience less interference from their emotions because they are aware of how their emotions affect their thought process.

The skill of emotional facilitation also involves an integration of emotional experience into mental life, by using emotions to focus attention and to think more rationally, logically and creatively (Brackett & Salovey, 2006; Mayer et al., 2008; Sternberg, 2000). Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006) add that this skill is important for communicating feelings.

- **Understanding emotions and reasoning**

Emotionally intelligent individuals can appraise situations accurately, and will react effectively and appropriately to the given situation. On the other hand the inaccurate interpretation of emotional information can lead to the misinterpretation of an event and, in turn, to inappropriate reactions. Emotional understanding includes the ability to describe both one's own and others' emotions (Brackett & Salovey, 2006; Mayer et al., 2007; 2008; Sternberg, 2000).

According to Brackett and Salovey (2006), this ability requires a fair amount of language and cognition to reflect and analyse emotion, as emotional intelligence

involves the ability to recognise emotions, to know why emotions unfold and to reason about them accordingly (Dong et al., 2014; Sternberg, 2000).

- **Emotion management**

The ability to manage emotions is regarded as important, especially in the work environment where individuals often have to apply a great deal of emotional self-control. Individuals can manage emotions by reframing their perceptions in different situations (Mayer et al., 2007). For example, a facilitator may observe that a specific student never participates voluntarily in discussion unless asked to. Instead of getting frustrated because she thinks the student is unprepared or disrespectful, the facilitator can reframe her thinking, for example, the student might be shy or does not understand the work, and will therefore be more open to positively assist the student. Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Sternberg (2000) regard this last ability as the highest level of emotional intelligence, because it involves management and regulation of emotion in oneself and others.

Ability-based models focus on the interplay of emotion and intelligence (Sternberg, 2000), which implies the ability to cognitively process emotional information. According to Plauze and Rascevska (2011), ability-based models refer to the abilities that provide adequate experience, perception, understanding, expression and control of emotions. These abilities serve as benefits for both the individual and others (Racolta-Paina & Plesca, 2015). Hence, the ability-based models is much like other types of mental performance measures, such as the intelligence quotient (Kotze & Venter, 2011).

The ability-based models makes assumptions about the internal structure of emotional intelligence and implications to a person's life. This model predicts that emotional intelligence is, in fact, an intelligence like other intelligences (Sternberg, 2000). In the next section, mixed models of emotional intelligence will be discussed.

3.3.2. Mixed models of emotional intelligence

Mixed models of emotional intelligence are substantially different from the ability-based models. The notable mixed models are the Bar-On model of emotional intelligence and Goleman's model of emotional intelligence (Cherniss & Goleman,

2001; Hayward, 2005; Kotze & Venter, 2011; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Sternberg, 2000). According to Dong et al. (2014) and Mayer et al. (2007), the mixed models of emotional intelligence describe the concept of emotional intelligence as a combination of individual affective traits and abilities.

Following the work of Salovey and Mayer on emotional intelligence, Daniel Goleman developed the competency-based model of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006; Sternberg, 2000). Goleman's model views emotional intelligence as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive performance (Bar-On, 2006). These competencies and skills include personal, social and emotional abilities that influence an individual's overall ability to cope actively and effectively with daily demands and pressures (Kotze & Venter, 2011). The model also emphasises non-cognitive factors such as motivation and personality traits (Kotze & Venter, 2011). According to Plaude and Rascevska (2011), the Bar-On model shows that emotional intelligence has a significant impact on successful performance, happiness, well-being and search for a more meaningful life.

The two mixed models, the Bar-On and Goleman's emotional intelligence, will be discussed separately in the next section.

3.3.2.1. The Bar-On emotional-social intelligence model

The Bar-On model views emotional and social intelligence as having interrelated competencies, skills and assistance that determine how effectively individuals understand and express themselves, understand others and relate with others, and cope with daily demands (Bar-On, 2006; Stein, 2007). According to Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015), this means that emotionally intelligent individuals have the awareness of their own and other's feelings, emotions and needs, and use this information to develop and maintain cooperative relationships. These individuals are flexible and manage change effectively within themselves, others and the environment.

Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006) claimed that the Bar-On model of emotional intelligence is more comprehensive than the ability-based models. The Bar-On model describes emotional-social intelligence as including the following key components:

a) *Intrapersonal emotional intelligence*, which is the ability to recognise, understand and express emotions and feelings within oneself. This skill involves self-regard, emotional self-awareness, independence, assertiveness and self-actualisation.

b) *Interpersonal emotional intelligence*, meaning the ability to understand how others feel and how to relate to them, including empathy, interpersonal relationships and social responsibility.

c) *Adaptability*, which implies the ability to manage and control emotions, including being flexible and engaging in effective problem solving (e.g., resilience and coping styles). Adaptability also relates to being open to changing feelings in a given situation and includes abilities such as reality testing, flexibility and problem solving.

d) *Stress management*, referring to the ability to tolerate stress and control impulses, as well as manage problems of a personal and interpersonal nature. These skills include stress tolerance and impulse control.

e) *General mood emotional intelligence*, which is defined as the ability to generate positive emotions and be self-motivated (e.g., happiness and optimism) (Bar-On, 2006; Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006; Hayward, 2005; Racolta-Paina & Plesca, 2015; Salovey & Mayer 1990; Stein, 2007; Sternberg, 2000; Zijlmans et al., 2015).

In summary, emotional-social intelligence means to be able to effectively manage personal, social and environmental challenges by being realistic and coping flexibly with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions. Therefore, individuals need to ensure that emotions work for them and that they stay optimistic, realistic and self-motivated (Bar-On, 2006). These competencies, according to Bar-On (2006), develop over time and can, thus, be improved through training.

3.3.2.2. Goleman's model of emotional intelligence

According to Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015), Goleman's model adds two social skills (personality traits and behaviour) to the ability-based models and Bar-On Model.

These skills are related to individuals' personality, such as optimism, ability to delay gratification and conscientiousness. The model outlines five components identified by Goleman, associated with emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006; Hayward, 2005; Mayer et al., 2008; Rahim & Minors, 2003; Rahim et al., 2002; Sternberg, 2000). These competencies are further broken down into a set of skills which, together, forms an individual's emotional intelligence level (MTD Training, 2010). The five competencies are discussed next.

- **Self-awareness**

Rahim et al. (2002) outlined this first competency as the awareness of emotions, moods and impulses that an individual is experiencing and why the individual is experiencing such emotions, moods and impulses. Furthermore, according to Bibi et al. (2015), Rahim and Minor (2003) and Rahim et al. (2002), self-awareness consists of emotional self-awareness and accurate self-assessment that affect an individual's feelings on others. Fitzpatrick (2016) claimed that self-awareness also includes self-confidence, whereas Hayward (2005) defined this competency as knowing one's internal state, preferences, resources and institutions. Self-awareness, however, also involves the ability to recognise others' emotions (Czabanowska et al., 2014) and monitoring one's own feelings as they occur from time to time (Racolta-Paina & Plesca, 2015).

- **Self-regulation**

Self-regulation, also known as emotional management, refers to the ability to monitor intrapersonal emotions and impulses, as well as the ability to stay calm in challenging situations regardless of the emotions that the individual is experiencing (Rahim & Minors, 2003; Rahim et al., 2002). Similarly, Hayward (2005) mentioned that this competency refers to the ability to deal with one's own internal states, impulses and controls.

Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015) viewed this competency as the ability to manage feelings appropriately in order to deal with anxiety and irritability. This competency allows individuals to adjust their behaviour according to external situational factors. As

Czabanowska et al. (2014) outlined, this competency affects the cognitive processes leading to openness, and personal and intellectual growth.

- **Motivation**

The third competency according to Rahim et al. (2002) denotes the ability to stay focused on goals and success despite challenges. This ability helps individuals to accept changes, without fear of failure in the process of goal achievement. Fitzpatrick (2016) mentioned that an emotionally intelligent person with this competency will focus on the positive while striving to meet the standard of excellence of their goals. In addition, the competency involves control of emotional tendencies, which facilitates achieving one's goals, as well as emotional and intellectual growth using emotional information to assist thinking (Czabanowska et al., 2014). According to Bibi et al. (2015), Fitzpatrick (2016) and Kotze and Venter (2011), the second (self-regulation) and third (motivation) competencies are referred to as self-management, which include abilities such as self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement drive and initiative.

Rahim et al. (2002) established that this competency is associated with using the problem-solving coping style when individuals are faced with challenging situations. According to Amirkhan (1990), this coping style involves manipulation of the stressor by actively devising plans to deal with the challenging situation, instead of simply being aware of the stressor. As Plaude and Rascevskaja (2011) found, people high in emotional intelligence make use of effective coping styles.

- **Empathy**

According to Bibi et al. (2015), this competency refers to understanding others, developing others, being service oriented and leveraging diversity. Rahim et al. (2002) argued that empathic individuals are able to understand others' feelings and behaviour, whether verbally and/or nonverbally communicated, and this understanding in turn assists in providing support to others when needed. Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015) also found that, in the work environment, this competency assists in creating a caring and friendly working environment, which again leads to the achievement of individual and organisational goals. For example, an empathic

facilitator will create a classroom atmosphere where students can learn freely without fear of being judged, because the facilitator is compassionate and person centred.

- **Social skills**

Social skills, or managing relationships, involve dealing with relationships effectively through effective communication, conflict management skills, leadership skills, collaboration and cooperation abilities, and effective team membership capabilities (Bar-On, 2006; Bibi et al., 2015; Hayward, 2005; Mayer et al., 2008; Rahim & Minors, 2003; Sternberg, 2000). According to Rahim et al. (2002), social skills refer to an individual’s ability to deal with problems and challenges at work without undermining colleagues and allowing negative feelings to negatively influence collaboration. These individuals are able to deal with emotional conflict with tact and diplomacy.

According to Cherniss and Goleman (2001), the five-competency model was later adapted. Bibi et al. (2015) and Kotze and Venter (2011) stated that the five competencies were reduced to four which are necessary for proper functioning. Bibi et al. (2015) and Cherniss and Goleman (2001) further explained that the four competencies include 20 sub-competencies (presented in figure 3).

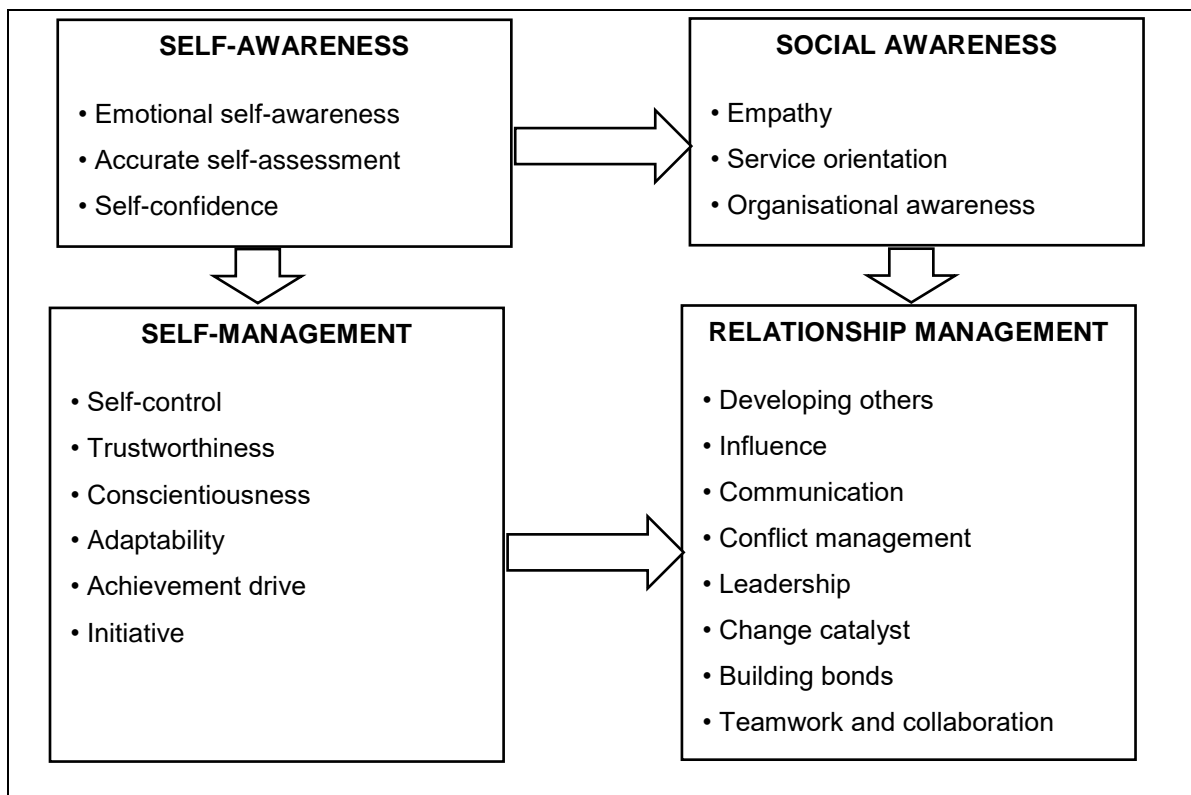


Figure 3. Emotional competencies model (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001, p. 28)

These competencies are not inherent to people, but they can be learned (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Grant & Kinman, 2014; MTD Training, 2010). These competencies develop over time, and as they develop, individuals' performance increase (MTD Training, 2010). Individuals who have not developed emotional intelligence competencies will not complete planned activities or will leave their jobs as a result of challenging situations. These individuals lack resilient abilities, while emotionally intelligent individuals see challenges as learning opportunities. For example, an emotionally intelligent facilitator during a challenging period (e.g., #FeesMustFall) will see an opportunity to learn new ways of teaching and learning as prescribed by the UFS, and a less emotionally intelligent facilitator will start looking for employment elsewhere.

Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006) claimed that these competencies represent individuals' level of skills or abilities based on their emotional intelligence level and make them more or less effective in their work. Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015) and Rahim et al. (2002) argued that these competencies (whether four or five) are interrelated, as a change in one competency could lead to a change in other competencies. For example, self-regulation, empathy and social skills are linked to self-awareness, as individuals will have to understand themselves first before they can understand and work collaboratively with others. For the purpose of the present study, Goleman's model of emotional intelligence was adopted, and the competencies were measured using Rahim's Emotional Intelligence Index.

Goleman reiterated that emotional intelligence at work will assist employees in teamwork and cooperation in collaborative learning to work more effectively – overall, emotional intelligence can predict success at home, school and work (Romero, 2008; Sternberg, 2000). In other words, emotional intelligence offers an advantage in any domain of life. As Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015) and Rahim and Minors (2003) found, high performers in different organisations and leadership positions have high emotional intelligence. Importantly, Romero (2008) pointed out that the development of emotional intelligence is possible from childhood to retirement age.

Grant and Kinman (2014) and Petrides, Pérez-González, and Furnham (2007) confirmed that emotional intelligence is related to development and implementation of

effective coping mechanisms (such as the problem-solving coping style); therefore, individuals who score high on emotional intelligence use effective and adaptive coping styles (e.g. problem-solving coping styles). On the other hand, individuals who score low on emotional intelligence engage in ineffective and maladaptive coping styles (e.g., avoidance coping). The different coping styles are discussed in detail in chapter 4.

According to Stein (2007), there are still disagreements on the precise meaning of emotional intelligence, because the ability-based model focuses on emotions specifically and emotional interactions with thought, whereas the mixed models focus on mental abilities and a variety of other characteristics that are important for effective functioning (Sternberg, 2000). However, there are a number of similarities between these models. Kotze and Venter (2011) pointed out that they all a) have an interpersonal and intrapersonal component; b) address the ability to perceive and understand one's own emotion and that of others; c) emphasise self-management; and d) focus on the ability to deal with problems (personal or interpersonal). Stein (2007) highlighted that emotional intelligence assists in daily functioning, through understanding oneself and others, relating to others and adapting to and coping with daily challenges.

The benefits of emotional intelligence will be discussed next.

3.4. Benefits of emotional intelligence

According to Gardenswartz et al. (2010) and Mayer et al. (2008), emotional intelligence is both beneficial to the individual employee and the organisation. As Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015) stated, employees who understand their emotions and know how to control their emotions will successfully achieve both personal and organisational goals. In this section, benefits to both individuals and the organisation will be set out.

3.4.1. Benefits of emotional intelligence for the individual

Mayer et al. (2008) cited that emotional intelligence increases individuals' attention and accuracy about their feelings under different conditions. Therefore, in social settings, people with high emotional intelligence achieve better social outcomes

through quality relationships. These individuals are viewed as interpersonally sensitive. According to Bibi et al. (2015) and Rahim and Minors (2003), high levels of emotional intelligence are positively associated with better life satisfaction and perceived problem-solving ability. Emotional intelligence allows individuals to better understand their emotional experience and reactions to various sources of stress which, in turn, assist and guide them through the coping process (hence, the use of effective coping styles).

Zeidner and Matthews (2016) found that high emotional intelligence leads to low stress levels and high well-being, because emotionally intelligent individuals are able to appraise situations accurately and, consequently, implement appropriate coping styles. Dong et al. (2014) concur by stating that emotionally intelligent individuals can recognise negative outcomes associated with the use of maladaptive coping styles (such as avoidance) and discontinue using them.

Research has indicated a correlation between emotional intelligence and resilience, as individuals with high inter- and intrapersonal emotional competencies seem better able to manage emotional situations and thrive in their careers (Grant & Kinman, 2011). It thus appears that emotional intelligence increases resilience in individuals (Grant & Kinman, 2014; Kinman & Grant, 2010). Findings from a study by Kinman and Grant (2010) showed that social workers with high emotional intelligence also had high resilience, which increased their psychological well-being. Such individuals seem able to develop effective interpersonal relationships with co-workers and to manage stress better (Petrides et al., 2007; Stein, 2007). Verma and Deepti (2011) confirmed that emotional intelligence can help individuals make sense of life situations and deal with each effectively.

Individuals with high emotional intelligence were also found to view themselves positively (i.e., have high self-esteem) (Mayer et al., 2007). This finding agrees with claims by Lundman et al. (2007) and Vossler (2012), namely that people with more personal resources (e.g., emotional intelligence and coping styles) exhibit high levels of self-esteem, self-confidence and self-discipline, and are therefore considered to be resilient. In a similar vein, Gohm, Corser, and Dalsky (2005) mentioned that a high

level of emotional intelligence leads to increased self-control which, in turn, leads to the active use of effective coping styles and better general health.

According to Perry and Ball (2007), teachers with high emotional intelligence deal with situations better than those with low emotional intelligence. Teachers with high emotional intelligence are able to deal with negative situations constructively and turn their response into a positive one. Besides having the ability to bounce back from challenging situations, these individuals use their emotions to gain professional pleasure and develop their self-concept while, at the same time, improve their teaching skills. Their ability to improve themselves leads to these teachers' becoming effective and resilient professionals.

