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The Psychological Well-being of Disadvantaged Youth in South Africa: An Investigation Into the Use of an Emotional Intelligence Workshop

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of

Master in Educational Psychology

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Declaration

This is a research project submitted in partial fulfilment for the requirement for the degree of Master in Educational Psychology in the faculty of humanities at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

I declare that this project is my own and unaided work. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at this or any other university.

_____ 19/07/2012

Lorandi Smith

Abstract

The legacy of apartheid in South Africa has contributed to the increase of psychological problems and stressors, especially in disadvantaged communities (Ruane, 2006). Literature surrounding adversity points out that well-being and the realising of the highest human good can be improved and should be studied in this population group. Psychological well-being is not just exclusively for the privileged segment of society (Ryff & Singer, 2008). Psychological health has many benefits that can add to the positive functioning of the disadvantaged youth in South Africa. The aim of this study was to determine whether emotional intelligence (EI) training could bring about an increase in psychological well-being (PWB) and trait emotional intelligence (TEI) for disadvantaged youth in South Africa. The study made use of a true experimental, pre-test - post-test design within which the effect of emotional intelligence training on PWB was investigated. The Ryff's Psychological Well-being scale (PWBS) was implemented to determine the PWB of the participants, while the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire – Short Form (TEIQue-SF) was utilised to investigate TEI. The sample consisted of youth that were part of the "bridge the gap" programme within Oasis [a local Non Government Organisation (NGO)]. The "bridge the gap" programme runs over a six month period with the aim to equip youth with life skills to make them more employable. The sample size consisted of 63 individuals, both male and female, ranging in age from 18 to 27, who were randomly assigned to the experimental (n=32) and control groups (n=31). All participants were literate and fell within the same socio-economic class. Results indicated that the PWB of the experimental group improved, but not to the extent that the researcher had anticipated. Furthermore, results showed no improvement in TEI. The relationship between PWB and TEI was also explored, and it was found that a strong relationship exists between these two constructs. The present study aimed to add to the body of knowledge that exists in promoting PWB for disadvantaged youth, and

thus amplify the necessity for programmes that do so. The study concludes with a discussion of its limitations and suggestions for future research in this specific area.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Since the end of apartheid, South Africa has been characterised by a dualistic economic structure. “It is a developed country compared to the African context, but it is still developing for many problems such as high unemployment rates, low levels of foreign direct investments and saving, inflation, and the general levels of poverty and inequality” (Giubilo, 2009, p. 948). The legacy of apartheid in South Africa has contributed to the increase of psychological problems and stressors, especially in disadvantaged communities (Ruane, 2006). According to Altman’s (2010) study done for the Human Science Research Council (HSRC), there are 4.2 million 15 – 24 year olds in South Africa. Altman (2010) points out that in this population group, 2.6 million are inactive (neither working nor studying). Within the South African context, the research of Grootboom (2007) highlights the perspective of South African youth and their future in South Africa, stating that they experience high levels of emotional stress as a result of crime, health issues, poverty and discrimination, and he adds that attention is needed in the area of mental health. Harvey and Delfabbro (2004) maintain that, “Although it is true (ceteris paribus) that young people who experience significant disadvantage are more likely to experience subsequent difficulties in psychological functioning and life success, it is also clear that many young people clearly do not inevitably succumb to their circumstances, or become overwhelmed by the adversity with which they are faced” (p. 3). In answering the question of whether human suffering overrides positive psychology, Seligman and Pawelski (2003) state that one of the best ways to help suffering people is to focus on positive things. They emphasise the fact that people who are impoverished, depressed, or suicidal often care about more than just the relief of their suffering.

Based on the above discussion it is asserted that disadvantaged youth do not have to succumb to their circumstances, and the current research supports the importance of

obtaining PWB despite their suffering. Increased attention to the study of PWB follows from the acknowledgement that the field of psychology has given much more consideration to human unhappiness and suffering than to the origins and significances of positive functioning (Diener, 1984; Jahoda, 1958). According to Ryff (1989a) positive psychological functioning is associated with high levels of self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth. Research indicates that the experience of positive emotions could build resources, as well as enhances PWB (Frederickson, 2002; Frederickson & Joiner, 2002).

Research conducted by Matsuba, Elder, Petrucci, and Marleau (2007) suggests that PWB can be a predictor for finding work. Furthermore, the researchers stress that an effective employment-training programme for at-risk youth should incorporate elements into the curriculum that enhance PWB. In a country like South Africa, with such a high level of unemployment, any strategy that might be beneficial to improving the employment statistics is worth pursuing. Although the current study is not concerned with evaluating employment issues of disadvantaged youth, the above-mentioned study does add to the argument that PWB should be investigated for this population group. PWB can bring about changes in many aspects of the functioning of South African youth. According to Guse (2010), these changes could lead to further transformations, which are urgently needed in this particular society.

Psychological health has many benefits that can add to the positive functioning of the disadvantaged youth in South Africa. On the other hand, deficits in PWB have a negative impact on human functioning. Research conducted by Visser and Routledge (2007) showed a link between lower levels of PWB and drug use. Furthermore, young adults with low PWB may experience decreased levels of happiness, satisfaction, and self-esteem, while suffering from high levels of distress (Amato, 1994). These young people may also view social

problems as being more severe than other youth (Wilkinson, 2004). Additionally, low PWB has been linked to negative self-evaluations, which meaningfully affect happiness and satisfaction (Cripps & Zyromski, 2009). According to Naicker, Mathee, Barnes, Naidoo, and Swart (2010), the experience of violent crime can have a substantial effect on the physical and PWB of victims and their families. It is thus critical that interventions and programmes that will enhance PWB be researched and implemented, especially when considering the high crime rate in South Africa.