In contrast, Perry and Ball (2007) indicated that those with low levels of emotional intelligence remain trapped in a negative emotional state. For this reason, assisting facilitators to manage their emotions by creating a positive teaching and learning environment, will increase both facilitators' and students' positive experiences.

3.4.2. Benefits of emotional intelligence for the organisation

According to Rahim and Minors (2003), emotional intelligence assists individuals in being successful at work, and in return, organisations benefit through increased productivity, because emotionally intelligent individuals are focused on task mastery. Furthermore, emotional intelligence in the workplace helps individuals to be resilient and flexible in dealing with challenges and uncertainties. Although on its own emotional intelligence cannot guarantee increased profits, it can assist employees in finding and using the intellectual capital needed to build strong networks and teams to be able to deal with challenging situations (Rahim & Malik, 2010).

Mayer et al. (2007) and Rahim et al. (2002) found that emotionally intelligent employees are able to negotiate and effectively deal with intra- and interpersonal conflict together with other organisational members. In this regard Mayer et al. (2008) contended that emotional intelligence abilities correlate better with organisational settings, as managers with high emotional intelligence are better at establishing productive relationships with others and creating an effective working environment. These managers demonstrate behaviour that is supportive of organisational goals. For

the purpose of this study, facilitators can be viewed as managers, because they take on a leadership role in their classrooms.

Perry and Ball (2007) further established that teachers high in emotional intelligence are good team players and assume leadership roles with confidence. A study of Ignat and Clipa (2012) also attested that teachers with above average emotional intelligence are satisfied both with their work and with general life, are positive towards work, and are engaged, committed and motivated in their work activities. This concurs with the fact that professionals (e.g., teachers, business managers, etc.) with high emotional intelligence can create effective and positive working environments, work themselves through the hierarchy of the organisation, and are perceived as positive by others (Mayer et al., 2007).

Austin et al. (2008) indicated that emotionally intelligent individuals express genuine emotions that are naturally felt by others, and these individuals avoid using superficial emotional acting. This ability and type of behaviour are important in the workplace (the educational environment in the case of this study), as they can assist facilitators in building trusting relationships with students and colleagues, which are vital for successful student engagement and collaboration with colleagues.

Petrides et al. (2007) showed a statistically significant positive association between emotional intelligence and self-monitoring. Emotionally intelligent individuals are aware of their environment, which helps them to modify their self-presentation and become sensitive to emotional expressions, which will, ultimately, improve team and organisational efficiency. In a study, Verma and Deepti (2011) found that emotionally intelligent prospective college teachers are likely to mentor and become role models for their students by guiding them to develop their self-concept and emotional abilities.

Apart from academic success, emotional intelligence seems to contribute to employees' becoming effective team players, being able to work under pressure and contributing to organisational productivity (Mohzan et al., 2013). Emotionally intelligent individuals are found to communicate better, collaborate effectively, be goal oriented and effective, and create a comfortable working environment, in other words, are considered good team players (Racolta-Paina & Plesca, 2015). Fitzpatrick (2016)

agreed that emotional intelligence facilitates effective interactions and increases one's interest in engaging in such interactions.

Emotional intelligence skills can assist teachers in recognising, perceiving, understanding, expressing and managing their own emotions and those of students and colleagues as they deal with the daily pressures and demands of their work (Cox, 2011; Mohzan et al., 2013). Thus, people with high emotional intelligence are expected to utilise effective coping styles.

Dong et al. (2014) argued that emotionally intelligent individuals are eager to learn new skills and develop themselves into higher positions, consequently, decreasing labour turnover and increasing productivity. Thus, recruiting and selecting emotionally competent people and/or training and developing those who lack emotional intelligence can assist an organisation, in this case the UFS, in retaining competent facilitators who will develop into senior academic positions.

Fitzpatrick (2016) established that emotionally intelligent employees interact with clients, family members and all other stakeholders (e.g. supervisors, co-workers, etc.) within the organisation. These employees make decisions that are based on self-management and interpersonal skills, and they are aware of how their emotions could affect others and the organisation. Hence, these employees provide quality service to customers, which then lead to customer satisfaction (Rahim & Malik, 2010). In addition, Dong et al. (2014) mentioned that emotionally intelligent individuals display leadership characteristics such as reliability and adaptability. Individuals who score high on emotional intelligence seem also able to control and avoid the use of emotionally driven judgement and disengage from the use of behaviours that could hinder successful task performance.

The development of emotional intelligence is critical in professions that expect employees to possess high emotional intelligence, such as education (Mohzan et al., 2013). The teaching profession is considered to be one of the most stressful professions; therefore, teachers need to realise that they themselves hold the key in managing their emotions and, consequently, preventing themselves from being affected by stress, which would ultimately affect their institutions' success rate

(Mohzan et al., 2013). As Cox (2011) indicated, when emotional intelligence is low, employee performance also decreases, creating dissonance in the organisation.

The strategies to develop and strengthen emotional intelligence follow next.

3.5. Strategies to develop and strengthen emotional intelligence

According to Czabanowska et al. (2014), when individuals do not possess emotional intelligence competencies, management need to develop personnel with potential and apply effective recruitment and selection processes of acquiring and retaining individuals with emotional intelligence. However, Gardenswartz et al. (2010) claimed that the responsibility to build and maintain emotional intelligence rests with both the individual employee and the organisation. Individuals can develop emotional intelligence competencies and skills needed to function effectively, and organisations can create an emotionally intelligent work environment where there is shared organisational values and recognition of individual uniqueness.

Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015) advised that organisations recruit and select individuals who have already developed social and emotional intelligence skills, such as the ability to work in teams, approach their work ethically and professionally, and work under pressure. However, as facilitation positions are at the entry level of the academic profession at the UFS, achieving the above (recruiting well-developed emotional intelligence facilitator) might be challenging. In this regard, Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015) suggested that organisations consider developing these skills by focusing on the technical skills (e.g., procedures and process) and interpersonal skills (e.g., communication, leadership, time and stress management) needed to be a successful facilitator.

Rahim and Malik (2010) found education to be an important variable in developing emotional intelligence, as the more educated people are, the higher their level of emotional intelligence. Verma and Deepti (2011) even suggested that emotional intelligence competencies (self, awareness, empathy and self-management) be included in teachers' education as to assist them in dealing with professional and personal challenges effectively. These competencies can be included in peer mentoring and coaching, and will enhance personal development through

collaborative relationships with peers where personal strengths can be identified, self-awareness promoted and reflective techniques developed (Grant & Kinman, 2011). Therefore, the UFS should encourage and motivate facilitators to continue their studies, seeing that education helps individuals understand situations and their emotions better, enabling them to cope more effectively (Rahim & Malik, 2010).

Rahim et al. (2002) and Ruiz-Aranda et al. (2014) recommended the establishment of training programmes with a focus on the ability-based models of emotional intelligence to assist individuals in dealing with situational challenges. These programmes should endeavour to enhance individuals' ability to perceive, use, understand and regulate emotions. In fact, this training can be incorporated into the curriculum of all professionals and/or form part of mentorship programmes. An experienced member of staff (e.g., senior lecturer or professor) can lead, guide and support the decisions of a junior employee (e.g., facilitator).

Fitzpatrick (2016) and Rahim and Minors (2003) are convinced that an early introduction to leadership training and early self-discovery will help young professionals to improve their emotional intelligence skills. These young professionals can be trained by using case studies that allow them to consider their own and others' experiences as a way of learning to appreciate diversity, especially in the South African multicultural society. Grant and Kinman (2014) specified that experiential learning is a good way to increase emotional intelligence. Specific examples include role plays, simulated practices and work-based learning opportunities. In this case, professionals (e.g., facilitators) become aware of how emotion can affect them and how they can manage their emotions to facilitate effective problem solving and remain resilient.

Zijlmans et al. (2015) determined that individuals who are aware of how their emotions affect themselves and others and who can self-reflect have the ability to use such information to guide their choice of effective coping styles and remain resilient in difficult situations. Fitzpatrick (2016) added that social competency skills should also be included in the curriculum of the caring professions.

According to Rahim and Minors (2003), the competencies of emotional intelligence are associated with positive outcomes for the organisation and psychological well-being for individuals. These competencies will, then, affect attitudes and behaviours of employees, meaning that, as emotional intelligence competencies develop and interact, they will influence coping styles and the resilience of facilitators at the UFS. For example, in a study by Rahim and Minors (2003) self-awareness and self-regulation were found to have a significant positive effect on the problem-solving coping style. However, Rahim and Malik (2010) found many other variables that can affect employees' emotional intelligence and, ultimately, their performance. These variables include age, level of education, perception about emotional intelligence, and gender.

3.6. Summary

The discussion of this chapter focused on understanding emotional intelligence and how it affects the effectiveness of employees, which include facilitators in this particular study. First, the two concepts of "emotion" and "intelligence", which comprise "emotional intelligence", were defined. According to the literature review, in order to understand emotional intelligence, one needs to understand these two concepts first. The discussion then shifted to definitions of "emotional intelligence", and it was indicated that there are differences and similarities in defining emotional intelligence. The definitions share competencies of emotional intelligence, such as intra- and interpersonal abilities. The definition adopted for this study refers to self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy and social skills as the important competencies for emotional intelligence. Amongst other things, these competencies were also discussed as important characteristics of emotionally intelligent individuals. The competencies were further outlined by Goleman's competency model.

The different models of emotional intelligence were also discussed. Specifically, the ability-based model and the mixed models. The notable mixed models are Goleman's competence model and the Bar-On model of emotional intelligence. The ability model describes emotional intelligence as the skill used to cognitively process and understand emotional information. The specific mixed models added other factors (such as social skills) to their conceptualisation. Goleman's competency model was adopted in this study, as the model outlines five competencies that are important for

emotional intelligence. These competencies were measured by Rahim's Emotional Intelligence Index in this study.

The discussion then shifted to the benefits of emotional intelligence for individuals and organisations. It was emphasised that both individual employees and the organisation are responsible for the development of emotional intelligence, as both parties benefit. Organisations need to create an environment that will enable individual employees to develop and strengthen their emotional intelligence, either through formal programmes or informal mentoring.

The discussion of coping styles follows in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4

COPING STYLES

4.1. Introduction

Coping research has evolved from stress research and partly from the model of adaptation, to exploring people's capacity to deal with life challenges and achieve their goals (Frydenberg, 2008). Lazarus (1993) indicated that, in the late 1970s, there was a major development in coping theory and research which led to coping being viewed as a process rather than a trait. Ben-Zur (2009) differentiated between coping as a process and a trait by highlighting that coping as a process involves appraisal and reappraisal of the adverse situation while interacting with the environment. On the other hand, coping as a trait is an intrapersonal characteristic that is stable while dealing with adverse situations. In other words, coping as a trait is an individual's personality characteristic(s) that determines coping preferences and resources (Krohne, 2002).

Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) see coping as a complex and multidimensional process that is sensitive towards environmental demands and resources, as well as personality dispositions (such as emotional intelligence) that influence the evaluation of stress and resources for coping. According to Mauno and Rantanen (2013), the demands can include workload, working hours, family/work responsibilities, and job insecurity. Coping changes over time and according to the situational contexts in which it occurs.

In light of the above, the following sections will focus on the definitions of coping, models of coping and different coping styles. The discussion will also include the coping resources, factors influencing the choice of coping styles, benefits of effective coping styles and how individuals and organisations can develop effective coping styles.

4.2. Definitions of coping and coping styles

The following section will provide the definitions of "coping" and "coping styles".

4.2.1. Definitions of coping

According to Skinner and Zimmer-Gembeck (2009), conceptualising coping presents many challenges, as theorists (Beutler et al., 2003; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004) use the concept differently, while applying different terms to the description of behaviour (Beutler et al., 2003). The most commonly used definition of coping is cited by Lazarus (1993, p. 237), namely that “coping refers to ongoing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person”. In general, coping can be interpreted as a multidimensional process of events that progress throughout the lifespan and which are in interplay with many determinants. Therefore, coping is essentially a dynamic interaction between individuals and their environment (Brink, 2009; Frydenberg, 2008; Lazarus, 1993).

Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, and Wadsworth (2001) viewed coping as an aspect of a broader set of processes that are enacted in response to stress. In this view, coping is described as “conscious volitional efforts to regulate emotion, cognition, behavior, physiology, and the environment in response to stressful events or circumstances” (Compas et al., 2001, p. 89). These regulatory processes are within the biological, cognitive, social and emotional development of the individual and assist in maintaining resilience in challenging situations as depicted in the transactional resilience model (chapter 2). Edwards and Warelow (2005, p. 101) add that “coping is a fundamental psychological process”. Coping, therefore, affects psychological, physiological and behavioural outcomes either short or long term (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004).

Skinner and Zimmer-Gembeck’s (2007, p. 122) definition further outlines coping as “action regulation under stress”. This pertains to how individuals prepare, plan, manage, direct and coordinate behaviour, emotion (i.e., by applying their emotional intelligence) and attention, or fail to do so, in a stressful situation (Skinner & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007; 2009). Eisenberg, Valiente, and Sulik (2009) viewed coping as emotion-related self-regulation under stress, as individuals strive to deal with emotional experience, expression and physiological reactions. Therefore, individuals who are emotionally intelligent will cope better under stress.

Kim and Agrusa (2010) agree with Frydenberg (2008) and Lazarus (1993) that coping simply refers to cognitive and behavioural responses while trying to manage psychological stress. Thus, coping is described as thoughts, behaviours, styles or strategies that are used to deal with a negative or stressful situation, for instance dealing with under-performing students in class (Bibi et al., 2015). Facilitators who use effective coping styles will manage classroom challenges better. Coping can, therefore, be perceived as a style and a process (Thomas et al., 2016). The definitions of “coping styles” will be discussed next.

4.2.2. Definitions of coping styles

Amirkhan (1994) defined coping styles as behavioural characteristics that are consistent (but not fixed) in response to a variety of stressful situations. In general, coping styles are considered to be relatively habitual and lasting patterns of behaviour (Amirkhan, 1994) that characterise the individual’s response when faced with adverse situations requiring some form of response (Beutler et al., 2003). According to Anshel (1996), coping styles provide useful information, as they are an individual’s tendency to react in a predictable way in specific situations.

These coping styles are methods of coping in different stressful situations and over time that characterise individuals’ reactions to stress in a given situation (Anshel, 1996; Frydenberg, 2008). Beasley et al. (2003) found that coping styles mitigate the relationship between life stress and physical, cognitive and psychological functioning. Therefore, coping styles can affect how individuals perceive an event, in other words, how they will select, analyse and interpret a situation, and how they manage the situation (Beasley et al., 2003; Lazarus, 1993). As pointed out by Amirkhan and Auyeung (2007), coping styles are not fixed or trait-like; thus, styles could take different forms in different situations. In an organisational context, coping styles refer to how employees manage stressful events or demands (Montes-Berges & Augusto, 2007).

Lewis et al. (2011) cited that individuals generally use certain coping styles when faced with demanding situations. However, the situational context can influence their choices. According to Kim and Han (2015, p. 276), coping styles refer to “specific efforts, both behavioral and psychological, that people employ to master, tolerate, reduce or minimize stressful events”. Thomas et al. (2016) add that coping styles

include emotional characteristics of coping (e.g., defensiveness, aggression and passive behaviours).

While situational factors have an impact on the coping style used, Amirkhan (1994) explained that person-related factors are also at play. As people deal with stressful situations in their lifetime, they learn and develop a preferred coping style. Kim and Han (2015) stated that coping styles are important processes of psychological resources for adaptive or maladaptive (Thomas et al., 2016) intra- and interpersonal emotional functioning. Maladaptation leads to negative outcomes of coping, which means the adverse situation is still present, and is associated with the avoidance coping style. Adaptation is associated with positive outcomes and the coping styles of problem solving and seeking social support (Kim & Han, 2015; Thomas et al., 2016). Further discussion of these coping styles by Amirkhan (1990) will follow later in the chapter.

In a study by Amirkhan (1994), 25% of respondents showed consistency in coping during the same stressful event and across multiple stressful situations. However, if their preferred coping style was not successful, as applied first in solving the problem, individuals tended to change or use an alternative coping style. In a study by Aldwin, Sutton, and Lachman (1996), 80% of the respondents indicated that they had used previous experiences to help cope with current situations. The experience might have taught the respondents to trust themselves as well as to appraise the relative importance of the problem (e.g., whether the situation is worth investing coping resources or not).

Therefore, according to Aldwin et al. (1996), individuals who believe they can achieve positive outcomes in dealing with stressful situations draw upon their resources (e.g., emotional intelligence) and use effective coping styles suitable for the situation. Hence, coping styles are action-based on an analysis and evaluation of the event, with careful attention to the importance and uncertainty associated with the style (Amirkhan, 1994).

Furthermore, when the stress intensifies, individuals tend to be more flexible in the use of coping styles (Amirkhan, 2006). Research by Amirkhan (2006) found that, at

lower stress levels, people tend to use the problem-solving coping style, but when the stress levels increase, more avoidant coping is evident, as well as no change in seeking social support. For example, a facilitator might deal with a challenge hands on during the day at work (problem-focused coping), but watch TV or have a drink after work in order to forget about the situation (i.e. avoidance-focused coping).

In this study, coping styles are viewed as a process of coping that tends to change over time and in different situational contexts in which they are applied (Amirkhan & Auyeung, 2007; Lazarus, 1993). Therefore, the definition by Amirkhan (1994), namely that coping styles are behavioural characteristics that can be consistent, will be adopted. These behavioural characteristics were measured using Amirkhan's Coping Strategies Indicator.

The next section will provide a discussion of the different models of coping.

4.3. Models of coping

The transactional model of coping and stress, and the conservation of resource model will be discussed in this section. The transactional model of coping and stress emphasises the context in which coping actions occur (Frydenberg, 2008). Furthermore, the model highlights the role of positive and negative emotions in the stress appraisal process (Ntoumanis, Edmunds, & Duda, 2009), which is also known as the cognitive-motivational-relational theory of coping. Furthermore, the resource-based model, specifically the conservation of resource model, by Hobfoll (2001) will be discussed.

4.3.1. Transactional model of coping and stress

The model assumes that coping is a changing process over time, as the person and environment are continuously in a dynamic, mutually influential relationship (Frydenberg, 2008). This continuous relationship between individual and environment is referred to as the transactional process. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1987), "transaction" emphasises the dynamic interplay between the variables, that is with the person and the environment.

Ozier et al. (2007) argued that the transactional model of coping and stress provides an evaluation of individual differences in coping styles used in reaction to an adverse situation, meaning that people react differently to the same stressor. Folkman (1997) stated that individuals are continuously appraising their transactions with the environment, for the significance of their well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). The appraisal involves the evaluation of what individuals know or think they know about the world and how the world works to benefit one's personal well-being.

According to Lazarus and Folkman (1987) and Ozier et al. (2007), appraisal can be categorised into primary and secondary appraisal. Primary appraisal pertains to the motivational relevance of what is happening and its importance to well-being. During primary appraisal, the situation or event can be experienced as harmful, threatening, challenging and/or beneficial. On the other hand, secondary appraisal involves the actions that can be implemented to improve the person–environment relationship and choice between different coping styles that could be perceived as effective. Ntoumanis et al. (2009) associated secondary appraisal with situational appraisal control.

Secondary appraisal is of paramount importance as a supplement to primary appraisal, since harm, threat, challenge and benefit depend on how much control individuals think they have over the outcome (Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). Frydenberg (2008) explained that questions such as “What is at stake in terms of harm or benefit?” (primary appraisal) and “What can be done about the situation or what are the options or resources available?” (secondary appraisal) can be asked. The appraisals can start a chain of activity and coping actions to manage the situation (see figure 4) (Ozier et al., 2007).

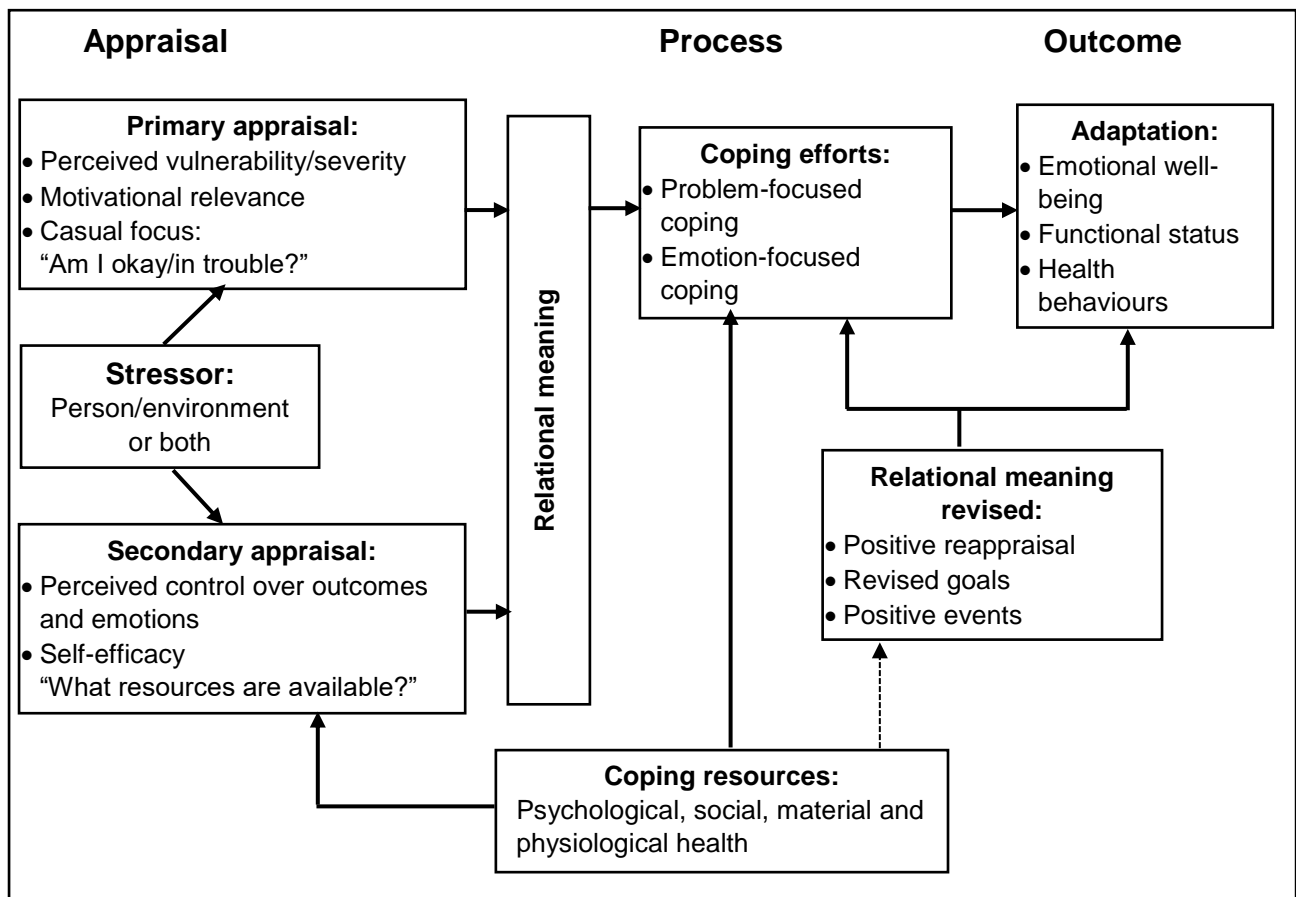


Figure 4. Lazarus and Folkman's transactional model of coping and stress (Ozier et al., 2007, p. 620)

The role of appraisal is considered imperative to the study of coping. During an encounter (interaction with the environment) the situation can be appraised as threatening/challenging/beneficial (i.e. primary appraisal), and the emotion-focused and problem-focused coping styles/strategies can be applied to regulate and manage the distress or problem causing the distress. Therefore, the outcome might be a favourable resolution, non-resolution or unfavourable resolution (Amirkhan & Auyeung, 2007; Folkman, 1997; Frydenberg, 2008). As Ra and Trusty (2015) stated, coping styles serve as a process of moderating the interaction between the individual and the environment.

According to Folkman (1997), Frydenberg (2008) and Ozier et al. (2007), Lazarus and Folkman's model originally concluded that emotion is generated during three phases: the appraisal phase, the coping or process phase, and the outcome phase. These phases are set out next:

- **The appraisal phase** describes positive psychological states that give meaning to the situation and assist individuals in coping with the stressor. Individuals apply positive reappraisal (i.e., finding meaning by interpreting the situation in relation to values and beliefs), revising and planning goal-directed problem-focused coping, and activating spiritual beliefs and experiences. Folkman (1997) adds that the processes can be applicable to both emotion-focused and problem-focused coping, whereas Krohne (2002) stated that emotions such as anxiety, fear or anger can be experienced. For example, a facilitator might be angry at students' poor performance after an assessment.
- **The coping phase** is the response to the actual stressor that explains the co-occurrence of a positive and negative state, where a negative state is associated with the duration of stress, which could energise individuals to find and create consciously or unconsciously, a positive psychological state of relief (Folkman, 1997). An individual could experience feelings of hope and pride (Krohne, 2002). Such interpretations could lead to the use of resources such as hope, social support and self-esteem (Ntoumanis et al., 2009). For example, the facilitator may decide to turn to colleagues for advice or tips to enhance student learning and hope that students' performance will improve.
- **The outcome phase** pertains to the positive psychological state that results from appraisal and coping. This phase can help an individual redefine and focus on positive meaning, and re-engage and re-energise in goal-directed problem-focused activities. According to Krohne (2002), happiness, love and relief could be experienced. For example, the facilitator could experience happiness and relief once students' performance has improved.

From the above discussion, it is clear that emotion and emotional intelligence play an important role in coping styles. The model, thus, defines coping style as behaviour and cognitive efforts employed by individuals to deal with and manage the demands of the person–environment relationship (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Frydenberg, 2008; Ntoumanis et al., 2009). Behavioural and cognitive efforts/abilities are considered to be important resilience factors, according to Kumpfer's transactional resilience model

discussed in chapter 2. Mitchell (2004) adds that coping is not considered a personality trait or style that remains stable across situations. Instead, coping is considered in terms of two general styles that are available to be implemented according to specific situations: emotion-focused coping and problem-focused coping (Frydenberg, 2008; Kim & Agrusa, 2010; Lazarus, 1993; Mitchell, 2004). Moreover, Frydenberg (2008) stated that the coping process is influenced by an individual's access to available resources and styles.

4.3.2. Resource-based model

Coping research has been evolving over the years and new developments have emerged in the process (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Models such as conservation of resources (COR) have gained prominence and challenge the appraisal-based models such as Lazarus and Folkman's transactional model (Hobfoll, 2001).

The COR model considers both environmental and internal processes to be equally important in leading to a successful outcome as the individual interacts with his or her environment (Frydenberg, 2008; Hobfoll, 2001). According to Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) and Hobfoll (2001), individuals are proactive rather than reactive, the latter meaning that individuals only react once the stressful encounter has occurred and compensate for loss or reduce the harm. Being proactive means that individuals are future oriented and cope in advance to prevent or mute the harm of potential stressors (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004).

Resource loss is the main assumption of the COR model, meaning that resource loss outweighs the benefits gained. Therefore, negative events have a bigger impact on an individual's physiological, cognitive, emotional and social responses than positive life events (Hobfoll, 2001). To protect one from loss, an investment of resources is crucial (Frydenberg, 2008). In this regard, Hobfoll (2001) stated that individuals will, therefore, strive to obtain, retain, protect and foster the things they consider important. Frydenberg (2008) related these efforts to motivational goals consistent with proactive coping.

Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) and Frydenberg (2008) described proactive coping as the ability to create opportunities for growth through accumulating resources with the

purpose of achieving positive goals that are challenging and contributing to personal growth. In this regard, Frydenberg (2008) mentioned that proactive copers have a vision that is transformed into action. Individuals with personal goals and resources are less vulnerable to stress. In a study involving teachers, Frydenberg (2008) found that proactive coping teachers indicated less exhaustion, less cynicism and more personal accomplishments, and viewed the stressor as a challenge and less threatening.

Coping has several functions, one of which is to reduce stress, which includes maintaining relationships or focusing on a task. Therefore, coping does not necessarily take place in a social vacuum. For example, an individual is part of a family which exists within a community. The family and community can then become part of the resources needed to cope with a stressful event (i.e. communal coping will be discussed later in the chapter) (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Frydenberg, 2008; Hobfoll, 2001). Kuo (2013) viewed this social interaction as collective coping, because the stress response is understood within the social context.

Frydenberg (2008) concluded that coping is a multidimensional process which cannot be limited to the dimensions of control/escape, active/passive and problem/emotion focused. Furthermore, coping should also increase potential for growth, satisfaction and quality of life. Mauno and Rantanen (2013) suggested that individuals tend to collect a variety of resources that will contribute to the increase of their resources. Therefore, the more resources an individual has and collect, the more the individual gains confidence to manage stress, whether at work or home. For instance, an employee might have good coping styles and a solid support system at work, which then help her to maintain balance between home and work.

The transactional model of coping and stress was adopted for this study. This model assists in understanding how individuals' appraisal affect their choice of coping styles. The appraisal and the choice of these coping styles are influenced by the resources (such as emotional intelligence), individuals have at their disposal.

4.4. Coping styles

According to Lazarus (1993), coping can take one of two styles, emotion focused or problem focused, and these styles have been outlined and often referred to in the literature (Amirkhan, 1990; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987; Montes-Berges & Augusto, 2007; Ntoumanis et al., 2009). Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) explained that the theoretical distinction between emotion-focused and problem-focused coping provides a useful way of discovering different types of coping.

Problem-focused coping involves actively trying to control and solve the stressful situation, while emotion-focused coping involves emotional regulation to make the stressful situation more tolerable (Mauno & Rantanen, 2013). Lazarus (1993) argued that the function of problem-focused coping is to change the person–environment relationship by acting on the environment or oneself. Alumran and Punamaki (2008) and Compas et al. (2001) linked emotion-focused coping with maintaining a positive outlook, whereas Beasley et al. (2003) associated it with greater psychological dysfunction.

Amirkhan (1990) identified the problem-solving, avoidance and seeking support coping styles, which will be discussed and measured in this study. Anshel (1996) claimed that these styles seem to match most human reactions to threatening situations. In a study by Folkman and Moskowitz (2004), new developments emerged with regard to coping styles where future-oriented proactive coping and communal coping were cited to be of importance in managing stressful situations. Although the different authors identified different coping styles, these styles can still be categorised within the emotion-focused and problem-focused approaches by Lazarus (Montes-Berges & Augusto, 2007) and the seeking social support and avoidance coping styles by Amirkhan (Ra & Trusty, 2015).

Although the different categories of coping styles share similarities, there are some differences. For instance, Kim and Han (2015) observed a lack of convergence in the classification of coping styles. The following section provides a discussion of the three coping styles identified by Amirkhan namely problem solving, seeking social support and avoidance coping. Thereafter a brief discussion follows of other coping styles, namely future-oriented proactive coping and communal coping.

4.4.1 Problem-solving coping

According to Amirkhan (1990), problem-solving coping is an important coping style, because it involves manipulation, rather than simple awareness, of the stressor. This direct assault of the stressor seems to have originated from the ancient “fight” mechanism. Kim and Agrusa (2010) argued that, for one to achieve positive and desirable outcomes, problem-solving coping should be employed, which is considered to be an active response to a stressful situation.

Beasley et al. (2003) described problem-solving coping as active attempts to deal with stress, a style which is associated with better outcomes. Problem-solving coping functions to change the stressor through direct action, especially when conditions are appraised as manageable and being able to change (Mitchell, 2004; Montes-Berges & Augusto, 2007). Furthermore, the use of problem-solving coping while experiencing an adverse situation helps in moderating the effects of the stressor on an individual’s psychological functioning. Hence, problem-solving coping is known to be an adaptive and effective style for dealing with stress (Willers, 2009).

Possible strategies that can be used in problem-solving coping include learning new skills, finding possible channels of gratification or developing new standards of behaviour (Mitchell, 2004). Amirkhan (1990) and Anshel (1996) add seeking social support, changing one’s goal or becoming socially assertive. Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) identified forming an action plan and taking the next step as some examples of problem-solving coping. In a study by Lazarus (1993), problem-solving strategies are associated with changes in emotion ranging from negative to positive. Eisenberg et al. (2009) considered the responses to stress to be those that coordinate an individual’s actions with the possibilities within the environment.

Problem-solving coping is related to social and psychological well-being; therefore, when utilising this coping style, the individual can experience increased self-acceptance, personal growth and a feeling of being in control of life, as well as feelings of social integration, contribution and acceptance (Willers, 2009). This means that facilitators who apply problem-solving coping styles will engage in meaningful social activities that will contribute to their social well-being. Facilitators will, therefore, take interest in student engagement activities in learning inside and/or outside the

classroom and will have improved interactions with other colleagues. For instance, during the challenging situation of #FeesMustFall facilitators using the problem-solving coping style devised plans as to how to continue with teaching and learning. They attended training to develop their skills in online teaching and learning methods, and in this way changed a challenging situation into a beneficial situation.

Although social well-being can be related to the use of problem solving, Willers (2009) found that, when using the social support coping style, teachers tend to experience more social well-being than expected. A discussion on seeking social support follows next.

4.4.2. Seeking social support coping

Dumont and Provost (1999) claimed that social support is a multilevel process that includes support received through informative, emotional and instrumental, and the source of support (e.g. friends, family and strangers). Tenant et al. (2014) explained the different types of social support to be:

- a) *Informational*, which relates to having access to information or believing that there is someone to assist when understanding is lacking (e.g., when UFS facilitators are aware that information regarding their job and organisation will be shared by the module coordinator);
- b) *Instrumental*, which relates to material support and time (e.g., facilitators knowing their module coordinator has time to listen to challenges faced in the classroom);
- c) *Emotional*, which refers to support focusing on individuals' perception that others care (e.g., facilitators believing that the module coordinator cares and it is safe to ask for clarity regarding their work).

For the current study social support will be viewed as involving all three types.

According to Amirkhan (1990, p. 1068), the “seeking social support strategy suggests that human contact is valued for reasons apart from either instrumental or palliative aid”. In basic terms, seeking social support means actively turning to others for comfort, help and advice rather than passively waiting for such contact to occur (Amirkhan, 1990; Desmond, Shevlin, & MacLachlan, 2006; Lawrence & Schiller-Schigelone, 2002).

When social support is low, individuals tend to report high levels of stress or distress (Dumont & Provost, 1999). Lawrence and Schiller-Schigelone (2002) stated that seeking social support is useful in successfully facilitating adaptation to the stressor through preserving or recovering physical and psychological resources. The positive outcome of seeking social support is the increased experience of being closely connected to others and being accepted by others as part of a network (Willers, 2009).

However, according to Lazarus (1993), seeking social support is mostly dependent on the social context and can be inconsistent across situations. For example, if a person seeks social support in one stressful encounter, there is less chance that the person will seek social support in another stressful encounter, although some coping styles might be more consistent across stressful encounters, making them predictable. Anshel (1996) concluded that some stressors can be predictive of a certain coping style; in other words, coping style is partly a function of a specific stressful situation. For example, when stressors are perceived to be outside an individual's control (e.g., student protests over fees), a person will usually engage in avoidance coping styles. In contrast, when situations are perceived challenging but controllable (e.g., student success rate), more effective coping styles are used (such as problem-solving and seeking social support).

4.4.3. Avoidance coping

According to Amirkhan (1990), the avoidance coping style reflects part of emotion-focused coping and those styles that include some form of withdrawal. This style of coping includes a range of escapist techniques originating from the ancient "flight" response. As Lazarus (1993) indicated, the avoidance coping style is an example of emotion-focused coping that involves a gentle and less threatening approach to a stressful situation or demand.

Amirkhan and Auyeung (2007, p. 300) described avoidance coping style as a tendency to detach both mentally and physically from the cause of stress (such as spending more time than usual alone, distraction) and the consequences of such stress (Anshel, 1996). Furthermore, Mauno and Rantanen (2013) mentioned that individuals who engage in the avoidance coping style are consciously striving to distract themselves from the problem. Noorbakhsh et al. (2010) argued that individuals use different

cognitive strategies that delay solving or removing the stress factor by providing the stressor with a new name or meaning as a way of avoiding the adverse situation.

Individuals can also use strategies such as wishful thinking, minimisation and denial (Beasley et al., 2003; Mauno & Rantanen, 2013; Mitchell, 2004), substances, isolation and day dreaming (Beutler et al., 2003). However, Anshel (1996) suggested that the avoidance coping style is appropriate when:

- a) the person has limited emotional resources (low emotional intelligence)
- b) the stressor is not clear
- c) the situation is uncontrollable, and
- d) the outcome is immediate or short term.

In addition, this style is used mostly when an appraisal has been made that nothing can be done to modify the harm, threatening and challenging environmental conditions (Mitchell, 2004). Montes-Berges and Augusto (2007) also claimed that this style is used when the appraiser feels that the stressful situation should be tolerated. In fact, this style of coping can protect people against distracting thoughts and actions, specifically in situations that require immediate action. For example, if a student arrives late for class and the facilitator chooses to ignore the behaviour and continue with the current discussions, this coping mechanism can be appropriate given the situation. Indeed, Mauno and Rantanen (2013) found that problem-solving coping is not as effective when the situation is uncontrollable; therefore, avoidance becomes necessary, although Lewis et al. (2011) pointed out that avoidance coping might lead to a problematic situation in classroom management if prolonged.