Evidence presented by Hair, Ling, and Cochran (2003) has shown that interventions can improve the outcomes related to social and emotional well-being of youth. Yet it is necessary to align intervention goals and measures so that outcomes can be examined. Often programmes do not target social and emotional outcomes directly, but they are achieved regardless of the aim at onset (Hair et al., 2003). Clarke (2006) argues that EI training programmes need to be evaluated to prove their true outcomes instead of relying on testimonials from the participants. The current study will deliberately implement and evaluate EI training so as to improve emotional well-being and PWB for disadvantaged youth. Due to the legacy of apartheid, that has been psychologically and sociologically devastating on this country, it is crucial to develop interventions that take into account the present mental health state of the country (Marchetti-Mercer, 2003). As such, the need for interventions that enhance PWB within this context is of great importance. The current study proposes EI as one such enhancement strategy.

EI training has proven to be beneficial in many areas, however most of the research exists within the business world and corporate organisations (Mersino, 2007; Murray, Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Hall-Thompson, 2010; Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Ascough, 2007), including entrepreneurship (Zampetakis, Kafetsios, Bouranta, Dewett, & Moustakis, 2009), or within the field of medicine (Grewal & Davidson, 2008). More recently the research has expanded

to incorporate EI training into the psychological field (Cha & Nock, 2009), by looking at how such training can protect against suicidal ideation. The scarcity of research that focuses on the implementation of EI training for disadvantaged youth, for whom many benefits may exist, reveals a significant gap in the empirical literature within this area. Research directed toward enhancing PWB through sport psychological skills training was conducted by Edwards and Steyn (2008), who argued that more research was needed concerning interventions that improve PWB. The current study aims to shed insight into this gap by investigating the effect of EI training on PWB.

Overview of the Study

This study is comprised of five chapters. The first chapter provides a comprehensive introduction into the need for PWB of disadvantaged youth within the South African context. The benefits of obtaining PWB are highlighted and the detriments of not having PWB are also mentioned. Proposed in this chapter is the application of an EI workshop as a means to improve PWB of disadvantaged youth in South Africa.

The second chapter of the study reviews literature on PWB. Defining PWB is discussed and different models of PWB are investigated. The model for PWB that will be highlighted is Ryff's PWB model, and this model is discussed in more detail. Both international and local research into PWB is also mentioned in this chapter. Strategies to enhance PWB are explored, and the relationship between PWB and EI is examined. EI is also considered in more detail, and the TEI model that is the focus of this research is investigated. Research in the field of TEI is discussed and EI training is investigated.

Chapter three describes the aims of the study, research design, sampling, and instruments utilised, as well as explanations of how the data was analysed, and relevant ethical considerations. The fourth chapter concentrates on the results. It also offers a summary of data analyses. Chapter five places emphasis on a discussion based on the results,

followed by the limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research. Finally the concluding thoughts are presented.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Introduction

According to Hallman (2004), the socio-economic disparities caused by apartheid continue to exist. Morrow, Panday and Richter (2005) state that individuals', families' and societies' well-being are being placed at risk by threatening environmental conditions, such as economic disparities and disasters, an increase in crime and violence, the HIV epidemic, food famines, terrorism, increasing divorce rates, inadequate education structures, and natural disasters. Youth, including South African youth, are especially vulnerable. The apartheid legacy of socio-economic differences between racial groups persists in placing disadvantaged South African youth at risk (Abdi, 2001). The question might arise, in the midst of all this adversity and the South African context, whether it is even worthwhile to attempt to enhance the youth's PWB. Ryff and Singer (2008) answer this question indirectly by stating that much work has been done in regard to resilience among those that lack socio-economic advantages. The authors argue that the literature surrounding adversity points out that well-being and the realisation of the highest human good can be improved and should be studied in this population group. PWB is not just exclusively for the privileged segment of society (Ryff & Singer, 2008). It is important to understand that well-being is deeply influenced by the context of people's lives (Ryff & Singer, 2006). It is thus very important in the current study to keep the challenging South African context in mind, specifically in regard to the youth.

In South Africa, PWB is negatively influenced by environmental conditions like unemployment, crime, and poverty. According to Le Grange (2007) the high unemployment situation in South Africa can cause physical harm as well as lower levels of PWB. The author further states that unemployment is linked to elevations in crime, which again has devastating consequences for the country and its people. Marchetti-Mercer (2003), in examining the phenomenon of family murder in South Africa, asserts that this may be a sign of the lack of

PWB in the country. Many studies have identified variables that negatively influence the relationship of negative environmental conditions and PWB. These include a deficiency in problem-solving and higher levels of stress-depression (Pretorius & Diedricks, 1994), as well as low social support (Pretorius, 1996). Individuals that have lower levels of PWB may be at risk for depression (Wood & Joseph, 2010) and excessive alcohol and drug use (Visser & Routledge, 2007).

"A positive psychology perspective seems relevant to working within the South African context. Through identifying, facilitating and working with psychological strengths, such as hope, gratitude, kindness and leadership, in disadvantaged communities, much could be done to enhance both individual and group well-being in our society" (Guse, 2010, p. 5). More recently the effects of PWB have been studied in relation to physical health. According to Ryff and Singer (2008), PWB has been linked to enhanced neuroendocrine functioning, better immune systems, improved sleep, lower cardiovascular danger, and more adaptable neural circuitry. " Recent studies show that higher levels of well-being are linked with better regulation of biological systems and adaptive neural response, and may serve as a protective influence on good physical health" (Manderscheid et al., 2010, p. 4). Positive PWB has also been linked to a reduction in mortality (Chida, 2008). It is in light of the above-mentioned backdrop that the current study, with the focus on enhancing PWB of disadvantaged youth in South Africa through EI training, is explored.

Psychological Well-being

Introduction to psychological well-being

According to Bar-On (2010), PWB forms part of the field of positive psychology, which evolved out of the humanistic movement. Bar-On (2010) states, "the humanistic movement represented a swing away from focusing primarily on psychopathology toward enhancement of normal and optimal human growth, which is a basic precept of positive

psychology today" (p. 55). According to Arnold (2007) the concept of PWB is a relatively expansive idea that extends to include physical and psychological aspects. The goal of positive psychology is to study, identify, and amplify the strengths and capabilities that individuals, families, and society need to embrace in order to flourish (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The same qualities that individuals need in order to flourish and experience profound happiness, wisdom, and psychological, physical, and social well-being, are the same assets that shield against stress and physical and mental illness (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), thus amplifying the need for PWB, and the understanding of what PWB is.