The prolonged use of the avoidance coping style has a negative impact on an individual's emotional and psychological well-being (Willers, 2009). This style focuses on internal emotional states, rather than external emotional situations that trigger emotional responses (Mitchell, 2004). Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Hartel (2002) found that behaviours such as withdrawal, self-blame, wishful thinking and emotional avoidance can be related to the avoidance coping style, which might lead to potential negative outcomes. So, although stress can be relieved short term, the underlying stress is not dealt with properly. Lewis et al. (2011) established that teachers who

engage in avoidance or self-blame could attribute blame to their students and apply aggressive classroom management techniques.

The above section focused on the coping styles that were measured in this study. The next section will focus on other coping styles.

4.4.4. Other coping styles

Apart from the above coping styles, Anshel (1996) and Beasley et al. (2003) identified the task-oriented coping style that is related to problem-focused coping. In addition, Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) identified the future-oriented proactive coping and communal coping as other styles related to problem-focused coping. A brief discussion of these styles follows next.

4.4.4.1. Task-oriented coping

Task-oriented coping (also known as approach coping) is another type of problem-focused coping (Anshel, 1996; Beasley et al., 2003) and involves the use of one or more activities to reach a task objective (Anshel, 1996). According to Anshel (1996) and Beasley et al. (2003), task-oriented coping consists of active steps to reduce or eliminate the stressor by taking direct action, enhancing one's efforts and seeking information to explain the stress, while ignoring distractions and irrelevant information.

This type of coping is possible when:

- a) the situation is controllable
- b) the stressor is known, and
- c) outcome measures are long term.

4.4.4.2. Future-oriented proactive coping

The future-oriented proactive coping style is described as a way in which people cope in advance to prevent or soften the impact of stressors such as a pending lay-off or ending employment contract. As the COR model explains, people who apply this style do not wait for the stressor to occur, but prepare and plan for future adversity. Their responses to potential stressors are known as proactive coping (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Gan, Yang, Zhou, and Zhang (2007) described proactive coping as coping that is directed towards stressful events that could take place in future, where

traditional coping is focused on stressful events that occurred in the past or are occurring currently.

According to Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) and Frydenberg (2008), a proactive individual should a) be able to create opportunities for growth; b) accumulate resources (e.g., financial or social); and c) find a purpose for the resources directed towards achieving positive and challenging goals. The goals should contribute to the individual's growth. Gan et al. (2007) also found the ability to search for meaning as an important factor in gaining opportunities from a potential stressor, which will in turn facilitate opportunities for personal growth and self-actualisation. Proactive copers believe in the potential to change and improve oneself and the environment instead of being powerless and continuing doing things the usual way when dealing with stressful events (Frydenberg, 2008).

4.4.4.3. Communal coping

Most coping literature focuses primarily on an individualistic approach to coping (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Lawrence & Schiller-Schigelone, 2002). According to Lawrence and Schiller-Schigelone (2002), studies (e.g., Lazarus, 1993) often assume that individuals function independently in their appraisal of and gathering of resources to deal with a stressful event. In fact, individuals cope with stressful events by receiving support from others and giving support to others. As stated in the COR model, coping does not occur in a social vacuum. There is an exchange of support that goes beyond social support, which is known as "communal coping" (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Lawrence & Schiller-Schigelone, 2002).

Communal coping is described by Lawrence and Schiller-Schigelone (2002, p. 286) as the "pooling of resources and efforts of several individuals (e.g. families or communities) to confront diversity". Communal coping involves coordinated activities and actions for mutual benefit; the stressor is perceived as "our problem" and "our responsibility" by both helper and receiver. With seeking social support coping, the individual views the stressful event as "my problem", although the support of significant others is enlisted (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Lawrence & Schiller-Schigelone, 2002).

According to Lazarus (1993), researchers should note that coping styles, although predictable, may change from time to time given a stressful encounter. He explained the predictability of coping styles as follows: a) When stressful conditions are perceived as impossible to manage or change, emotion-focused coping styles predominate; and b) when adverse situations are appraised as controllable by action, problem-solving coping styles take precedence. Furthermore, Lazarus (1993) and Ntoumanis et al. (2009) agreed that some coping styles are not inherently better than others, as effective coping requires a fit between situational appraisals and choice of coping responses. The summary of different coping styles is presented in table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Summary of the different coping styles

	Problem-focused coping	Emotion-focused coping
Active/Adaptive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Task-oriented coping • Future-oriented proactive coping • Problem-solving coping 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communal coping • Seeking social support coping styles
Passive/Maladaptive		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Avoidance coping style

The next section will shift attention to the coping resources available to individuals while dealing with adversity.

4.5. Coping resources

When experiencing adversity, individuals evaluate their resources available (Yeung, Lu, Wong, & Huynh, 2015). The resources are then compared with the demands of the stressful event. According to Mauno and Rantanen (2013), coping resources are factors that result in positive outcomes (e.g., better health, subjective well-being). These coping resources should be accessible for the individual to cope with adverse situations, as they guide the style of coping to be used (Amirkhan, 1994).

Coping resources can be a) intrapersonal, which includes the abilities within an individual, and b) interpersonal, which includes other people, family and the community that can provide social support (Kim & Han, 2015; Yeung et al., 2015). Mauno and Rantanen (2013) confirmed that some coping resources are “trait-like”

within the person, while others can be derived from different contexts (e.g., home or work). Coping resources are important, because they affect the appraisal of the situation, whether challenging, threatening or harmful. Furthermore, coping resources guide the individual's choice of coping styles as depicted in the transactional model of coping and stress (figure 4). Intrapersonal resources will be explained next.

4.5.1. Self-esteem and optimism

Cannella et al. (2007) and Thomas et al. (2016) identified self-esteem and optimism (having a positive outlook of the future) as intrapersonal coping resources. Individuals with high self-esteem know, understand and believe in their strengths, which they then use to reduce or control the effects of stressful situations. Similarly, optimism is associated with better well-being, as well as the use of active coping styles such as problem solving and seeking social support (Amirkhan, 1990).

Individuals with high self-esteem and optimism cope better with adverse situations, and experience consequent personal growth, than those who are negative and do not believe in their abilities to cope (Cannella et al., 2007). Benson (2014) agrees that self-esteem can buffer the effects of stress and increase the use of social support.

4.5.2. Autonomy, competency and relatedness

Yeung et al. (2015) identified autonomy, competency and relatedness as valuable resources of coping and stated that these resources lead to personal growth and development. When coping with adverse situations people need to:

- a) feel responsible and accountable for their behaviour (autonomy)
- b) feel they have the ability and knowledge to reach their goals (competency),
and
- c) have a sense of acceptance and belonging within the social structures that they are part of (relatedness).

Mauno and Rantanen (2013) add that the feeling of being in control of one's own life is an important resource. People are in control when they can understand and manage their own and others' emotions effectively, in other words, when they are emotionally intelligent. As Sharma and Kumar (2016) indicated, emotional intelligence is an important characteristic in coping with adverse situations. Kim and Han (2015) also

found in a study that participants with feelings of being in control and high emotional intelligence consistently chose active and effective coping styles, and experienced less stress ultimately.

Ghanizadeh and Jahedizadeh (2016) focused on coping resources amongst teachers involved in a student-centred approach (which would include facilitators in the current study). These resources included a) self-efficacy, which refers to the belief that one has the ability to successfully accomplish a task; b) attribution, which is either internal or external. Means how and why people make conclusions about the causes of their own and others' behaviour; and c) emotional intelligence, that is, the ability to regulate emotional experience. Therefore, it seems that successful facilitators will be able to maintain good interpersonal relationships, create a mutually satisfying learning environment, and be able to cope with the educational setting demands.

Benson (2014) reiterated that individuals with stronger coping resources are better equipped to deal with present and future adversities through problem solving and seeking social support. Aldwin et al. (1996) also found that individuals who possess more resources (e.g., self-esteem, material or social support) tend to use problem-focused coping, which leads to positive outcomes and, in return, increases existing coping resources. For example, during job loss, individuals with better coping resources seem to have a cognitive ability to view the situation as an opportunity to find a better position or even start their own business. In contrast, individuals who have less coping resources would view job loss as a situation in which more coping resources are being lost.

Therefore, if the above resources are satisfied, people tend to appraise the adverse situation as challenging instead of threatening or harmful and choose more adaptive coping styles. As the transaction model indicates, whether the situation is appraised as a threat, harm, challenge or benefit, the coping resources can help individuals to be confident and flexible amidst life's adversities (Folkman, 1997).

Factors influencing preferred coping styles will be discussed in the next section.

4.6. Factors influencing preferred coping styles

Brink (2009) explained that individuals select coping styles based on an analysis and evaluation of both personal and environmental resources. Individuals make conscious decisions to choose the coping styles that will assist to best manage the given situational demands. "Manage" here indicates that the specific coping style does not necessarily lead to success; in other words, coping might be successful in reducing stress, or ineffective or counter-productive, depending on individual characteristics and/or the demands of the situation (Amirkhan & Auyeung, 2007).

Individuals have preferred coping styles that are applied across situations, which are determined to a large extent by personality traits (Amirkhan, 1994; Amirkhan, Risinger, & Swickert 1995; Ntoumanis et al., 2009). According to Amirkhan et al. (1995) and Ra and Trusty (2015), individuals carry their personal attributes (personality characteristics such as emotional intelligence or coping resources, motivational or affective characteristics) from one stressful event to the next, which explains why they prefer specific coping styles. A study of Beutler et al. (2003) established that personality dispositions (e.g., being self-confident and outgoing) are associated with both the approach and avoidance coping styles.

Montes-Berges and Augusto (2007) argued that the selection of coping styles depends on a number of factors which the person experiences as a result of the stressful encounter. Factors such as success in coping and resources available influence the effectiveness of the selected style. In this regard, Amirkhan et al. (1995) and Amirkhan and Greaves (2003) explained how personality characteristics affect an individual's choice of coping style. These personality characteristics include extraversion and introversion, sense of coherence, and emotional intelligence.

4.6.1. Extraversion vs introversion

Extraversion is the personality trait that shows individuals' comfort levels within interpersonal relationships (Moerdyk et al., 2015). According to Amirkhan et al. (1995), extraversion has a major influence on the coping styles that people prefer. For instance, a direct relation has been established between extraversion and the seeking social support coping style.

Amirkhan et al. (1995) indicated that an extravert has built meaningful interpersonal relationships (as coping resource) to be used at a later stage when needed. In addition, extraverts will seek social support quicker than introverts. Extraverts who tend to seek social support are warm, emotionally intelligent and positive.

4.6.2. Sense of coherence

According to Amirkhan and Greaves (2003), a sense of coherence is an individual's ability to view the world as under control (whether personal control or control by a superior force) and stated that a sense of coherence can also affect the choice of coping styles. Amirkhan and Greaves (2003) further claimed that a sense of coherence is moulded by life experiences and that it becomes relatively stable as a personality characteristic in adulthood. Vossler (2012) concurs by stating that a sense of coherence is fostered by the availability of and experiences that an individual has with general resistance resources, as identified by Antonovsky (1987, in Vossler, 2012).

These general resistance resources include an individual's personality (i.e., intelligence, knowledge); social support (i.e., family, colleagues); subculture (i.e., values, beliefs); and society (i.e., political system) (Antonovsky, 1987, in Vossler, 2012). According to Amirkhan and Greaves (2003), Super et al. (2015) and Vossler (2012), a sense of coherence helps individuals to view the stressful situation, whether caused by internal or external factors, as predictable and organised (comprehensible). Furthermore, it helps individuals to gain awareness and understanding of available resources needed to solve the situation (manageability) and whether the situation is important enough to deserve the investment of resources (meaningfulness). These three components, namely comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness, are interrelated.

Vossler (2012) mentioned that strong comprehensibility affords individuals a cognitive ability to make sense of life events, even if the events are negative. Individuals with a sense of manageability do not feel victimised by the stressor, as they feel in control because of the resources within themselves or available from trusted others. Meaningfulness provides individuals with the motivation to deal with the situation by assigning meaning to it, whether positive or negative.

Amirkhan and Greaves (2003) found that individuals with a strong sense of coherence are likely to opt for the problem-solving coping style while dealing with job loss. These individuals would rather actively fight the stressor than flee the situation by means of withdrawal or mental distraction. The problem-solving coping style is said to be effective in preventing depression and stress-related problems. Therefore, a sense of coherence is associated positively with adaptive coping styles, and individuals become resilient when dealing with challenging situations by drawing upon their general resistance resources (Vossler, 2012).

4.6.3. Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence can influence an individual's choice of coping styles (Brink 2009; Noorbakhsh et al., 2010) and has been associated positively with the use of adaptive coping styles, but negatively with the use of maladaptive coping styles (McLafferty et al., 2012). As cited by Brink (2009), emotional intelligence provides a scientific framework for the idea that individuals differ in the extent to which they attend to, process and utilise emotional information of an intrapersonal (e.g., regulating one's own emotions) or interpersonal (e.g., regulating others' emotions) or environmental (e.g., stressful situation) nature.

The relationship between the choice of coping styles and emotional intelligence has also been outlined in Jordan et al. (2002). Employees with low emotional intelligence were found to be more inclined to engage in negative coping strategies, and those with high emotional intelligence seem more inclined to adopt multiple perspectives and select effective coping strategies. Kim and Agrusa (2010) claimed that emotional intelligence and choice of coping styles can lead to adaptive or maladaptive coping.

Jordan et al. (2002) further determined that employees with the ability to assess the authenticity of their emotions while dealing with adverse situations experience positive emotional reactions and use appropriate coping styles given the situation. On the other hand, employees who lack emotional intelligence seem to be avoiding unpleasant, emotion-evoking situations and, therefore, become unable to resolve any unpleasant feelings they experience (Jordan et al., 2002).

Chapter 5 will elaborate on the relationship between coping styles and emotional intelligence. The benefits of effective coping styles will be discussed next.

4.7. Benefits of effective coping styles

According to Skinner and Zimmer-Gembeck (2007), when individuals are challenged or faced with stressful situations, individuals will experience emotional and/or physiological reactions and attempt to deal with the expression of these reactions. Individuals also feel the need to coordinate behaviour, attention, cognition and reaction to deal with the social and physical environment. Therefore, coping styles can mediate the emotional outcome, such as planned problem solving and positive reappraisal, and change emotions from negative to positive (Lazarus, 1993). As Ben-Zur (2009) stated, effective coping can increase positive emotions, cognitive ability and physical health.

A study by Lewis et al. (2011) ascertained that problem-focused coping is specifically important in professions that engage with other people, such as teaching. Teachers who have fewer resources and/or use ineffective coping styles seem to be experiencing high levels of stress, leading to burnout and ineffective classroom management. Moreover, seeking social support was found to be the most effective and commonly used style by teachers to reduce and manage burnout (Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, 1999). Lewis et al. (2011) and Griffith et al. (1999) further showed that the problem-solving coping style assisted in decreasing the rate of absenteeism from work and improved teachers' sense of self-efficacy, thereby reducing the physical symptoms related to stress.

According to Griffith et al. (1999), when faced with a challenging situation, most teachers tend to seek social support as a means of coping, irrespective of job level, experience or school environment. Their relationship with co-workers and a caring work environment seem to be beneficial to teachers. Tennant et al. (2014) also indicated that seeking social support is important for teachers, as those teachers who perceive themselves to be having social support and/or receive social support will feel assured about their work, create an environment where students feel safe to ask questions, make time for students and provide the needed information.

Successful coping has several benefits, such as better quality of life, mental health and illness remission (Ntoumanis et al., 2009). Khawaja and Stallman (2011) identified increased self-knowledge, greater understanding of others, expanded worldview, help-seeking behaviours and letting go of problems as some of the benefits of a positive coping style and resilient behaviour.

Whether using the coping styles of seeking social support, avoidance or problem solving, at one point people will engage in negative coping behaviours in an attempt to deal with stressful situations (Jordan et al., 2002). Baker and Berenbaum (2007) pointed out that the effectiveness of coping depends on the specific technique that is employed. The development of coping styles will be briefly discussed next.

4.8. Developing coping styles

According to Amirkhan (1994), material and informational resources are critical because they allow individuals to deal directly with challenging situations but also prevent them from avoiding the situation. Thus, it is important to provide opportunities for growth and/or education to empower individuals with knowledge, skills and material resources to deal with adverse situations. Research found that educated individuals make use of effective coping styles, which can be attributed to critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Amirkhan, 1994). In addition, Kim and Agrusa (2010) established that the higher an individual's occupational and educational level, the more the individual is prone to use the problem-solving coping style, whereas people at lower levels are inclined to use less effective coping styles.

Mauno and Rantanen (2013) suggested that stress management intervention, which helps people to identify, manage and choose an appropriate coping style, as well as support from colleagues and immediate managers can help to improve the use of effective coping styles. Furthermore, employees should be allowed to take responsibility and accountability for their job roles without constant supervision.

However, Kim and Agrusa (2010) pointed to the differences with regard to age, gender, educational and occupational level when choosing and using coping styles. According to Amirkhan (1994), coping differences exist between males and females and can be explained by the resources available to males (i.e., informational

resources) and females (i.e., social resources). Females are more likely to engage in emotion-focused and avoidance coping, while males tend to use problem-solving coping (Kim & Agrusa, 2010; Ntoumanis et al., 2009). Amirkhan (1994) confirmed that females tend to specifically favour seeking social support while experiencing stressful events.

The following section provides a summary of this chapter.

4.9. Summary

This chapter focused on the definitions of “coping” and “coping styles”. Coping was described as a continuous process of cognitive and behavioural responses to manage the demands of stressful situations. Coping styles were explained as consistent cognitive, behavioural and emotional characteristics of individuals in response to adverse situations. The discussion shifted to the models of coping, specifically the transactional model of coping and stress, and COR models. It was emphasised that the transactional model of coping and stress was adopted for this study.

The different coping styles were discussed in detail, and it was indicated that they can be categorised into problem-focused and emotion-focused coping. In this chapter, the emphasis was on Amirkhan’s problem-solving, seeking social support and avoidance coping styles, seeing that these styles were measured in this study. The discussion moved to coping resources and factors influencing individuals’ choice of coping styles in their attempt to experience psychological well-being. Both the resources and the factors influencing preferred coping style were indicated to be within the person (i.e., personality) and able to be sourced from significant others (such as family, friends or colleagues).

The discussion then shifted focus to the benefits and development of coping styles. It was indicated that teacher/facilitators who use effective coping styles and have coping resources manage relationships better, have improved psychological well-being and apply effective classroom management techniques. This confirms the importance of implementing programmes that will help identify, manage and improve the coping styles of individuals.

The next chapter sets out the relationship between emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience.

CHAPTER 5

THE EFFECTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON COPING STYLES AND RESILIENCE

5.1. Introduction

Emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience are important factors when dealing with adverse situations (Yaghoobi, Mohammadzadeh, & Mohammadzadeh, 2016). Amongst other variables (such as hope, self-efficacy and adaptability), emotional intelligence and coping styles have been established as important components of resilience. Similarly, emotional intelligence has been identified as a psychological factor associated with both resilience and coping styles (Hart et al., 2014). Vesely, Saklofske, and Nordstokke (2014), as well as Zeidner, Matthews, and Shemesh (2015), found that emotional intelligence has many benefits for role players in education, including increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment and effective teaching. In addition, emotional intelligence is associated with resilience and use of adaptive coping styles in teachers.

Coping styles are important in the perception of stressful situations, and the use of adaptive coping styles is associated with health and positive well-being. Resilient individuals have a number of adaptive coping styles that help them view a challenging situation as manageable and controllable, and as a result they cope effectively (Yaghoobi et al., 2016). A discussion on the effects of emotional intelligence and coping styles on resilience follows next.

5.2. Emotional intelligence and coping styles

Emotional intelligence influences and determines the choice and use of appropriate coping styles, be it adaptive or maladaptive coping styles (Kulkarni, Sudarshan, & Begum, 2016; Zeidner et al., 2015). In this regard, Li et al. (2015) stated that emotional intelligence can assist researchers to predict the coping styles (whether adaptive or maladaptive) that people would apply in different settings. As Probst (2005) found, employees with low emotional intelligence experience more negative emotional reactions to job insecurities and will use more negative coping styles compared with employees high in emotional intelligence.

Shah and Thingujam (2008) found that emotionally intelligent college students frequently use adaptive coping styles, specifically planned problem-solving coping. Shah and Thingujam (2008) identified, for example, seeking social support coping styles, and Saklofske, Austin, Mastoras, Beaton, and Osborne (2012) found a positive correlation between problem-solving coping styles and high emotional intelligence. These authors claimed that adaptive coping styles are not only correlated to emotional regulation, but also to self-awareness and social awareness. The emotional intelligence competencies, such as emotional understanding and emotional regulation, are linked to the use of adaptive coping styles during adverse situations. Specifically, a positive relation has been established between emotional regulation and adaptive coping within an academic environment (Shah & Thingujam, 2008).

Studies by Bibi et al. (2015) and Downey, Johnston, Hansen, Birney, and Stough (2010) also found that individuals with a high ability to control and manage emotions use mostly adaptive and productive coping styles. In contrast, individuals with poor social and emotional skills were involved in maladaptive coping styles, leading to unproductive outcomes. Therefore, emotional intelligence can help individuals to cope better with life's challenges by managing and controlling their emotions more effectively and applying adaptive coping styles. As Saklofske et al. (2012) stated, individuals with high emotional intelligence have a greater ability to regulate and manage their emotions and set future goals during an adverse situation.

In other studies, Fabio and Saklofske (2014), Shah and Thingujam (2008) and Zeidner et al. (2015) showed that individuals who perceived themselves to be emotionally intelligent were able to manage negative experiences and use adaptive coping styles. Similarly, Kulkarni et al. (2016), Saklofske et al. (2012), Schneider, Lyons, and Khazon (2013), Shah and Thingujam (2008) and Yaghoobi et al. (2016) identified a significant negative correlation between emotional intelligence and the use of maladaptive coping styles; therefore, it seems that individuals with low emotional intelligence will engage in maladaptive coping styles (e.g. avoidance coping style).

Findings by Vesely et al. (2013) confirm the above, namely that teachers with high emotional intelligence seem to respond more positively and effectively to challenging situations than those with low emotional intelligence. The findings suggest that high

emotional intelligence would guide and prevent an individual from using maladaptive coping styles and instead engage in problem-solving coping where problems are redefined and individuals are accepting of themselves and others (Kulkarni et al., 2016). Bibi and colleagues (2015) found a statistical positive correlation between the problem-solving coping style and high levels of emotional intelligence amongst university teachers in Pakistan. Furthermore, low levels of emotional intelligence were found to relate to the avoidance coping style.

In a similar vein, Kulkarni et al. (2016), Shah and Thingujam (2008) and Zeidner et al. (2015) found that emotionally intelligent individuals will seek social support when faced with challenging situations as a result of high social skills. Therefore, an emotionally intelligent individual has a greater social support system to use during an adverse experience. Li et al. (2015) also established that individuals with low emotional intelligence might be less likely to develop the coping styles required in conflict situations.

Zeidner and Matthews (2016) pointed out the significance of perceived social support for emotionally intelligent individuals. Therefore, supportive relationships can assist in developing emotional intelligence, and individuals who have perceived support from others are happier. As Stein (2007) indicated, employees who support each other are cooperative and feel positive. This positive relationship between colleagues increases the effective use of adaptive coping styles and ability to cope with challenging situations.

In their study, Ruiz-Aranda et al. (2014) determined that participants high in emotional intelligence experience high levels of life satisfaction, happiness and psychological well-being. Furthermore, it appears that individuals who are aware of their own and others' emotions, and pay attention to these emotions, are successful in using effective coping styles and bouncing back from stressful situations (i.e. resilience).

Resilient individuals understand their emotions and are able to use effective coping styles depending on the situation (Gillespie et al., 2007; Mampane & Bower, 2006). Brink (2009) further stated that coping is influenced by an individual's emotional intelligence and that there is a hierarchy of emotional competencies that facilitates

successful coping, including increased emotional insight and disclosure (e.g., perception, appraisal and expression of emotion), increased use of social support (e.g., understanding and analysing emotion) and preventive reflection (e.g., emotional regulation).

Shah and Thingujam (2008) emphasised that, when using the problem-solving coping style, individuals should be aware of and understand their own emotions, as this style involves the direct assault of the stressor, as described by Amirkhan (1990), in a bid to solve the problem. Individuals also need the ability to identify and manage both the obvious and subtle emotional reactions from others, as this coping style could involve some form of conflict or unpleasantness.

Therefore, from the literature, the conclusion can be drawn that emotionally intelligent facilitators at the UFS will make use of adaptive coping styles, while those with low emotional intelligence will apply maladaptive coping styles. Emotionally intelligent facilitators will manage their challenges effectively, whether in the classroom or during general work challenges.

5.3. Emotional intelligence and resilience

In addition to adaptive coping styles, a study of Schneider et al. (2013) identified that emotional intelligence can foster resilience and that specifically emotional understanding of oneself and others can facilitate resilience. Fabio and Saklofske (2014) also established that resilience correlates positively with emotional intelligence, in accordance with Vesely et al. (2014) who claimed that an increase in emotional intelligence will lead to an increase in resilience levels.

With regard to teachers, Vesely et al. (2014) found that emotional intelligence assists in facilitating resilience amongst teachers. The higher the teachers' emotional intelligence levels, the more resilient the teacher would be, which means less occupational stress, increased job satisfaction, effective use of adaptive coping styles and better teacher–student relationship, which will facilitate effective teaching and learning ultimately (Jennings & Frank, 2015).

Kulkarni et al. (2016) confirm that emotional intelligence has a significant impact on an individual's ability for resilience and social interactions. Resilience has to do with an individual's ability to adapt to challenging situations and thrive or rise above the situation with ease. Therefore, individuals who show high levels of resilience are emotionally aware of their own and others' emotions and how emotions affect themselves and others. Resilient individuals are effective in balancing negative emotions with positive emotions, as they are emotionally positive and generally focused on positivity (Yaghoobi et al., 2016).

In their study, Tugade and Fredrickson (2004) ascertained that highly resilient individuals experience positive emotions in spite of stressful encounters. The positive emotional experience help these individuals to psychologically recover from negative emotional arousal through novel and creative thoughts and actions (i.e., the problem-solving coping style). In a similar vein, Li et al. (2015) found that individuals who scored moderately high in emotional intelligence and resilience experience personal and professional growth.

Jennings and Frank (2015) argued that teachers need to understand how resilience factors contribute to or interfere with emotional intelligence competencies. Therefore, teachers can be role models within educational institutions by responding proactively with the problem-solving coping style and showing understanding of themselves and others. Therefore, UFS facilitators need to build and nurture their inter- and intrapersonal skills to be able to thrive during challenging situations and gain better understanding of their students and colleagues. This will help create a positive teaching and learning environment, which is vital for the teaching methodology (i.e. student-centred approach). An understanding of one's own emotional state (i.e., intrapersonal intelligence) is of importance in maintaining balance, as the intrapersonal dimension of emotional intelligence distinguishes between vulnerable and resilient individuals (McLafferty et al., 2012).

5.4. Coping styles and resilience

Resilient individuals have the ability to recognise stress effects and experience positive outcomes despite adversity (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). A study of Skinner et al. (2013) found that resilient individuals engaged in adaptive coping. However, their

use of adaptive coping styles was not set on one style, but alternated between different coping styles (e.g., problem solving and social support seeking). Furthermore, Skinner et al. (2013) established that individuals who engaged in maladaptive coping styles showed low levels of resilience and emotional reactivity. It is thus clear that resilience relates to successful coping (Hart et al., 2014; Li et al., 2015). As Hart et al. (2014) stated, effective coping is an outcome of resilience; therefore, understanding effective and ineffective coping styles is viewed as important.

Tan-Kristanto and Kiropoulos (2015) claimed that resilient individuals are flexible and cope effectively using protective resources within themselves (such as emotional intelligence, self-esteem and optimism) and/or in their environment (such as supportive colleagues and family). These resources will lead to and reinforce the use of adaptive coping styles.

According to Li et al. (2015) and Yaghoobi et al. (2016), resilient individuals have an ability to navigate challenging situations with ease and effectiveness, and use adaptive coping styles. In other words, these individuals are able to adapt and cope effectively in challenging situations, as resilience means strength, flexibility, mastery and resumption of normal functioning after dealing with adverse situations that challenged an individual's coping styles (Hart et al., 2014; Yaghoobi et al., 2016).

Yaghoobi et al. (2016) found that ineffective coping styles have a negative significant relationship with resilient characteristics (such as self-esteem, hope and spirituality), while effective coping styles are related positively to resilience. Findings by Hart et al. (2014) confirm the above, namely that graduates who were goal directed and used effective problem-solving coping style showed resilient behaviour.

Resilient individuals will continue to manage and withstand adverse situations while employing adaptive coping styles to deal with the discomfort caused by the adversity (Fabio & Saklofske, 2014). Furthermore, Hart et al. (2014) stated that the development of resilient behaviour is associated with better health, effective use of adaptive coping styles and increased awareness of self and others (i.e., emotional intelligence). According to the findings discussed in this section, the more resilient UFS facilitators

are, the better their chances of engaging in effective and adaptive coping styles and increasing their levels of emotional intelligence.

5.5. Emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience amongst facilitators

Emotionally intelligent individuals experience feelings of control over their environment because they are able to recognise, utilise and understand emotional information. For this reason, emotional intelligence can aid individuals in the process of adaptation (i.e. resilience) and coping with stressful situations (Rahim & Minors, 2003). Kim and Agrusa (2010) and Downey et al. (2010) explained that, in work settings, emotionally intelligent and resilient employees deal with stressful situations more effectively, as resilient and emotionally intelligent individuals are believed to be responsible, positive, self-reliant, committed, resourceful and socially skilful. The discovery or rediscovery of strengths and abilities as people strive to achieve personal goals during the process of coping is connected to resilient and emotionally intelligent behaviours (Edward & Warelow, 2005).

According to Ybarra et al. (2014), emotional intelligence is a deliberate, conscious effort by people to regulate and control emotional information with the aim to deal with situations effectively. This process depends on cognitive resources, motivation and context. For example, when a facilitator is overwhelmed by anger during class, she will consciously try to control the emotion by avoidance, reappraisal or distraction in order to interact and engage with the students effectively. Therefore, given the context, the facilitator high in emotional intelligence will be motivated to apply the most effective skills for dealing with the situation, that is, the problem-solving coping style. As Gill (2014) stated, being resilient and coping by means of emotional intelligence are vital for an individual's emotional, physical and psychological well-being.

Zijlmans et al. (2015) found that increased levels of emotional intelligence have a direct effect on resilience and the use of effective coping styles. Individuals who scored high on emotional intelligence seem able to deal with inter- and intrapersonal challenges effectively, and quickly adjust their thinking and feelings to fit the situation. In this regard, Wagnild and Young (1993) indicated that resilient individuals should be able to change quickly, maintain balance in their lives, and avoid potentially harmful outcomes of stress by applying effective coping styles.

According to Vesely et al. (2013), the effectiveness of teachers (including facilitators) in classroom management and student outcomes rests on professional skills, pedagogical understanding, and personal skills and characteristics which include emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience. These skills and characteristics assist in reducing and preventing negative experiences in educational settings and improving psychological well-being.

Li et al. (2015) found that resilient individuals have an ability to cope successfully, by using adaptive coping styles, and be aware of and manage their own and others' emotions amidst challenging situations. Similarly, teachers' ability to draw on personal resources (e.g., emotional intelligence) and external support (e.g., administrative and professional support) will reinforce their ability to cope effectively with the demands in their work environment (Vesely et al., 2013).

Emotional intelligence plays a huge role in facilitators' careers. Awareness of their students' emotions affords facilitators the ability to interact with these students in ways that create opportunities for individualised learning. In addition, emotional intelligence assists facilitators in effectively managing their own emotional responses (Vesely et al., 2013; 2014).

Vesely et al. (2013) established that an emotionally intelligent teacher/facilitator will apply a variety of productive teaching strategies. Zeidner et al. (2015) concur by stating that emotional intelligence benefits individuals in that they can process life events more adaptively because they seek opportunities for growth in challenging situations. Emotional intelligence also helps develop more supportive relationships with others which, in turn, facilitates the use of seeking social support in difficult situations.

Vesely et al. (2013) indicated that emotional intelligence, resilience and coping styles affect classroom management skills, including teaching styles, student–teacher relationships, as well as cognitive, behavioural and emotional abilities, again emphasising the importance of this study. Clearly, an understanding of UFS facilitators' emotional intelligence abilities, preferred coping styles and resilience levels will assist in creating a positive teaching and learning environment where students and

staff members would feel valued and motivated to be part of the team that strives towards excellence.

Teachers who apply effective coping styles relate better to students, use effective classroom management techniques and remain resilient amidst challenging situations. As demonstrated by Vesely et al. (2013), an increase in emotional intelligence can enhance resilience, as well as organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

The four components of emotional intelligence, namely self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and relationship management (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001), have been found to contribute to supportive student–teacher relationships, effective management of student behaviour and positive role modelling (Vesely et al., 2013). Therefore, facilitators high in these emotional intelligence components will demonstrate effective classroom management and coping styles and will remain resilient in challenging times.

5.6. Summary

This chapter focused on the effects of Emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience on one another according to the literature. First, the discussion emphasised emotional intelligence and coping styles, and it was established that high emotional intelligence can lead to the use of adaptive coping styles during challenging situations. Secondly, emotional intelligence and resilience were explained, and the literature seems to indicate that an increase in emotional intelligence can translate into an increase in resilience. Then the discussion shifted towards coping styles and resilience, and the literature pointed out a positive correlation between the use of adaptive coping styles and resilience.

Lastly, the role of emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience in the job of the facilitator was described. The literature indicated that these characteristics help reduce and manage the negative experiences in educational settings. Facilitators with these characteristics are said to achieve better classroom management, healthy relationships with colleagues and students, and become good role models.

The next chapter will set out the research methodology followed in this study.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the research design, selection of the respondents, data-gathering procedures, measuring instruments and statistical methods applied in the study.

6.2. Research design

According to Welman, Kruger, and Mitchell (2005), a survey design can be used when the researcher wants to investigate two or more variables in non-experimental hypothesis testing, as was the case in this study. Survey design is a method to gather data in the natural environment of the respondents. Survey design involves respondents' reporting on their attitudes and behaviours, allowing researchers to obtain information about feelings and thoughts that cannot be observed (Adams & Lawrence, 2015). Common survey methods include interviews and questionnaires (Adams & Lawrence, 2015; Berg, 2007).

For the purpose of this study, questionnaires were administered to explore and understand the research hypothesis, research questions and research objectives identified in chapter 1. Questionnaires consist of a series of questions or statements to which respondents are expected to provide a response. Questionnaires save time, and costs, and allow for anonymity and generalisation of results (when there is a high response rate) (Adams & Lawrence, 2015; Delport, 2002; Welman et al., 2005). The study adopted the cross-sectional research design.

6.3. Selection of the respondents

The selection of respondents involves selecting a group of subjects from the research population and is known as sampling. The current study population consisted of facilitators at the UFS involved in the Extended and University Preparation Programmes. These facilitators are responsible for the teaching and learning of students who do not meet the minimum requirements for admission to the UFS across the four faculties (i.e., Economic and Management Sciences, Education, Humanities,

and Natural and Agricultural Sciences) and seven campuses (Bloemfontein Main, Bloemfontein South, Kimberley, Oudtshoorn, Qwaqwa, Sasolburg, and Welkom). According to the UFS employment records (2014; 2015), the selected population size constituted 220 employees. According to Sekaran (2003), a population size (N) of 220 employees can be ideally represented by a sample size (S) of approximately 140 respondents. The Sekaran table is represented below in table 6.1.

Table 6.1. Sekaran (2003). Sample size for a given population size

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	160	113	500	217	2800	338
15	14	170	118	550	226	3000	341
20	19	180	123	600	234	3500	346
25	24	190	127	650	242	4000	351
30	28	200	132	700	248	4500	354
35	32	210	136	750	254	5000	357
40	36	220	140	800	260	6000	361
45	40	230	144	850	265	7000	364
50	44	240	148	900	269	8000	367
55	48	250	152	950	274	9000	368
60	52	260	155	1000	278	10000	370
65	56	270	159	1100	285	15000	375
70	59	280	162	1200	291	20000	377
75	63	290	165	1300	297	30000	379
80	66	300	169	1400	302	40000	380
85	70	320	175	1500	306	50000	381
90	73	340	181	1600	310	75000	382
95	76	360	186	1700	313	100000	384
100	80	380	191	1800	317		
110	86	400	196	1900	320		
120	92	420	201	2000	322		
130	97	440	205	2200	327		
140	103	460	210	2400	331		
150	108	480	214	2600	335		

Non-probability sampling was considered appropriate for the current study, because this type of sampling is said to be less complicated and incur less costs, and may be applied to take advantage of the availability of respondents. Specifically, convenience sampling was used, which involves collecting information from members of the population who are most easily accessible to provide the required information. This method is quick, convenient and cost effective; however, the results cannot be generalised to the general population (Sekaran, 2003).

6.4. Ethical clearance

The process of ethical clearance at the UFS was followed to ensure that the study adhered to ethical principles. Application for ethical clearance was submitted to the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities and was approved with ethical clearance number UFS-HUM-2015-76.

6.4.1. Ethical considerations

The anonymity of the participants was ensured, as the respondents were not required to provide any personal information on the questionnaires that will make them identifiable. Thus, no names or personnel numbers were required. Furthermore, confidentiality of the participants was ensured, as individual information provided by the respondents was not communicated. Only aggregate information, based on all data is presented in the study. This means the researcher cannot identify a certain response with a certain participant.