Ryan and Deci (2001) states that there are two principal methodologies to the study of well-being. The first is hedonic, or subjective, well-being. This approach views well-being as the presence of positive disposition and life satisfaction. Well-being is, therefore, feeling good more often than feeling bad. The second method is eudaimonic well-being, or PWB. According to Ryff (1989a), eudaimonic well-being, or PWB, includes autonomy, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, self-acceptance, purpose in life, and personal growth. According to M.Wissing, J.Wissing, du Toit, and Temane (2006), the pursuit of an encompassing conceptualisation of well-being has caused two movements to emerge, namely the hedonic view that is focused on happiness and the balance of positive and negative affect, and the eudaimonic or PWB perspective with the focus on how well people are living. According to Ryff (1989b), an individual that is living well is able to resist enculturation, and is seen as a self-actualiser, participates in the mastery of his or her environment, has direction in life, is positive toward the self, has positive relationships with others, and continues to develop and grow throughout life. PWB is linked to personal growth and the developing of one's full potential (Fava & Ruini, 2003). Fava and Ruini (2003) also state that individuals who experience PWB have a sense of autonomy, competence, self-

acceptance, belongingness, and purpose. Seligman (2002) proposes that an individual who is experiencing PWB is leading the "good life," which is an essential component to authentic happiness. Even though well-being as stated above could be viewed from two different viewpoints, namely hedonic or eudaimonic, the emphasis of this study will be on PWB, or the eudaimonic approach, since it encapsulates the question of how well people are living as well as the development of one's full potential, which is specifically applicable when working with youth.

Defining psychological well-being

Compton (2001) makes the following statement concerning PWB: "Any investigator who is curious about the parameters of psychological wellness will find a confusing array of theoretical perspectives, conclusions and methodologies that all claim some authority in the literature"(p. 486). Cowen (1994) shares this sentiment by stating that a consistently suitable definition of PWB seems to be an illusion. Many different definitions and models of PWB exist, thus highlighting the multi-dimensionality of PWB, with optimum functioning occurring when these dimensions are in a sense of balance. PWB functions within an intricate system that experiences deviations with time and place, as well as with the integration of the different dimensions (Gropp, Geldenhuys, & Visser, 2008). PWB is a broad concept and refers to a satisfactory condition or existence characterised by health and happiness. PWB is often used interchangeably with the term mental health (Visser & Routledge, 2007). Furthermore, it refers to functioning at a high level of behavioural and emotional adjustment, and not just an absence of illness. Individuals with higher levels of PWB are viewed as more successful in meeting environmental stresses and pressures, while a lack of PWB can mean an absence of success, and the existence of emotional problems (Bar-On, 1988). The complexities in defining PWB have led to the development of many different models of well-being.

Hinds (1983) developed the Lifestyle Coping Inventory (LCI) to assess the health and stress management of individuals. It measures a variety of facets that influence health and stress levels, such as exercise, environment, lifestyle, drug use, nutrition, problem-solving, and psychosocial habits. Hettler (1984) proposed six dimensions of healthy functioning, which include physical, emotional, social, intellectual, occupational, and spiritual functioning. Myers, Sweeney and Witmer (2000) incorporated developmental dimensions into their model. They conceptualised a wheel of wellness that encompasses five life tasks, namely spirituality, friendship, love, work and leisure, and self-direction. Later, Myers, Luecht, and Sweeney (2004) expanded on the wellness wheel by creating the Wellness Evaluation of Lifestyle (WEL). Lightsey (1996), however, builds his model by focussing on optimism, self-efficacy, and positive thoughts. He considered personality and environment as adding to the complexity. Adams, Bezner, and Steinhardt (1997) perceived wellness as a multi-dimensional, salutogenic construct with the following dimensions: physical wellness, spiritual wellness, psychological wellness, social wellness, emotional wellness, and intellectual wellness. Ryff's (1989a) conceptualisation of well-being is multi-dimensional and includes autonomy, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, self-acceptance, purpose in life, and personal growth.

After considering these models, the current study will utilise Ryff's multi-dimensional model. The decision was based on the fact that the model is rooted in theory (Ryff, 1989b) and is well supported by empirical evidence. Empirical evidence also underscores the practical operationalisation of the model in well-being therapy (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Ryff (1989b) posits that many theorists have influenced defining positive psychological functioning. These include Maslow's documentation of the self-actualisation needs, Rogers' viewpoint on the fully-functioning person, Jung's proposal of individuation, and Allport's construction of maturity. According to Ryff (1989b), an additional sphere of theory for

defining PWB follows from life-span developmental viewpoints, which accentuates the differing trials opposed at various stages of the life cycle. Included here are Erikson's psychosocial stages, Buhler's basic life tendencies that labour toward the fulfilling of life, and Neugarten's explanations of personality change in adulthood and old age. Furthermore, Ryff (1989b) points out that Jahoda's positive standards of mental health, produced to exchange definitions of well-being as the nonappearance of illness, had also been influential. Ryff (1989a) maintained that previous perspectives on operationalising PWB had been inadequate. To overcome the lack of an acceptable definition for PWB, Ryff developed a measurement that conceptualised eudaimonic, or PWB, while taking into account previous definitions (Springer & Hauser, 2006).