6.5. Data-gathering procedure

The data-gathering instruments used in this study were the Resilience Scale (RS) developed by Wagnild and Young in 1987 to measure resilience; the Emotional Intelligence Index (EQI) developed by Rahim et al. (2002) to assess emotional intelligence competencies; and the Coping Strategies Indicator (CSI) developed by Amirkhan (1990) to assess respondents' preferred coping styles. The respondents were also asked to complete a biographical questionnaire. The questionnaires were sent to respondents using electronic resource (EvaSys Survey Collection Method). The Directorate for Institutional Research and Academic Planning (DIRAP) at the UFS managed the process of sending out the questionnaires. The data collection lasted for approximately 12-14 Months.

The next section discusses the nature and composition, reliability and validity, and rationale for inclusion of these data-gathering instruments.

6.5.1. Biographical questionnaire

The biographical questionnaire consisted of the following items: gender, age, marital status, home language, cultural group, educational level, current programme,

programme position, length of employment, and campus name(s). The information obtained ensured anonymity, as it cannot be used to identify the respondents.

6.5.2. Resilience Scale

The Resilience Scale (RS), developed by Wagnild and Young in 1987, was administered to measure respondents' resilience (Wagnild & Young, 1993).

6.5.2.1. Nature and composition

The purpose of the RS is to measure the degree of individuals' resilience. RS considers positive personality characteristics that enhance individual adaptation (Wagnild & Young, 1993). The RS measures five components: a) *Equanimity* (having a balanced perspective of life and experiences; flexibly taking what comes to moderate the effects of adversity); b) *Perseverance* (keep pushing regardless of adversity or discouragement; willingness to remain involved; continue to reconstruct one's life and be self-disciplined); c) *Self-reliance* (the belief in oneself and one's abilities, including strengths and weaknesses); d) *Meaningfulness* (understanding that there is purpose in life that is worth living for); and e) *Existential aloneness* (awareness that each individual is unique and their life experiences are unique, therefore, some experiences can be shared, while others must be faced alone) (Losoi et al., 2013; Wagnild, 2009; 2010; Wagnild & Young, 1993).

The scale comprises 25 items, and respondents are asked to indicate the degree to which they agree or disagree with each item. All questions are scored on a seven-point Likert scale: 1 being "disagree" and 7 being "agree". The scores range from 25 to 175, with a higher score reflecting resilience (Wagnild & Young, 1993). All items are positively scored. The total scores can be interpreted as follows regarding the levels of resilience: 25–100 = very low, 101–115 = low, 116–130 = on the low end, 131–145 = moderate, 146–160 = moderately high, and 161–175 = high (Wagnild, 2009).

6.5.2.2. Reliability

According to Wagnild and Young (1993), there are many studies where internal consistency and test–retest reliabilities have been supported, as well as construct and concurrent validity. The internal consistency reliability was found to be between 0.76 and 0.91, and the test–retest correlations between 0.67–0.84, which is considered to

be satisfactory (Wagnild & Young, 1993). Wagnild (2009) found Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranging between 0.85 and 0.94 in 11 of the 12 studies he had reviewed. Therefore, the RS is not only acceptable across population samples, but is also robust.

6.5.2.3. Validity

According to Wagnild and Young (1993), various studies support the construct and concurrent validity of the RS. This scale is, therefore, considered to be a valid measure of constructs linked with resilience and resilience outcomes (such as life satisfaction, morale and depression). The RS was found to have a positive correlation with life satisfaction, self-esteem, health, social support, self-actualisation and stress management, and a negative correlation with depression and anxiety (Losoi et al., 2013; Wagnild & Young, 1993). Out of 12 studies reviewed by Wagnild (2009), construct validity was found and supported. The RS was also found to have concurrent validity with other established measures of adaptation, including life satisfaction (Wagnild & Young, 1993).

6.5.2.4. Rationale for inclusion

According to Losoi et al. (2013), the RS has been proven to be a reliable and valid measure of resilience, as it has been used in a variety of populations, has good psychometric properties and can be applied to different age groups. The strength of this scale includes its sound psychometric properties and its possible use as a measure of internal resources and positive contributions an individual brings to challenging life events (Lamb, 2009). Wagnild (2009) further explained that the Resilience Scale as a measure of resilience is easy to use, reliable and valid.

6.5.3. Emotional Intelligence Index

The Emotional Intelligence Index (EQI) can be used to measure the emotional intelligence perceptions of employees and their supervisors (Rahim et al., 2002).

6.5.3.1. Nature and composition

According to Rahim et al. (2002), the EQI consists of 30 items. This self-assessment questionnaire was designed to measure participants' perceptions regarding the five components of emotional intelligence identified by Goleman. Rahim et al. (2002) outlined each component as follows:

- *Self-awareness*: This component measures the awareness of emotions, moods and impulses that individuals experience and why. This scale also pertains to individuals' awareness of how their feelings affect others.
- *Self-regulation*: This component measures the ability to check one's own emotions and impulses, remain calm in potentially emotion-evoking situations, and maintain composure regardless of one's emotions.
- *Motivation*: This component pertains to the ability to be focused on goals regardless of setbacks, to have the hope of success rather than be focused on the fear of failure, to delay gratification, and to accept that goals can change.
- *Empathy*: This component involves an individual's ability to understand the feelings communicated through verbal and non-verbal communication, provide emotional support when needed, and understand the relations between others' emotions and behaviour.
- *Social skills*: This component measures an individual's ability to deal with problems without demeaning others, not to allow own or others' negative feelings to inhibit collaboration, and to handle conflict effectively using tact and diplomacy.

The instrument uses a seven-point Likert scale for ranking each item (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree). The lower the score on the EQI, the greater the dimension of emotional intelligence. The dimensions of emotional intelligence are interdependent, meaning that change in one dimension could cause change in another dimension. Self-awareness and self-regulation are associated positively with empathy and social skills, and social skills and empathy are associated positively with motivation. In turn, motivation is favourably associated with the use of the problem-solving style (Rahim et al., 2002).

6.5.3.2. Reliability

Rahim et al. (2002) indicated the internal consistency reliability coefficients of the five EQI subscales to be ranging between 0.58 and 0.95, as assessed with Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Kotze and Nel (2015) employed Cronbach's alpha on the EQI within a South African sample and found the reliability dimensions to be between 0.88 and 0.94. Therefore, the reliability coefficients can be considered satisfactory. The reliability coefficients associated with the different dimensions were established as

follows for both males and females (African/non-African): Self-awareness, 0.90–0.91; Self-regulation, 0.90–0.92; Motivation, 0.90–0.94; Empathy, 0.89–0.91; and Social skills, 0.88–0.92 (Kotze & Nel, 2015).

6.5.3.3. Validity

Kotze and Nel (2015) found that the 30-item EQI measures what it is supposed to measure. The EQI was also found to indicate an acceptable goodness-of-fit to Goleman's model, and no significant difference has been found between gender and cultural groups (African/non-African) with regard to the interpretation of EQI items.

6.5.3.4. Rationale for inclusion

The EQI is standardised for the South African population, and the psychometric properties of the instrument are satisfactory. As indicated by Rahim et al. (2002) and Nel et al. (2015), the EQI can be applied consistently in South Africa and across cultures. The instrument is also constructed to analyse the important dimensions of emotional intelligence in the workplace. Self-report measures for emotional intelligence also seem to provide better results which add significant variance in the prediction of criterion variables (Fabio & Saklofske, 2014).

6.5.4. Coping Strategies Indicator

The Coping Strategies Indicator (CSI) by Amirkhan was used to measure coping styles among the UFS facilitators.

6.5.4.1. Nature and composition

According to Amirkhan (1990), the CSI is a self-report questionnaire that measures the specific coping styles that individuals employ to deal with real-world stressors. The three coping styles measured by the CSI are considered to be the mostly used coping styles. Each coping style consists of 11 items and independent of each other. These coping styles are: a) *Problem solving*, which is an instrumental approach focused on planning and implementation of active/direct steps to deal with problems; b) *Seeking social support*, which measures efforts to establish contact with others for comfort or advice; and c) *Avoidance coping*, which is focused on purposeful attempts to escape the problem through psychological and physical withdrawal or distraction.

The CSI uses a three-point scale (“a lot”, “a little”, or “not at all”) where participants indicate their response to a particular event. Scoring is multidimensional, as the scale allows for a high score in more than one scale: A high score on all the scales indicates flexible coping, and the highest score in any one scale indicates the preferred coping style (Amirkhan, 1994).

6.5.4.2. Reliability

Amirkhan (1990, p. 1072) indicated that the CSI has “superior” internal reliability to other coping questionnaires. The CSI has shown a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.82 and a test–retest reliability average (completed over four to eight weeks) of 0.81 for all 33 items. The different Cronbach’s alpha coefficients are as follows: avoidance is 0.84, problem solving is 0.89, and seeking social support is 0.93. The CSI has satisfactory consistency coefficients.

6.5.4.3. Validity

Amirkhan (1990) outlined the difficulty experienced during the validation process of the CSI, as the instrument was compared directly with other existing coping measures. However, the CSI demonstrated convergent validity by converging with other coping measures, and the instrument was found to relate to personality dispositions as suggested by coping literature (e.g., Amirkhan, 1994; Amirkhan et al., 1995). The CSI has also been tested for discriminant validity, which showed the scales to be free of social desirability influences. The CSI has proven criterion validity because it is able to measure and predict actual coping responses in real-life situations and laboratory simulations (Amirkhan, 1994).

6.5.4.4. Rationale for inclusion

The psychometric properties of the CSI are considered to be satisfactory and its scales have been proven to be nearly perfectly independent (Amirkhan, 1994). As Amirkhan (1990) indicated, the CSI has the best psychometric properties when compared with other coping questionnaires. The instrument is also standardised for the South African population (Brink, 2009).

6.6. Statistical methods

The following section provides a discussion of the statistical techniques used in the study. The first is descriptive statistics, which provides the characteristics of the sample. The second is inferential statistics, which tests the different research hypotheses of the study. Specifically, the correlation coefficient and multiple regression were used to analyse the primary alternative research hypothesis, namely the variance in resilience scores can be statistically explained by emotional intelligence and coping styles amongst the UFS facilitators. The Mann-Whitney U test analysed the secondary alternative research hypothesis, namely there is a statistically significant difference in scores achieved on resilience with regard to gender amongst the UFS facilitators.

6.6.1. Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics, according to Adams and Lawrence (2015, p. 142), “are the numbers used to summarize the characteristics of a sample”. As Lamb (2009) stated, these numbers help describe the data in the study and most basic features in a simplified manner. Huysamen (1998) explained that the data can be described or summarised using tables and/or graphs. Thus, the purpose of descriptive statistics is to reduce large amounts of data physically to facilitate the drawing of conclusions. Descriptive statistics provides the mean, median, mode, range and variance of the data in order to understand the data obtained from the group of individuals (Huysamen, 1998; Welman et al., 2005). Adams and Lawrence (2015) also indicated that frequency, percentages and cumulative percentages can be used in descriptive statistics.

6.6.2. Reliability estimates

According to Bonett and Wright (2014), reliability estimates for measurements (e.g., questionnaires) in social and organisational sciences have been widely measured by Cronbach’s alpha reliability. Cronbach’s alpha reliability describes the average reliability of measurements. Cronbach’s alpha, also known as coefficient alpha (Heo, Kim, & Faith, 2015), refers to internal consistency reliability as commonly used in measurements that represent multiple-test items, such as in this current study.

According to Heo et al. (2015), the internal consistency of test items indicates the sum of how similarly the items represent an outcome construct that the measurement is aiming to measure. In mathematical terms, “Cronbach’s alpha is an adjusted proportion of total variance of the item scores explained by the sum of covariance’s between item scores, and thus ranges between 0 and 1” (Hoe et al., 2015, p. 2). Therefore, the acceptable level of Cronbach’s alpha reliability is from 0.7 and higher (Bonett & Wright, 2014). Measurement items with higher Cronbach’s alphas are preferred in measuring the target outcome, as these items have small measurement error (Hoe et al., 2015). In addition, the items with higher Cronbach’s alpha have greater statistical power for any research settings (Hoe et al., 2015). However, Bonett and Wright (2014) argued that an acceptable level of reliability value should also depend on the type of application and population reliability, and not only be based on the sample reliability value.

6.6.3. Inferential statistics

Adams and Lawrence (2015) indicated that researchers often go beyond the simple description of samples to making assumptions about the characteristics of the population based on the characteristics of the sample. This process is known as inferential statistics, which is used to draw inferences regarding the properties (e.g., the mean) of populations based on the results obtained for appropriately selected samples from these populations (Huysamen, 1998; Welman et al., 2005). Inferential statistics helps researchers to learn and build information about populations in a quicker and more efficient way. The aim is to understand the factors in the population instead of focusing only on those provided in the sample (Adams & Lawrence, 2015).

Overall, the assumption is that the sample is representative of the population. As Adams and Lawrence (2015) stated, the descriptive statistics of the sample is used to make inferences about the population of which the sample was drawn. Inferential statistics is based on probability theory in order to make inferences. The purpose of these inferences is to determine the significance, if any, of the differences or relationships between the obtained data and to indicate the statistical inference generally from sample to population.

The inferential statistics used for the current research included Pearson's product moment correlation, multiple regression analysis and the Mann-Whitney U test.

6.6.3.1. Correlation coefficient analysis

Correlations are used to describe the relationship between variables and to estimate the extent of this relationship (Welman et al., 2005). A correlation coefficient is a number that indicates the estimated changes of one variable on another. This sum can be negative (-) or positive (+). A positive correlation indicates a direct relationship between variables, and a negative correlation indicates an indirect correlation between variables. In other words, with a positive correlation, when scores in one variable increase, the scores in another variable will increase, whereas with a negative correlation, when scores in one variable increase, the scores in other variables decrease.

Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient (r) is the statistical test that can be applied to determine the significance of the relationship between the variables. The value of Pearson's r ranges between +1.0 to -1.0; the closer r is to the absolute value of 1.0, the stronger the relationship (positive or negative). Furthermore, when r is equal to 0.0 or closer to zero, there is no relationship between the variables. A perfect correlation is when there is a change in score in one variable and the other variable score changes with a specific amount (Adams & Lawrence, 2015). The correlation coefficient assisted in determining the significance of the effects of emotional intelligence on resilience and coping styles among the UFS facilitators.

6.6.3.2. Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis is described as a statistical method that calculates the contribution of two or more variables in predicting another variable (Adams & Lawrence, 2015). Therefore, multiple regression analysis helps the researcher to know more about the relationship amongst two or more variables by using the predictor variable(s) with the predicted variable, as is the case in this study with the two independent variables, emotional intelligence and coping styles. According to Lamb (2009), multiple regression analysis has a tolerance for entering several independent variables into the same type of regression equation and predict a single dependent variable. The regression analyses the strength of the relation between one or more

predictor variables. Multiple regression, therefore, provides explanations for the predictive ability that results from knowing the relationship between all variables (Adams & Lawrence, 2015).

Furthermore, Lorenzo-Seva and Ferrando (2011) stated that a simple alternative approach to multiple regression is to select the most important predictors, where researchers can typically use other methods to reduce the number of potential predictors (i.e., stepwise regression, forward selection, or backward elimination). These methods sequentially include or exclude predictors based on the assessment of the significant changes in R^2 . Stepwise regression, according to Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003, p. 680), is “a sequence of regression analyses in which variables are entered automatically in order of magnitude of contribution to R^2 , with or without other constraints”. Therefore, only the variable with the largest contribution to R^2 is selected based on the uniqueness of the variable to the sample (Cohen et al., 2003)

Lorenzo-Seva and Ferrando (2011) explained that the reasons for using the alternative methods might not only be limited to a variable explaining the most variance when the remaining predictors are ignored (e.g., have the largest squared validity). However, the selected variable might contribute to the most unique variance (e.g., having the largest beta weight), and might affect R^2 the most when compared with other predictors. Hence, researchers should decide which of these should be inspected before using stepwise regression in a particular context.

6.6.3.3. The Mann-Whitney U test

Mann, Whitney, and Wilcoxon developed the Mann-Whitney U test (Nachar, 2008). This test is one of the most commonly used non-parametric statistical tests in behavioural sciences. A non-parametric test differs from a parametric test in that the model structures (parameters) are not pre-determined in advance, but are determined from the data (Nachar, 2008). A parametric test is a statistical technique that defines the probability distribution of probability variables and makes inferences about the parameters of the distribution (Kim, 2015; Pandis, 2015; Rouder, Speckman, Sun, Morey, & Iverson, 2009). Parametric statistical tests (e.g., the t-test) can be applied

when the sample meets the conditions of normality, equal variance and independence (Emerson, 2017; Kim, 2015).

According to Emerson (2016), the benefit of using the Mann-Whitney U test is that data are not required to be normally distributed (bell shape). Nachar (2008) and Shier (2004) explained that the Mann-Whitney U test is used to measure the null hypothesis that two independent groups (samples) from the same population have the same distribution or median. This test is based on medians and not means (as with parametric t-tests) and use different mathematical formulas (Emerson, 2016). Nachar (2008) also mentioned that the Mann-Whitney U test compares the observation from the two groups, whether the observations from one group are larger than those from another group (Shier, 2004). If one group is significantly larger than the other group, the null hypothesis is rejected (Nachar, 2008; Shier, 2004).

The Mann-Whitney U test has advantages and weaknesses like any other non-parametric test. According to Nachar (2008), this test can be used when a sample is small and/or when the data are ordinal. The test has the statistical power of rejecting a false null hypothesis and has good probabilities of providing statistically significant results even when an average-sized sample is used and the alternative hypothesis relates to the measured reality. Furthermore, the Mann-Whitney U test can be used with data that satisfy the constraints of a t-test, and has 95% of the t-test statistical power. When compared with the t-test, the Mann-Whitney U test has less chance of providing false statistical results when there is a presence of one or two extreme values in the sample (Nachar, 2008). However, it can provide false statistical results when samples are drawn from two populations with the same average, but with different variances. In this case, a t-test may be applicable (Nachar, 2008).

The following test assumptions for the Mann-Whitney U test must be met in order to verify hypotheses: a) the two sample groups under investigation should be from the same population; b) each measurement score must be linked to a different participant; and c) an ordinal or continuous measurement scale must be used (Nachar, 2008). The secondary hypothesis of the current study meets these criteria for using the Mann-Whitney U test.

6.7. Summary

This chapter discussed the research methods applied in this study. Attention was paid first to the research design and how the research participants were selected. The ethical clearance process and distribution of questionnaires were discussed next. The data-gathering instruments were described with an emphasis on psychometric properties, the nature and composition, and the reasons for including them in the study. Statistical approaches were also discussed, with a focus on descriptive and inferential statistical techniques applicable to the current research.

CHAPTER 7 RESULTS AND FINDINGS

7.1. Introduction

The current chapter will be focusing on presenting and discussing the research results and findings gathered in the study. The presentation of the research results will focus on both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. First, descriptive statistics specifies the biographical information of the respondents in this study and will be presented in tables. Secondly, inferential statistics focuses on the reliability estimates of the measures, correlations, regression and Mann-Whitney U test. This chapter also discusses the results and findings, and the implications and recommendations of the study will be presented in the final sections.