Van Dierendonck, Díaz, Rodríguez-Carvajal, Blanco and Moreno-Jiménez (2008) make note of the fact that Ryff's model of PWB has been implemented in many countries and across many cultures. Cheng and Chan (2005) further confirm the use of Ryff's model in different countries and diverse cultures. One of the reasons for selecting Ryff's model is its established success within the South African context. Wissing (2006) states that, as a model, it shows a lot of promise. Additionally, Springer and Hauser (2006) affirm its use in many major studies, such as the National Survey of Midlife in the United States (MIDUS), the National Survey of Families and Households II (NSFH II), the Canadian Study of Health and Aging (CSHA), and the Wisconsin Longitudinal Study (WLS). These authors also vow to the usefulness of Ryff's model in various cultures and countries, and indicate that Ryff's PWB Scale (PWBS) has been used in languages other than English with much success. Its broad application was just one of the reasons Ryff's model was chosen for the diverse South African context.

Ryff's model

According to Ryff (1995), PWB as a construct contains characteristics of positive functioning. These features include the following: self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth (Ryff, 1989a). (See figure 1).

According to Ryff (1989b) self-acceptance is a characteristic of self-actualisation, as proposed by Maslow, optimal functioning, as indicated by Rogers, and maturity, as postulated by Allport. Accepting one's self and past life is also of importance for theories that consider life span. According to Ryff and Keyes (1995), individuals that are self-accepting possess an optimistic outlook of the self, know that there are many aspects of the self, and accept these different aspects, which include both positive and negative qualities. These individuals also tend to feel confident about past life.

Within her theory, Ryff (1989b) emphasises the ability to have positive relations with others, as well as to love, as being a central aspect of mental health. Interpersonal relationships that are warm and trusting are also mentioned in most of the preceding models. Theories related to adult development stages highlight the ability to have intimate relationships with others, as well as experiencing the guidance and direction of others, also known as *generativity*. One of the characteristics of maturity is the ability to warmly relate to others. It is clear that positive relationships with others are important in all of these constructions of PWB (Ryff, 1989b).

Individuals, who are able to show autonomous functioning as well as resistance to enculturation, are seen as self-actualisers (Ryff, 1989b). An internal locus of control, where the individual does not look to others for approval, but has one's own criteria of appraisal, is needed in order for a person to be described as fully functional. When a person is able to separate oneself from the collective fears, beliefs, and laws of the masses, individuation has

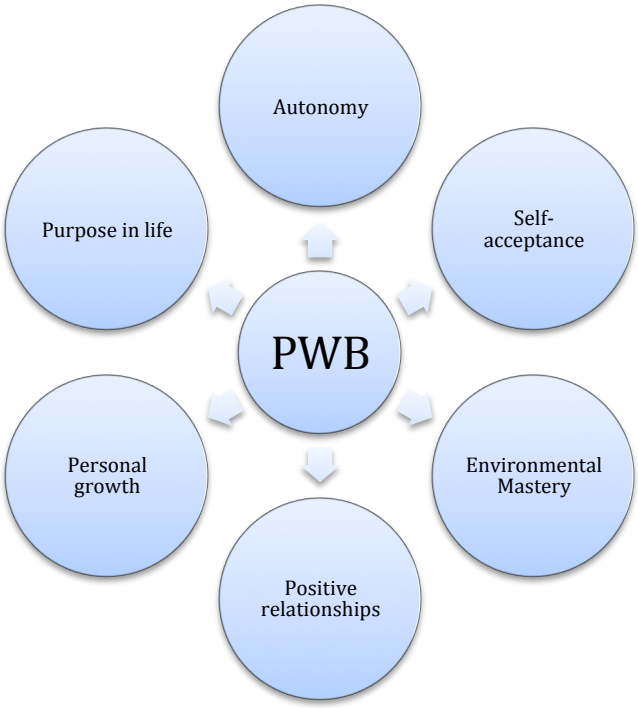
taken place. Later in life, according to the developmental stages theorists, people go through a process of turning inward, which gives them a sense of freedom from the norms that govern daily life (Ryff, 1989b).

Ryff (1989b) further asserts that mental health is influenced by the capability of an individual to generate or select an environment that is appropriate for his or her circumstances. The capability to get ahead in the world, change it by being creative with physical or mental activities, and be able to take advantage of opportunities in the environment, is also seen as an attribute of successful living. PWB is also influenced by the ability of an individual to actively participate in the mastery of their environment (Ryff, 1989b).

Mature individuals need to have an understanding of life's purpose, a sense of intentionality, and direction in life (Ryff, 1989b). This would imply that the positive functioning individual would have direction in life, would have goals set out for themselves, and would live life with intentionality, all of which underwrite the feeling that life has meaning (Ryff, 1989b).

According to Ryff (1989b) an individual needs to continue developing their potential throughout life and place emphasis on personal growth. It is critical for a fully functioning individual to be open to new experiences and to continue developing and growing. Confronting new challenges, or tasks, at different stages in life, and thus growing continuously, is stressed by the life-span theories. It is of the utmost importance that personal growth and self-realisation take place for an individual to function positively and fully (Ryff, 1989b).

Figure 1. Ryff model of Psychological Well-being



Psychological well-being research

The subject of PWB has been vastly investigated in many different life domains, and over a wide range of contexts. Research has indicated that PWB can be positively influenced by the following environmental contributions: empowering community settings (Maton, 2008), engagement with sports (S.Edwards, Ngcobo, D.Edwards, & Palavar, 2005), and spirituality (Fiorito & Ryan, 2007), as well as adequate sleep (Hamilton, Nelson, Stevens, & Kitzman, 2007). A positive association has also been found between PWB and character strengths (Park, 2004). PWB has been enhanced in psychology students who have had positive psychology incorporated into their training (Guse, 2010). On the other hand negative environmental contributions like violence and crime (Naicker et al., 2010), divorce and marital discord (Amato & Sobolewski, 2001), religious doubt (Krause, 2006) and materialism (Suniya, L. Latendresse & S.Latendresse, 2005; Shaw, 2002) all have negative

influences on PWB. A study measuring the differences between managerial and non-managerial groups, and between white and black groups in regard to well-being, indicated that the managerial group and the white group had higher levels of PWB (Gropp et al., 2008).

Wissing, one of the leading researchers in the field of PWB in the South African context, and her colleagues, have conducted many studies with a wide variety of samples. Their findings show that African rural living conditions can be detrimental to PWB (Khumalo, Temane, & Wissing, 2011). On the other hand, urban living, education, being married, and employment influence PWB positively (Khumalo et al., 2011). They also found that being healthy overrides the importance of contextual factors (Temane & Wissing, 2006). In further research it was concluded that PWB was positively associated with family and spirituality (Coetzee, Wissing & Temane, 2010) and sport (Malebo, van Eeden, & Wissing, 2007). In research conducted by Braboy Jackson et al., (2010) it was indicated that black individuals experience more non-specific psychological distress than white individuals, thus influencing PWB negatively. Wissing and van Eeden (2002) looked at the empirical nature of PWB within the South African context using a multicultural sample, and found among other observations that the black group showed lower levels of PWB. In interpreting these results they stated, "It could be expected that the new socio-political dispensation that guarantees equity and equality for all, and ensures human rights through the Constitution, would eventually bring about higher levels of PWB in the historically disadvantaged groups" (p. 38). Seventeen years later the country still needs to see the above-mentioned changes take effect, and thus interventions that promote PWB for the disadvantaged should be encouraged.

Strategies To Enhance Psychological Well-being

Various strategies for enhancing PWB have been used in many different spheres of life and over the lifespan. Enhancing the PWB of the older segment of society include the work of Searle, Mahon, Iso-Ahola, Adam Sdrolias, and van Dyck (1998), who used a leisure

education intervention to enhance PWB in the elderly. According to Frye, Scheinthal, Kemarskaya, and Pruchno (2007), tai chi and low impact exercise can also be used to enhance PWB in older people. Similar results were found with aerobic activity interventions (Ciairano, Liubicich, & Rabaglietti, 2010). Another population group that has been studied in regard to PWB are prisoners. Shuker and Newton (2008) introduced an intervention targeting the offence–related risk and mental health of prisoners and found that it was effective in improving their mental health. Within the youth domain, an employment-training programme especially intended to help at-risk youth find work was implemented over a 7 month period, and showed improvement in PWB (Matsuba et al., 2008).

Strategies are also used to enhance the well-being of students. According to G. Bowen, Woolley, Richman, and N. Bowen (2001), solution-focused interventions are used to enhance student's PWB. Using a social skills training programme was also successful in enhancing PWB in this population (Bijstra & Jackson, 1998). Maree and Mokhuane (2007) note that although the South African government has incorporated Life Orientation in schools, PWB will have to be developed, and state that the enhancement of EI will be critical to increasing psychological well-being. The authors continue their argument by stating that EI training has been shown to be a very effective method to address the problems of the youth in South Africa, as well as the rest of the world. EI training was chosen in order to help disadvantaged youth in South Africa. They argue that the concept of intelligence should be broadened to include EI (Maree & Mokhuane, 2007). EI was also chosen because it addresses issues relevant to daily functioning. They note that although EI training has been used in other parts of the world, "application in South Africa is an open and legitimate question" (Maree & Mokhuane, 2007, p. 151).

In the present study, the strategy proposed to enhance PWB is an EI workshop geared toward the disadvantaged youth. This decision was made for several reasons. Firstly, it has

been shown to be successful in a youth population. Secondly, EI has been deemed important by the South African government, though little research exists on the topic in the country. Finally, it is both time and cost effective, since a single instructor can facilitate the groups.

The relationship between psychological well-being and emotional intelligence

According to Carmeli, Yitzhak-Halevy, and Weisberg (2009), there has been a growing interest in the last two decades from scholars, as well as practitioners, in the construct of EI. This interest was sparked and kept alive by the theoretical position that people who have high levels of EI are prone to be successful in both work and non-work-related activities. Bar-On (2010) states that individuals with high levels of EI are more likely to have positive PWB. It is important to note that when Bar-on first started investigating the construct of EI it was from a well-being perspective (Bar-On, 1988).

As mentioned earlier, PWB falls within the domain of positive psychology. According to Bar-on (2010), EI and positive psychology (including PWB) have several aspects that overlap, namely "self-regard and self-acceptance based on accurate self-awareness, the ability to understand others' feelings and the capacity for positive social interaction, the management and control of emotions, realistic problem solving and effective decision making, and self-determination and optimism" (Bar-On, 2010, p. 59). These factors are also the best indicators of happiness, performance, well-being, and the pursuit of a more fulfilling life (Bar-on, 2010). Research findings validate the influence of El on (a) school performance, (b) work-related performance, (c) physical wellness, and (d) emotional well-being (Bar-on, 2003).

Based on the above-mentioned six factors that overlap, it could be stated that PWB and EI are very similar. This implies that the questions concerning their differences and similarities are important to ask. According to Singh and Woods (2008), further research is required to examine the link between EI and PWB. This statement is echoed by Bar-on

(2010), who suggests that the degree to which EI plays a role in well-being needs to be explored more directly. For the current study, the researcher is interested in looking at the same question that other studies have asked in regard to the extent to which an increase in EI shows an increase in PWB.

Gignac and Ekermans (2010) stated that empirical research has emphasised the validity of EI as a predictor of well-being. Landa, Martos, and López-Zafra (2010) found in their research that EI has prognostic implications for PWB, in that high levels of EI are related to positive PWB and functioning. According to Carruthers, Hood, and Parr (2005) there exists a positive association between positive emotions and PWB, which then also contributes to better coping in life. EI enables a person to deal more effectively with their own feelings, everyday social interactions, and others' feelings, which enables them to function more optimally, and influences well-being in a positive way (Maree & Eiselen, 2004).

Furthermore, studies in PWB often use measurements of EI to determine well-being, as is the case in a study conducted by Makola and Van den Berg (2009), where they looked at the construct of meaning in life and its relationship to PWB. In another example, Visser and Routledge (2007) investigated substance abuse and the relationship with PWB. Once again, an EI measurement was used to measure PWB. Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, and Hansenne (2009) maintain that an association between EI and PWB exists. The current research attempts to explore this link further.