7.2. Descriptive statistics

The purpose of descriptive statistics is to provide an overview of the basic characteristics of the sample in this study. Tables are used to present the frequency distribution of the sample, based on the biographical information gathered.

7.2.1. Biographical information

The biographical information collected include gender, age, marital status, home language, cultural group, educational level, current programme, programme position, length of employment and campus name. The information was collected from 88 respondents from a population of 220. The response rate for this study was 40%, which is an acceptable response level (Baruch & Holtom, 2008).

The frequency distributions are presented next.

Table 7.1. Frequency distribution (Gender)

Gender	Frequency	Valid percentage
Male	17	19.3
Female	71	80.7
Total	88	100.0

Table 7.1 shows the gender distribution of the respondents. The results indicate that the majority of the respondents were females, accounting for 71 of the total, and males only 17.

Table 7.2. Frequency distribution (Age)

Age	Frequency	Valid percentage
20-25 years	16	18.4
26-30 years	22	25.3
31-35 years	12	13.8
36-40 years	12	13.8
41-45 years	11	12.6
46-50 years	8	9.2
Older than 50 years	6	6.9
Total	87	100.0

Table 7.2 indicates that the majority of the respondents were between the age of 26 and 30 years and that the least number of respondents (6) were older than 50 years. The data also show that just more than half of the respondents (57%) were younger than 36 years.

Table 7.3. Frequency distribution (Marital status)

Marital status	Frequency	Valid percentage
Single	21	24.1
In a relationship	14	16.1
Married	48	55.2
Divorced	4	4.6
Total	87	100.0

Table 7.3 shows that most of the respondents (55.2%) were married, while 24.1% were single. The table also indicates that a small portion of respondents were divorced.

Table 7.4. Frequency distribution (Home language)

Home language	Frequency	Valid percentage
Afrikaans	46	54.1
English	11	12.9
Sepedi	1	1.2
Sesotho	14	16.5
Setswana	8	9.4
IsiZulu	2	2.4
IsiXhosa	3	3.5
Total	85	100.0

According to table 7.4, the majority of the respondents were Afrikaans (46), followed by Sesotho (14). Only one respondent's home language was Sepedi. IsiXhosa and IsiZulu were the home language of three and two respondents respectively. Lastly, 11 of the respondents were English speaking.

Table 7.5. Frequency distribution (Cultural group)

Culture group	Frequency	Valid percentage
African	29	34.9
Asian	1	1.2
Coloured	1	1.2
White	49	59.0
Other	3	3.6
Total	83	100.0

Table 7.5 indicates that both Asian and coloured respondents were in the minority, represented by one respondent per cultural group. The majority of the respondents were white (49), with African (29) being the second largest group.

Table 7.6. Frequency distribution (Educational level)

Education level	Frequency	Valid percentage
Matric and bachelor's degree	16	18.4
Honours degree	48	55.2
Master's degree	21	24.1
Doctorate	2	2.3
Total	87	100.0

It is clear from table 7.6 that most (48) of the respondents had obtained their honours degree and that 21 had master's degrees. Only two respondents had a doctorate.

Table 7.7. Frequency distribution (Which programme are you currently involved in?)

Current programme	Frequency	Valid percentage
University Preparation	21	24.4
Extended	26	30.2
Both	39	45.3
Total	86	100.0

According to table 7.7, the majority (39) of the respondents were working in both the University Preparation and Extended Programmes at the UFS.

Table 7.8. Frequency distribution (What is your current role in this programme?)

Current role	Frequency	Valid percentage
Facilitator	68	79.1
Coordinator	6	7.0
Coordinator and facilitator	12	14.0
Total	86	100.0

It is clear from table 7.8 that the majority of the respondents were facilitators and that only 12 of the respondents were both coordinators and facilitators.

Table 7.9. Frequency distribution (How long have you worked in this programme?)

Number of years in the programme	Frequency	Valid percentage
0-1 year	19	22.1
2-5 years	36	41.9
6-10 years	16	18.6
More than 10 years	15	17.4
Total	86	100.0

Table 7.9 shows that many of the respondents (36) had at least two to five years' experience, while 31 had more than five years' experience working in this programme at the UFS.

Table 7.10. Frequency distribution (On which campus are you working?)

Campuses	Frequency
Bloemfontein (Main Campus)	45
Bloemfontein (South Campus)	52
Bethlehem	4
Kimberley	2
Oudtshoorn	4
Qwaqwa	9
Welkom	6
Other	4

Table 7.10 shows that the majority of the respondents were working at the two Bloemfontein Campuses of the UFS. Respondents were allowed to indicate more than one campus, therefore, according to the results, it is possible for Bloemfontein facilitators to work on both campuses (South and Main Campus). Just a few of the respondents were from campuses outside Bloemfontein, with Qwaqwa campus having nine respondents.

The discussion of reliability estimates for the measures used in this study follows in the next section.

7.2.2. Reliability estimates

The reliability estimates for the different measures used in this study are shown in table 7.11.

Table 7.11. Reliability estimates

Measurement scales	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items
Emotional Intelligence		
EQI: Self-awareness	.898	6
EQI: Self-regulation	.860	6
EQI: Motivation	.823	6
EQI: Empathy	.892	6
EQI: Social skills	.844	6
Resilience		
RS: Meaningfulness	.949	7
RS: Equanimity	.894	6
RS: Self-reliance	.963	6
RS: Perseverance	.878	3
RS: Existential aloneness	.953	3
Coping styles		
CSI: Problem solving	.832	11
CSI: Seeking social support	.897	11
CSI: Avoidance	.764	11

The results indicate an acceptable level of Cronbach's alpha reliability, as the score of each of the measurement scales is above 0.7 (Bonett & Wright, 2014). The reliability estimates for the three measures used in this study range between 0.764 and 0.963.

According to Rahim et al. (2002), Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of the EQI scales range from 0.58 to 0.95. In addition, Kotze and Nel (2015) applied Cronbach's alpha and

found satisfactory reliabilities in EQI scales of 0.88 to 0.94, similar to the current study where EQI reliability estimates of 0.823 to 0.898 were observed. Furthermore, the reliability estimates for the RS in the current study were found to be from 0.878 to 0.963, and Wagnild (2009) reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients from 0.85 to 0.94 in 11 of 12 studies reviewed in which this scale was used. According to Amirkhan (1990), Cronbach's alpha coefficients of different CSI scales are as follows: avoidance is 0.84, problem solving is 0.89, and seeking social support is 0.93. For the current study, problem solving was found to be 0.832, seeking social support 0.897, and avoidance 0.764.

7.2.3. Overall descriptive statistics of measurements

Table 7.12 shows the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation results of the different measurements used in this study.

Table 7.12. Minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation results

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
EQI: Self-awareness	88	6.00	34.00	10.8977	4.92248
EQI: Self-regulation	88	6.00	31.00	13.1023	5.31759
EQI: Motivation	88	6.00	34.00	12.3295	5.02573
EQI: Empathy	88	6.00	34.00	11.5000	4.94801
EQI: Social skills	88	6.00	29.00	12.5682	4.73140
CSI: Problem-solving	88	17.00	33.00	29.7179	3.42133
CSI: Seeking social support	88	14.00	33.00	25.6136	5.21587
CSI: Avoidance	88	12.00	31.00	19.4886	4.34436
Resilience (Total)	88	27.00	171.00	132.2652	41.51483

Table 7.12 indicates that the mean scores for the EQI range from 10.8977 to 13.1023, while the mean scores on the CSI range from 19.4886 to 29.7179. The RS total mean is 132.2652. Rahim et al. (2002) stated that the lower the score on the EQI scales, the greater the dimension of emotional intelligence, as observed in table 7.12. Furthermore, Amirkhan (1994) indicated that a high score on all the scales of the CSI

indicates flexible coping, where a high score in any one scale indicates the preferred coping style. In the current study, the high scores were observed in CSI: Problem solving and CSI: Seeking social support. According to Wagnild (2009), the total scores in the RS can be interpreted as follows regarding the levels of resilience: 25–100 = very low, 101–115 = Low, 116–130 = on the low end, 131–145 = moderate, 146–160 = moderately high, and 161–175 = high. Therefore, in the current study the RS average was moderate.

7.3. Inferential statistics

The discussion on inferential statistics includes correlations, regression and the Mann-Whitney U test. The correlation and regression results will be presented with specific reference to the primary research question: Does emotional intelligence have an effect on coping styles and resilience amongst UFS facilitators?

The Mann-Whitney U test applies to the secondary research question: Do differences exist in levels of resilience amongst UFS facilitators with regard to gender?

7.3.1. Correlations

The correlation results presented in this section indicate whether emotional intelligence have an effect on coping styles and resilience amongst UFS facilitators as stated in the primary research question. First, the relationship between emotional intelligence and resilience is presented. Secondly, the focus will shift to the relationship between coping styles and resilience and, lastly, to the relationship between coping styles and emotional intelligence.

Table 7.13 presents the correlations between facilitators' levels of emotional intelligence and resilience.

Table 7.13 Correlations between facilitators' levels of emotional intelligence and resilience scores

	RS: Meaningfulness	RS: Equanimity	RS: Self-reliance	RS: Perseverance	RS: Existential aleness
EQI: Self-awareness:					
Pearson correlation	-.004	-.033	-.030	-.038	.050
Sig. (2-tailed)	.972	.763	.779	.722	.643
N	88	88	88	88	88
EQI: Self-regulation:					
Pearson correlation	-.187	-.218*	-.280**	-.278**	-.124
Sig. (2-tailed)	.081	.042	.008	.009	.249
N	88	88	88	88	88
EQI: Motivation:					
Pearson correlation	-.009	-.033	-.109	-.123	.084
Sig. (2-tailed)	.934	.757	.313	.255	.437
N	88	88	88	88	88
EQI: Empathy:					
Pearson correlation	-.070	-.075	-.150	-.162	-.025
Sig. (2-tailed)	.516	.485	.163	.131	.814
N	88	88	88	88	88
EQI: Social skills:					
Pearson correlation	-.145	-.153	-.245*	-.252*	-.102
Sig. (2-tailed)	.176	.155	.022	.018	.347
N	88	88	88	88	88

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

According to the correlation results (table 7.13), there is a statistically significant correlation between facilitators' levels of emotional intelligence and resilience. More specifically, the results indicate a significant relationship between EQI: Self-regulation and RS: Equanimity, Self-reliance and Perseverance. Furthermore, EQI: Social skills correlates with RS: Self-reliance and Perseverance. Note should be taken that lower scores on the EQI represent higher levels of emotional intelligence. This means that the higher the facilitators' self-regulation and social skills, the higher the three resilience components (i.e., Equanimity, Self-reliance and Perseverance). However, no statistical correlation was found between EQI: Self-awareness, Motivation and Empathy and any of the RS variables.

Table 7.14 Correlations between facilitators' coping styles and resilience scores

	RS: Meaningfulness	RS: Equanimity	RS: Self-reliance	RS: Perseverance	RS: Existential aleness
CSI: Problem solving:					
Pearson correlation	.061	.107	.261*	.135	-.020
Sig. (2-tailed)	.575	.322	.014	.210	.854
N	88	88	88	88	88
CSI: Seeking social support:					
Pearson correlation	-.011	.000	-.004	.020	-.045
Sig. (2-tailed)	.918	.998	.973	.856	.678
N	88	88	88	88	88
CSI: Avoidance:					
Pearson correlation	-.024	-.102	-.140	-.093	-.011
Sig. (2-tailed)	.823	.344	.192	.390	.919
N	88	88	88	88	88

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 7.14 indicates that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between the problem-solving coping style and resilience (self-reliance). In other words, the higher the use of the problem-solving coping style, the more self-reliant the facilitator will be. On the other hand, the seeking social support and avoidance coping styles do not correlate with any of the resilience components.

Table 7.15 Correlations between facilitators' levels of emotional intelligence and coping styles scores

	CSI: Problem solving	CSI: Seeking social support	CSI: Avoidance
EQI: Self-awareness:			
Pearson correlation	-.240*	-.084	.196
Sig. (2-tailed)	.024	.434	.067
N	88	88	88
EQI: Self-regulation:			
Pearson correlation	-.402**	-.095	.344**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.378	.001
N	88	88	88
EQI: Motivation:			
Pearson correlation	-.414**	-.069	.195
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.522	.068
N	88	88	88

EQI: Empathy:			
Pearson correlation	-.282**	-.091	.172
Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.400	.108
N	88	88	88
EQI: Social skills:			
Pearson correlation	-.407**	-.059	.289**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.585	.006
N	88	88	88

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

It is clear from table 7.15 that there is a significant negative correlation between the facilitators' levels of emotional intelligence and coping styles. The results specifically indicate a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and the problem-solving coping style. In other words, the higher the facilitators' levels of emotional intelligence, the more the facilitators will engage in the problem-solving coping style. The strongest correlation was found between EQI: Self-regulation, Motivation and Social skills, and CSI: Problem solving. Therefore, the higher the facilitators' levels of self-regulation, motivation and social skills, the higher the likelihood of using the problem-solving coping style.

In addition, emotional intelligence competencies (i.e., self-regulation and social skills) significantly correlate with the avoidance coping style. This implies that, the lower a facilitators' levels of self-regulation and social skills, the more likely the facilitators would use the avoidance coping style and vice versa. On the other hand, no correlation was established between any of the emotional intelligence competencies and the seeking social support coping style. Therefore, an emotionally intelligent facilitator seems more likely to use more problem-solving and less avoidance coping styles when faced with a challenging situation.

7.3.2. Multiple regression analysis

The regression analysis results will be presented next to evaluate whether emotional intelligence has an effect on coping styles and resilience as formulated by the primary research question. Specifically, stepwise regression analysis results are provided. The model summary, ANOVA and coefficient results for resilience (dependent variable)

and emotional intelligence (independent variable) will be presented in table 7.16. The results for emotional intelligence (Self-regulation) are included in table 7.16.

Table 7.16. Stepwise regression

Variables entered/removed ^a			
Model	Variables entered	Variables removed	Method
1	EI: Self-regulation		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

Model summary for resilience

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
1	.230 ^a	.053	.042	40.63708

^a Predictors: (constant), EI: Self-regulation

ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig
1 Regression	7924.842	1	7924.842	4.799	.031 ^b
Residual	142018.013	86	1651.372		
Total	149942.855	87			

^a Dependent variable: Resilience (Total)

^b Predictors: (constant), EI: Self-regulation

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	155.781	11.576		13.457	.000
EI: Self-regulation	-1.795	0.819	-.230	-2.191	.031

^a Dependent variable: Resilience (Total)

According to the results in table 7.16., the variance in total scores of resilience can be attributed to emotional intelligence specifically self-regulation, but not coping styles. The coefficients indicate a significant relationship between resilience and self-regulation, which means that self-regulation influences resilience amongst the UFS facilitators.

7.3.3. Difference in resilience with regard to gender

The Mann-Whitney U test was used to analyse the secondary research question: Do differences exist in levels of resilience amongst UFS facilitators with regard to gender? The results are presented in table 7.17.

Table 7.17. Difference in resilience with regard to gender

Gender	N	Mean rank	Mann-Whitney U	P-value	
RS: Meaningfulness	Male	17	45.24	591.000	.895
	Female	71	44.32		
	Total	88			
RS: Equanimity	Male	17	39.24	514.000	.343
	Female	71	45.76		
	Total	88			
RS: Self-reliance	Male	17	41.88	559.000	.637
	Female	71	45.13		
	Total	88			
RS: Perseverance	Male	17	39.09	511.500	.327
	Female	71	45.80		
	Total	88			
RS: Existential aloneness	Male	17	34.94	441.000	.082
	Female	71	46.79		
	Total	88			
Resilience (Total)	Male	17	41.41	551.000	.579
	Female	71	45.24		
	Total	88			

According to the results in table 7.17, there is no statistically significant difference in resilience scores with regard to gender. However, total mean scores of female respondents are higher than those of male respondents in resilience, except in terms of the meaningfulness dimension. Based on the results, the secondary research question cannot be accepted, as the results do not indicate any statistical difference between males and females with regard to resilience.

A discussion of results focusing on the primary and secondary research questions follows.

7.4. Discussion of results related to primary research question

Based on the results presented in this chapter, the primary research question is partially accepted: “Does emotional intelligence have an effect on coping styles and resilience amongst UFS facilitators?” The correlation results indicate a relationship between emotional intelligence competencies (Self-regulation and Social skills), and coping style (Problem-solving coping style) and resilience (Equanimity, Self-reliance and Perseverance) amongst the UFS facilitators.

In addition, the regression scores show that only emotional intelligence self-regulation competency has an influence on resilience amongst the UFS facilitators. The next section provides a discussion of these findings.

7.4.1. Results on emotional intelligence and resilience

Resilience refers to an individual’s ability to adapt quickly, maintain balance and avoid stress by applying effective coping styles while remaining emotionally intelligent/aware (Wagnild & Young, 1993). Individuals with this ability use internal (e.g., emotional intelligence) and/or external (e.g., social relationships) protective factors to restore order in their lives; hence the finding by Gill (2014) that resilience is an outcome of well-developed emotional intelligence that can be used to manage emotions by drawing on a positive outlook. According to Rahim and Minors (2003) and Rahim et al. (2002), emotional management is known as self-regulation, which is the ability to monitor intrapersonal emotions and impulses and stay calm in challenging situations.

Mayer et al. (2008), McLafferty et al. (2012) and Salovey and Mayer (1990) agree that an individual’s intrapersonal level of emotional intelligence plays a significant role in resilience. Individuals high in resilience will also have high emotional intelligence, because they have inner strength that allows them to focus and respond positively (McLafferty et al., 2012). Findings by Sood et al. (2013) support the positive correlation between high levels of resilience and high emotional intelligence, as well as better general and psychological well-being; hence the observed relationship between intrapersonal competencies of emotional intelligence (i.e., self-regulation) and resilience, specifically perseverance; equanimity; and self-reliance in the current study’s results.

McLafferty et al. (2012) claimed that the intrapersonal competencies of emotional intelligence are important in distinguishing between vulnerable and resilient individuals. Kinman and Grant (2010) also found that individuals high in emotional intelligence have high resilience, while Grant and Kinman (2011) established that the intra- and interpersonal competencies of emotional intelligence (i.e., self-regulation and social skills) help individuals to better manage stress.

Mampane and Bouwer (2006) and Wissing et al. (2014) found that developing and managing healthy relationships and use of effective coping styles in order to sustain high levels of resilience are important, hence the relationship between social skills and resilience, and problem-solving coping styles and resilience. Social skills are also known as managing relationships effectively through communication, conflict management and collaboration (Bar-On, 2006; Bibi et al., 2015; Hayward, 2005; Mayer et al., 2008; Rahim & Minors, 2003; Sternberg, 2000). Individuals with social skills have an ability to deal with challenges at work without allowing negative feelings to influence collaboration with colleagues.