Emotional Intelligence

Although EI has been popularised by Goleman (1994), the concept's history extends back to Charles Darwin when he did work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and second adaptation (Bar-on, 2006). The first mention of the construct EI is attributed to Leuner in 1966 (Mavroveli, Petrides, Rieffe, & Bakker, 2007). A doctoral thesis

by Payne in 1985 was entitled, *A Study of Emotion: Developing EI*. Different theories exploring the construct of EI began to emerge, the first one being a model by Greenspan (1989), followed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Goleman (1994). Scholars were critical of EI at first since it was developed from within the popular literature, but this criticism prompted scholars to start empirical research on the construct (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004).

According to Goleman (1994), the focuses of society, educators, and psychologists in past decades have been on the intellectual potential of individuals, and this has been the main factor in predicting life success. However, cognitive ability is not the only factor that needs to be considered. It has become clear over the last few years that an individual might have the perceived cognitive abilities to obtain success, but yet can struggle with interpersonal relationships and battle to cope with emotional issues (Goleman, 1994). This and other factors have made it clear that more than just intellect comes into play when evaluating if someone will be successful or not. Thus, the term EI has emerged to consider these and other factors that need to be taken into account (Goleman, 1994). Within the field of EI there exist many different views, which is apparent from the many definitions and models that exist. Currently there are three main models of EI. First is the model used in the current study, called the trait emotional intelligence (TEI) model, as conceptualised by K. V. Petrides. He describes TEI as "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies. Trait emotional self-efficacy is an alternative label for the same construct" (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007, p. 287). Then there is the ability EI model, as conceptualised by Salovey and Mayer, which defines EI as the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. Finally, there is the mixed model that is influenced by two main theorists with two different means of conceptualising EI, namely Reuven Bar-On and Daniel Coleman. Bar-On (2010) defines EI as social competencies and

skills. Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (1999) add to competencies and skills the capacity of self-awareness, management, and social awareness. A debate within the field of EI has now branched into two separate viewpoints differing markedly in regard to their conceptualisation and measurement of emotional skills (Mikolajczak, Luminet, & Menil, 2006). The ability and trait models discussed above represent these viewpoints, while the mixed model is collapsed within the ability EI and TEI.

On the one hand the ability model is defined as "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Salovey & Caruso, 2004, p. 197). According to Nelis et al. (2009) the ability viewpoint is measured with intelligence-like tests. On the other hand, according to Petrides and Furnham (2006), the construct of EI is essentially about how people process, utilise, and attend to affect-laden information in different ways within the context of intrapersonal and interpersonal settings. The trait viewpoint is evaluated with personality-like questionnaires. It is clear from the differences in definitions and measures that TEI, or *emotional self-efficacy*, is seen as a self-perceived trait that is measured with self–report questionnaires, while ability EI, or *cognitive–emotional ability,* is seen as actual emotional abilities measured with maximum-performance tests (Nelis et al., 2009). Within the ability EI approach, apprehensions arise surrounding the absence of impartial standards for determining what constitutes a correct response to the different items in the measurement, the low internal reliabilities, indistinct factor structures of the tests, and the scarcity of validity proof in backing up the construct. Concerns within the TEI approach focus primarily on the sampling area of TEI, the sequential stability, and the relationship between TEI and personality measurements (Nelis et al., 2009).

According to Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham (2004), the incremental validity of TEI and its relevance have been proven in many settings. The current study is concerned with the dispositions the disadvantaged youth might have in regard to EI and modifying these dispositions. Thus, TEI is the chosen model to use within this study since TEI gives us an indication of how EI translates into the daily lives of individuals. Put simply, the emphasis is not on what people know or can do, but on what they actually do in an emotional situation (Nelis et al., 2009).

Trait emotional intelligence model

The TEI model has four factors of broad relevance, namely, well-being, self-control, emotionality and sociability. Well-being is based on past achievements and future expectations. Low levels of well-being lead to disappointment with life at present. The well-being factor depends largely on the other three factors, and includes facets of optimism, happiness, and self-esteem (Petrides, 2009). Individuals with a high level of self-control are able to deal with urges and desires in a healthy way, without giving in to them. Individuals with a low level of self-control are often impulsive and do not handle stressful situations well. They are also prone to inflexibility. Facets that are included in self-control are emotional regulation, impulsiveness, and stress management (Petrides, 2009). Individuals with a high level of emotionality are able to develop and maintain meaningful relationships with important people in their lives. They have well-developed emotional–related skills that can be utilised to their advantage. On the other hand individuals with a low level of emotionality find it harder to connect with significant people in their lives, and therefore often do not have meaningful relationships. They find it hard to understand their own internal emotional state and battle to express their feelings, thus facets of emotional expression, empathy, emotional perceptions, and relationships are included in emotionality (Petrides, 2009). The sociability factor is different from the emotionality factor in that it places

emphasis on the social relationships and social influence of the individual. The individual's ability to interact in a multitude of social contexts is the focus, not the individual's personal relationships with family and close friends. Individuals with low levels of sociability are less likely to be comfortable in social settings and feel that they are unable to network and be good negotiators. They can come across as shy since they do not know how to respond in social settings. They also do not believe that they are able to influence others' emotions. Facets that are included in sociability are emotional management, assertiveness, and social awareness (Petrides, 2009).

The TEI model integrates EI ideas in a framework that incorporates 15 facets. Four broad factors encapsulate these facets. Firstly well-being includes optimism, happiness, and self-esteem. Secondly self-control includes emotional regulation, impulsiveness, and stress management. Thirdly emotionality and emotional management includes emotional expression, empathy, emotional perceptions, and relationships. Finally, sociability includes assertiveness and social awareness. Auxiliary facets are self-motivation and adaptability (Petrides, 2009). Table 1 offers a brief description of each facet as high scorers perceived themselves (Pertirdes, 2009).

Table 1

Facets of TEI

Facet	High scorers see themselves as being…
Adaptability	… flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions
Assertiveness	… forthright, frank and willing to stand up for their rights
Emotion perception (self and others)	… clear about their own and others' feelings
Emotion expression	… capable of communicating their feelings to others
Emotion management (others)	… capable of influencing other people's feelings
Emotion regulation	… capable of controlling their emotions.
Impulsiveness (low)	… reflective and less likely to give in to their urges
Relationships	… capable of having fulfilling relationships
Self-esteem	… successful and self-confident
Self-motivation	… driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity
Social awareness	… accomplished networkers with excellent social skills
Stress management	… capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress
Trait empathy	… capable of taking someone else's perspective
Trait happiness	… cheerful and happy about their lives
Trait optimism	… confident and likely to " look on the bright side" of life

Trait emotional intelligence research

Many scholars have turned to TEI to conduct research on topics like well-being, as well as using TEI as a predictor for future success. Findings show a positive association between TEI and life satisfaction, social networking, and the quality of the network (Austin, Salofske, & Egan, 2005). Scholastic achievements, effects that are particularly relevant to vulnerable or disadvantaged groups, have also been investigated (Petrides et al., 2004), as well as adaptive coping styles (Mavroveli et al., 2007). TEI has a negative relationship with alexithymia and alcohol consumption (Austin et al., 2005) and is also negatively related to depressive thoughts and somatic complaints (Mavroveli et al., 2007).

Frederickson (1998) stated that the well-being factor of TEI might be specifically applicable in the development process, since positive emotions are beneficial to the development of the physical, intellectual, and social abilities that are essential for effective coping in daily life. In research conducted in South Africa by Hardy (2005) it was found that a sense of coherence and TEI were significantly correlated. The association between health-related behaviours in adults and sense of coherence and TEI was tested, and it was found that individuals with higher scores on TEI display more health-related behaviour than individuals with lower scores for TEI (Hardy, 2005). Nelis et al. (2009) conducted research to determine whether TEI could be increased. Participants of the experimental group received EI training (four group training sessions of two and a half hours each) while the control group participants were not exposed to the training. Results indicated a significant increase in emotion identification and emotion management abilities in the training group. Follow-up measures after 6 months revealed that these changes were enduring. No significant change was observed in the control group. These findings propose that EI can be improved and thus open new treatment avenues (Nelis et al., 2009). The current study is an attempt to continue

along this line of research. The scarcity in the research regarding disadvantaged youth and TEI adds to the need for the current study.

Emotional intelligence training

With the popularity of EI growing, there has been an increase in training programmes and interventions that aim to enhance EI in recent years (Nelis et al. 2009). According to McEnrue, Groves, and Shen (2010), the area of EI training does not have a good reputation due to the fact that current programmes and interventions lack empirical evidence in regard to the effectiveness of the training, and training content doesn't always match the aim of the training. Many different means and approaches to training have been explored. These training strategies are varied in method as well as time duration.

Studies that have been done over a short period of time, namely between a day and a month, include a study conducted by Meyer, Fletcher, and Parker (2004), in which they used a one-day ropes challenge course to enhance intra- and interpersonal development within their emotional training. Mausolff, Bringman, Martinez, and Paggi (2006) used a humanistic-experiential approach in their 13.5 hours of training that included the following activities: role play, discussions about normal self-expression, making a list of irrational assumptions, keeping a written record of thoughts and discussing them, identifying and naming feeling words, active listening exercises, and cooling down tactics to obtain distance. Murray, Jordan, and Hall-Thompson (2005) made use of interpersonal skills training to enhance EI in a one-day course with a follow-up two weeks later lasting less than a day. In research conducted by Sala (2002), training was conducted in three workshops over five days, during which participants were provided with an introduction to EI. Their EI competencies were self-assessed and then the participants were given opportunities to work on emotionally intelligent behaviours. Training conducted over a month or longer included research reported by Dulewicz and Higgs (2004), where instruction took place over a four-

week period, one day per week. The training focused on developing self-awareness, regulating emotions, recognising emotions in others, detachment, and understanding the way our own behaviours impact others. The training included exercises, lectures, role-plays, keeping diaries, one-on-one feedback, videos, and discussions. Moriarity and Buchley (2003) conducted a study with students in which they worked in teams over the duration of a semester and were given tasks to complete. They attended short lectures about topics like conflict resolution and communication, and were then asked to do group work. In research conducted by Latif (2004), training included the improvement of personal, group, and interpersonal skills of the participants. The participants' EI training included 20 self-assessment exercises, writing in a journal and writing a paper based on the journal, engaging in debates, developing a plan to improve their strengths and work on weaknesses.

In considering all the above-mentioned strategies the researcher integrated information from this previous research and created an intervention using mini-lectures, role-plays, discussions, and diary-keeping. The intervention was conducted in two sessions of four hours, and occurred a week apart. The current study made use of an adapted format suggested by Nelis et al. (2009), based on EI theory. The intervention aimed to equip the participants with the ability to apply EI in their daily lives based on theoretical knowledge acquired during the workshop. In the research conducted by Nelis et al. (2009) the ability approach to increase TEI was utilised. The results showed an increase that persisted six months after the completion of the intervention, providing evidence that TEI is open to adaptation, and that an intervention can potentially increase TEI, which is another reason why this strategy was chosen.