Findings from Howard and Johnson (2004) and Perry and Ball (2007) concur with those in the current study, namely that educators (i.e., facilitators) high in resilience seem to manage relationships well with colleagues and students alike (i.e., social skills) and seem able to respond to critical incidents genuinely in emotionally protective ways (i.e., self-regulation). Perry and Ball (2007) explained that teachers high in emotional intelligence are able to constructively deal with negative situations and respond positively, as they interpret life experiences objectively (i.e., Equanimity) and believe in their strengths (i.e., Self-reliance).

7.4.2. Results on coping styles and resilience

The current study showed evidence that emotional intelligence, social skills and self-regulation are not the only factors that correlate with resilience, but also CSI: Problem-solving coping style. Bonnie (1997) indicated that resilience skills include the ability to develop a sense of identity, form relationships, and solve problems. This finding is also supported by Li et al. (2015), Mampane and Bouwer (2006) and Yaghoobi et al. (2016), who found that individuals high in resilience refrain from using the avoidance coping style in favour of the problem-solving coping style. Gillespie et al. (2007) also

determined a moderate significant association between the problem-solving coping style and resilience. These findings can be ascribed to individuals' abilities to set realistic goals and persevere in attaining the goals, as well as to have a clear understanding of own strengths (i.e., resilience, self-reliance) and weaknesses (Wagnild, 2010).

Interestingly, the current study found no correlation between resilience and the use of seeking social support and avoidance coping styles, although resilience correlated with the problem-solving coping style. Other studies by Fabio and Saklofske (2014), Hart et al. (2014) and Yaghoobi et al. (2016) support the non-relationship between resilience and avoidance coping style, as this style is interpreted as ineffective/maladaptive, there have been findings suggesting a link between seeking social support and resilience. These findings are attributed to the fact that resilient individuals have protective factors such as emotional intelligence, optimism and hope (Tan-Kristanto & Kiropoulos, 2015; Yaghoobi et al., 2016). Therefore, depending on the availability of protective factors, individuals choose a coping style that is appropriate given the situation.

7.4.3. Results on emotional intelligence and coping styles

The results in this study showed a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and coping styles. Specifically, all emotional intelligence competencies (i.e., Self-awareness, Self-regulation, Empathy, Motivation and Social skills) correlated with the problem-solving coping style, and two of the emotional intelligence competencies namely; Self-regulation and Social skills correlated with the avoidance coping style.

A study by Erozkhan (2013) amongst 691 participants (331 females and 360 males) also established a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and coping styles. Similarly, Li et al. (2015) stated that emotional intelligence could guide researchers to predict coping styles that individuals can apply in different environments. Erozkhan (2013) argued that emotional information provides people with better understanding of their reactions to various sources of stress and guidance in the coping process. Perhaps Kulkarni et al.'s (2016) and Zeidner et al.'s (2015) explanation that emotional intelligence influences and determines the choice and

appropriate use of coping styles, whether adaptive or maladaptive, can assist in understanding the finding in the current study.

Amirkhan (2006) found that people tend to use the problem-solving coping style when experiencing low levels of stress, but when stress levels increase, so does the use of avoidance coping style, with no change in seeking social support. As Mauno and Rantanen (2013) explained, problem-solving coping is effective when the situation is controllable, but when the situation is uncontrollable, avoidance coping becomes necessary. Therefore, an emotionally intelligent facilitator would use emotional information to understand the situation as controllable and apply the problem-solving coping style. However, should the situation be viewed as uncontrollable due to limited emotional information and an increase in stress levels, the avoidance coping style might be used.

Shan and Thingujam (2008) maintained that those individuals who apply the problem-solving coping style are aware and understand their own and others' emotions, because this style requires direct management of the stressor during a challenging situation. Similarly, Shah and Thingujam (2008) and Rahim and Minors (2003) found that problem-solving coping correlates with self-regulation, self-awareness and social skills, whereas Rahim et al. (2002) found that motivation is associated with problem-solving coping. In addition, self-regulation was found to correlate with adaptive coping styles in an educational environment, similar to the current study. Verma and Deepti (2011) ascertained that teachers with emotional intelligence use adaptive/effective coping styles, because these individuals can make valid assessments of their situation and emotions (including others' emotions) and choose an appropriate coping style (Erozkan, 2013). As emotional intelligence, provide guidance through the coping process, because individuals with high level of emotional intelligence can understand and regulate their own and others emotions well (Bibi et al., 2015; Rahim & Minors, 2003).

However, self-regulation is not the only competency that correlate with adaptive coping style in an educational environment, but all the other competencies of emotional intelligence correlate with the problem-solving coping style. In this regard, Bibi et al. (2015) identified a statistically positive correlation between the problem-solving coping

style and high levels of emotional intelligence amongst Pakistani university teachers, and a correlation between low levels of emotional intelligence and the avoidance coping style. This finding is supported by the fact that individuals high in emotional intelligence have a greater ability to regulate, manage and control their emotions (i.e., self-regulation) and set future goals (i.e., motivation) during an adverse situation (Bibi et al., 2015; Saklofske et al., 2012). Bibi et al. (2015) explained that emotionally intelligent teachers are able to understand their response to different stressors, which in turn leads to effective coping. Vesely et al. (2013) also confirmed that teachers with high emotional intelligence respond more positively and effectively to adverse situations than those with low emotional intelligence.

Many researchers (Kulkarni et al., 2016; Saklofske et al., 2012; Schneider et al., 2013; Shah & Thingujam, 2008; Yaghoobi et al., 2016) have indicated that individuals with low emotional intelligence tend to engage in maladaptive coping styles; hence, emotional intelligence is negatively correlated with the use of maladaptive coping styles. The results of the present study seem to concur: facilitators with higher levels of emotional intelligence (Self-regulation and Social skills) seem to be less likely to use avoidance coping styles and *vice versa*. It should also be noted that, the avoidance coping style was the least preferred among the facilitators of the present study – see table 7.12. The finding can be ascribed to the fact that individuals sometimes consciously apply avoidance coping, as indicated by Mauno and Rantanen (2010). This choice might be due to an individual's having limited emotional resources (low emotional intelligence); or the outcome is immediate or short term (Anshel, 1996); or the situation is viewed as uncontrollable (Amirkhan, 2006; Anshel, 1996; Mauno & Rantanen, 2013); or when an individual believes that nothing can be done to modify the harm or threat (Mitchell, 2004). For instance, in the teaching environment, the facilitator might consciously ignore (avoidance coping style) a student who is arriving late for class (self-regulation) and continue with a current discussion with other students (social skills). The facilitator in this instance could feel that he cannot change the fact that the student is late, and the outcome is immediate (as class will continue without disrupting other students).

Although the use of avoidance coping is less likely for facilitators with high emotional intelligence and/or used rarely by facilitators with high emotional intelligence, care

should be exercised when applying this behaviour, as it could lead to negative outcomes. Lewis et al. (2011) found that teachers who use avoidance coping tend to attribute blame to students and use aggressive classroom management techniques.

The present study found no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and seeking social support, contrary to the literature (Kulkarni et al., 2016; Shah & Thingujam, 2008; Zeidner et al., 2015) claiming that there is a relationship between individuals with high emotional intelligence and the seeking social support coping style. However, in the current study it became evident that emotionally intelligent respondents did not use their social skills ability to cope with adversity, but instead to cooperate with others to achieve personal or organisational goals (Stein, 2007), improve the teaching and learning environment (Austin et al., 2008), and experience psychological growth (Ruiz-Aranda et al., 2014) through problem solving.

Stein (2007) indicated that employees who are supportive of each other, are cooperative and positive, and that this relationship increases the effective use of adaptive coping styles during an adverse situation. In addition, Lazarus (1993) pointed out that seeking social support can be inconsistent across situations and is dependent on the social context. The current study also indicated that the respondents are more self-reliant and focused on understanding their own emotions and impulses (self-regulation) and, therefore, able to use adaptive coping styles and bounce back (resilient) from adverse situations (Ruiz-Aranda et al., 2014).

In conclusion, this study found that emotional intelligence does affect coping styles and resilience of UFS facilitators, although the variance can be attributed to certain competencies only. The discussion of the results regarding the secondary research question follows.

7.5. Discussion of results related to secondary research question

According to the Mann-Whitney U test results, the secondary research question “Do differences exist in levels of resilience amongst UFS facilitators with regard to gender?” is not accepted. Several studies (Losoi et al., 2013; Lundman et al., 2007; Wagnild & Young, 1993; Wells, 2010) support the finding that there is no significant difference between males and females with regard to resilience. However, a study of

Lundman and colleagues (2007) found resilience mean differences between males and females. Their study revealed the same results as the current study, namely that female facilitators at the UFS scored higher than their male counterparts on the RS.

Apart from the RS being developed based mainly on interviews with females (Losoi et al., 2013), the reasons for the lack of differences in gender with regard to resilience are not stated clearly (Losoi et al., 2013; Wagnild & Young, 1993; Wells, 2010). However, Wagnild and Young (1993) pointed out that both genders have equal access and opportunities to develop resilience skills. Ravera et al. (2016) concur by arguing that females are equally resilient as men, as long as protective factors are available (such as emotional intelligence and coping styles), although these protective factors can be drawn from different sources. As Stratta et al. (2013) found, males focus on problem solving, while females focus on caring relationships (i.e., seeking social support). Therefore, gender difference with regard to resilience can be observed in coping styles.

However, studies by Abiola and Udofia (2011), Ma et al. (2013), Nikolova et al. (2015), Stratta et al. (2013) and Wasonga et al. (2003) found that males and females differ in relation to resilience, with males being more resilient than females, whereas Wasonga et al. (2003) found females to be more resilient than males. These differences are attributed to the availability and accessibility of protective factors. Therefore, if both genders have equal protective factors, gender differences with regard to resilience might not be experienced, similar to the current study. Furthermore, these conflicting findings can be attributed to small homogenous samples (Lee et al., 2013).

In conclusion, the current study found no statistically significant differences in resilience scores with regard to gender among the UFS facilitators. The next section focuses on the study limitations, recommendations for future research and practice.

7.6. Limitations of the study

The response rate in this study could be viewed as an area for improvement. Many reasons might have contributed to the low response rate. First, the population and sample size of the study were small. Secondly, questionnaires were distributed electronically via emails. Although the average time it took to complete the four

questionnaires was about 15 minutes, for some respondents the time might have seemed lengthy, which might have affected their interest to participate in the study.

7.7. Recommendations for future research

Based on the literature review, research methodology and the results of the study, a few recommendations are suggested for future research.

This study has indicated the importance of facilitators' role at the UFS, as more and more students are being admitted into the Access Programmes. The literature has also showed that educators are moving away from traditional, lecture-centred teaching to student-centred approaches (i.e., facilitation). Therefore, future research should investigate the variables (emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience) needed to succeed as a facilitator in all university's programmes.

The study highlighted the value of emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience in an educational environment. As Vesely et al. (2013) stated, effective classroom management and student success are based on educators' professional skills and personal characteristics (i.e., emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience). However, most of the available research is not focused on the educational context. Therefore, future researchers might need to contribute to the current research with regard to the effects of emotional intelligence on coping styles and resilience in the educational environment.

The results of this study indicated some relationship between emotional intelligence, coping styles and resilience. However, some dimensions of these variables did not seem to have any relationship. Therefore, future research can investigate how and why there is no relationship between some of the emotional intelligence competencies and resilience components, and some coping styles and resilience components in the South African educational context.

Emotional intelligence was found to correlate with both resilience and coping styles in this study. This finding indicates that emotional intelligence is key for facilitators, as it assists in using appropriate coping styles and remaining resilient in challenging situations. Therefore, educational researchers need to investigate methods to

incorporate emotional intelligence competencies into facilitator training, whether it be formal or on-the-job training.

Future researchers should also try to obtain a representative sample of educators/facilitators involved in a student-centred approach in other programmes and/or universities. The results of the current study cannot be generalised, because the study focused on facilitators in the UFS involved in Access Programmes. Including more facilitators from other South African universities would help to find more valid results that can be generalised and provide more insight into the role of the facilitator. A combination of data-gathering methods should also be considered to yield a high response rate, for instance, online and hard copy distribution of questionnaires.

The results of this study indicated no difference between males and females with regard to resilience. The literature ascribes this occurrence to a homogenous sample and protective factors available to each gender group, which ultimately influence the choice of coping styles. Future research could focus on discovering protective factors in a sample with equal gender representation and how these protective factors can be acquired and/or developed.

7.8. Recommendations for practice

The literature review indicated the importance of strengthening and developing resilience, emotional intelligence and coping styles. In addition, the results of this study showed that some emotional intelligence competencies and coping styles, have an effect on resilience. Mampane and Bower (2006) and McLafferty et al. (2012) highlighted the significance of resilience education in developing and improving individual resilience. Resilience education for UFS Access Programme facilitators' should foster emotional intelligence competencies and effective coping styles. With specific reference to literature review and the results of the study the following recommendations specific to UFS Access Programme are suggested.

7.8.1. Recruitment, selection and placement

According to Racolta-Paina and Plesca (2015), organisations should recruit and select individuals who have already developed emotional intelligence skills and have a work environment that support emotional intelligence. However, if it is not possible to recruit

and select such individuals, as it might be the case for UFS Access Programme. Czabanowska et al. (2014) suggested the use of effective recruitment and selection processes. That means UFS Access Programme management should acquire and retain individuals with the potential to develop emotional intelligence skills. The potential facilitators should be ethical and professional, and have an ability to effectively work in team or interact with others. The UFS Access Programme management should also ensure that facilitators' work environment is emotionally intelligent. An emotionally intelligent work environment is described as where there is shared organisational values and recognition of individual uniqueness (Gardenswartz et al., 2010).

7.8.2. Training programmes

UFS Access Programme managers should consider providing resilience skills training programmes focusing on self-awareness, improving the use of effective coping styles and enhancing stress management techniques, with the aim to change the facilitators' internal response to adverse situation. As Lantieri et al. (2011) found that resilience programmes are effective when they focused on changing resilience mind-set. The stress management techniques can help facilitators to identify, manage and choose appropriate coping styles. In addition, Rahim et al. (2002) and Ruiz-Aranda et al. (2014) recommended continuous emotional intelligence training programmes to assist individuals in dealing with adverse situations. Emotional intelligence training programme should be aimed to enhance facilitators' ability to perceive, use, understand and regulate emotions.

Wagnild (2010) suggested that resilience could be strengthened by developing an individual's resilience core focusing on, meaningfulness, perseverance, equanimity, self-reliance and existential aloneness. Although the results of this study indicated that emotional intelligent facilitators have equanimity, perseverance and self-reliance, UFS Access Programme should still include these five important characteristics in their resilience skills training programmes.

The UFS Access Programme managers should incorporate these training programmes into their annual facilitator-coordinators training. Experiential learning activities (e.g. case studies and role-plays) can be used, in order for facilitators to

become aware how their emotions affect them and how they can manage their emotions to facilitate effective problem solving and remain resilient. From the results, a relationship between emotional intelligence competencies, and coping styles, and resilience has been observed. Therefore, it is important to continuously develop facilitators' emotional intelligence and coping styles.

7.8.3. Mentorship programmes

Mentor-mentee programmes as suggested by Grant and Kinman (2011) and McLafferty et al. (2012), where an experienced module coordinator or facilitator in UFS Access Programme can be strategically paired with an inexperienced facilitator for pre-determined period. The mentor-mentee programmes can be used to improve, resilience, emotional intelligence and coping styles of UFS Access Programme facilitators. Mampane and Boucher (2006) indicated that the mentor-mentee relationship should focus on identifying and developing facilitator's talents and strengths, and assist in setting realistic personal goals, as well strategies to achieve the goals. Facilitators' personal goals should be aligned with UFS Access Programme goals. According to Wagnild (2010), resilient individuals use what they have learnt from their own and others life experiences and wisdom to guide their reactions to challenging situations (known as equanimity).

7.8.4. Education

Rahim and Malik (2010) found education to be an important variable in developing emotional intelligence, as the more educated people are, the higher their level of emotional intelligence and use of effective coping styles. Amirkhan (1994) and Kim and Agrusa (2010), also found that educated individuals make use of effective coping styles, specifically problem-solving coping style. Therefore, UFS Access Programme need to ensure that access to educational opportunities is provided to all facilitators. Majority of the UFS Access Programme facilitators work on an annual fixed term contract, UFS Access Programme management can add 'UFS study benefit' to the facilitators' contract. The study benefit, will offer relief on tuition fees therefore allowing more facilitators to further their formal education.

The summary of the chapter is presented next.

7.9. Summary

The final chapter presented and interpreted the descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics presented the biographical information of the respondents in the form of frequency tables. The reliability estimates and overall descriptive statistics of the study's questionnaires were also presented.

The inferential statistics focused on correlations and multiple regressions, with specific reference to the primary research question, and the Mann-Whitney U test, with specific reference to the secondary research question. The chapter also discussed the results in relation to the primary and secondary research questions and alternative hypotheses. The discussion of results related to the primary research question focused on the relationship between emotional intelligence and resilience, coping styles and resilience, as well as emotional intelligence and coping styles. The discussion of the results related to the secondary research question pertained to the differences between males and females with regard to resilience. The last section of this chapter outlined the limitations of the current study and provided the recommendations for future research and practice.

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TAALPRAKTISYN | LANGUAGE PRACTITIONER

PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING

6 December 2017

I, Elmarie Viljoen-Massyn, hereby certify that I have language edited the attached dissertation, *The effects of emotional intelligence on coping styles and resilience among facilitators of the University of the Free State*, by Lerato Edward Sekonyela.

Please take note that I returned the edited document with recommended changes to the client. I have therefore not reviewed the final document with the accepted or rejected changes.

I am a language practitioner registered at the South African Translators' Institute (member number 1001757) and my highest qualification is an MA Language Practice.

Please contact me should there be any language queries.

Kind regards

Elmarie Viljoen-Massyn

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17 February 2015

Mr LE Sekonyela
Department of
Industrial
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Ethical Clearance Application: The effect of coping styles and resilience on emotional intelligence among the University of the Free State facilitators

Dear Mr Sekonyela

With reference to your application for ethical clearance with the Faculty of the Humanities, I am pleased to inform you on behalf of the Ethics Board of the faculty that you have been granted ethical clearance for your research.

Your ethical clearance number, to be used in all correspondence, is:

UFS-HUM-2015-76

This ethical clearance number is valid for research conducted for one year from issuance. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension in writing.

We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your research project be submitted in writing to the ethics office to ensure we are kept up to date with your progress and any ethical implications that may arise.

Thank you for submitting this proposal for ethical clearance and we wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely,



Katinka de Wet
Ethics Committee (Faculty of the Humanities)

Copy: Charné Vercueil (Research Co-ordinator: Faculty of the Humanities)