Conclusion

Seligman (2008) asked whether it is worth focussing on well-being, happiness, and mental health in a world with so much suffering. He stated that it might be argued that this should only become a priority after things like AIDS, Alzheimer's and suicide are no longer problems in our society. According to Seligman (2008), there are two reasons why it is necessary to focus on well-being, namely, well-being is desired even above the mere relief of suffering, and well-being seems to be one of the best shields against mental disorders. The sample included in the current study was disadvantaged youth that may be considered a group that struggle with suffering in daily life. Maton (2008) states, "In the positive youth development domain, empowered youth can be expected to be more resilient in the face of environmental adversity, leading to enhanced PWB, and positive engagement in daily life" (p. 14). The current study focuses on enhancing PWB for disadvantaged youth through EI training and calls for further investigation into the enhancement of PWB for disadvantaged youth in South Africa. According to Bar-On (2010), future research should be conducted to examine the influence of EI on human performance, happiness, well-being, and the quest for a more meaningful life. According to Rother (2006), the benefits of programmes or interventions that target the most disadvantaged segment of society are often underestimated. In research by Ngcobo (2009), youth were interviewed and they stressed the need for programmes or interventions that promote PWB among this population. According to Ryff (2003), there is a great need to develop interventions that will promote experiences that enhance optimism, being effective, relating closely to others, being purposeful, being able to self-regulate, and being able to prevail in adverse life situations. According to L.Theron and A.Theron (2010), an emphasis on positive features and strengths in human functioning rather than on deficits has not yet translated into resources in regard to education and therapeutic means within the South African context. It could be argued that the time has now come to

place emphasis on the enhancement of positive functioning and PWB of the disadvantaged youth in South Africa. According to Wissing et al. (2006), interventions that aim to enhance PWB should take the context into account. The current research, with its interest in the effect of an EI workshop on PWB of disadvantaged youth in the South African context, is thus highly relevant.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Aim

The aim of the study was to determine whether emotional intelligence (EI) training could bring about an increase in psychological well-being (PWB) and trait emotional intelligence (TEI) for disadvantaged youth in South Africa. Improvements in PWB lead to higher levels of self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth that leads to overall positive functioning. Given this, the present study aimed to add to the body of knowledge that exists in promoting PWB for disadvantaged youth, and thus amplify the necessity for programmes that do so. EI as a construct that could enhance PWB was also investigated, thus adding to the literature and research that supports the notion that EI has a role to play within the field of positive psychology, of which PWB is a part. The study made use of a true experimental, pre-test - post-test design, within which the effect of emotional intelligence training on PWB was investigated.

Research Questions

- Does participation in an EI workshop improve PWB for disadvantaged youth?
- Does participation in an EI workshop improve TEI for disadvantaged youth?
- Is there a relationship between TEI and PWB?

Sample and sampling

The sample for the present study was drawn from the youth department of Oasis. Oasis South Africa is a non-government organisation (NGO) focussed on community development. Oasis is based in the community of Cosmo City. Cosmo City, north of Johannesburg, is a R267 million initiative funded by the private sector and government. The majority of Cosmo City residents have been relocated from informal settlements and the general level of education is low. Socio-economic levels are low because of high

unemployment, high taxi fares, and low training and academic qualifications. Approximately 40% of the population is unemployed, with a large percentage of that being youth between the ages of 18 to 27 (Oasis, 2010). The sample consisted of youth that were part of the "bridge the gap" programme within Oasis. The "bridge the gap" programme runs over a six month period with the aim to equip the youth with life skills to make them more employable. The sample size consisted of 63 individuals, of which 32 participants were randomly assigned to the experimental group and 31 participants were randomly assigned to the control group. The ages of participants in the experimental and control groups ranged from 18 to 27, and both males and females were included in the study. All participants fell within the same socio-economic class and all participants were literate. The participants were informed that taking part in the study was completely voluntary and that they would not be penalised in any way if they chose not to take part. The research was exploratory and the researcher acknowledges that a bigger sample size would have been desirable, however the sample size was deemed sufficient, since a control group was included in the study.

Non-probability sampling, namely convenience sampling, was utilised due to the reliance on volunteers in the current study. According to Bordens and Abbot (2011), the ideal of having a random sample is rarely obtainable within psychological research. Purposive sampling elements were also utilised in the current study. According to Cosby (2009), purposive sampling entails that you acquire a sample of people that meet certain pre-set criteria. In the case of the present study, the pre-set or predetermined criteria were disadvantaged youth that, for the current study, were between the ages of 18 and 27, as well as certain socio–economic criteria. According to Cozby (2009), the advantage of using this method of sampling is that it allows the researcher to include the individuals that the researcher is interested in studying. A limitation of the method is that results might introduce bias into the sample, and that researchers would be limited in their ability to generalise data

of the sample to the extended population. The researcher acknowledges these limitations, but given the nature of the study, this was unavoidable. The use of an experimental method should still allow for improvements to be noted.

Instruments

The study made use of three instruments: a brief self-developed biographical questionnaire, the Ryff Psychological Well-Being scale (PWBS) and the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire - Short Form (TEIQue-SF).

Biographical Questionnaire

The biographical questionnaire (refer to Appendix A) gathered demographic information for the purpose of describing the sample. Information requested included age, gender, race, income, language, and highest qualification level. It was made clear in the initial approach, the participant information sheet, and the biographical questionnaire itself, that the participation in the study would be completely voluntary.

Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale

The Ryff PWBS (refer to Appendix B) is a self-report questionnaire consisting of 84 items. The scale makes use of a 6-point-Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6). It is divided into six subscales: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance. Each subscale has 14 items. It is possible to determine the score for each of the subscales as well as determining the overall PWB of an individual (Ryff, 1989b). Responses to negatively scored items (-) were reversed in the final scoring procedures so that high scores indicate high self-ratings on the dimension that were assessed. The raw scores were used in the analysis of the data. A total mark can be calculated to determine the general level of well-being. The higher the mark the greater the person’s psychological well-being.

The reliability of the subscales is good, with Cronbach alpha's ranging from 0.77 to 0.90 (Van Dierendonck, 2004). A Cronbach alpha of 0.600 is normally accepted to indicate the validity and reliability of a measuring instrument. According to Potgieter (2004), an alpha-coefficient of 0.9 was found in a study with South African adults. Research by Clarke, Marshall, Ryff, and Wheaton (2001) also confirmed that factor analyses provided support for the 6-factor model, as conceptualised by Ryff. According to Wissing (2006), the Ryff Psychological Well-being scale shows a lot of promise within the complex South Africa context. According to Wissing et.al (2006), in the South African setting, where social well-being could be argued to be more important in the comparative collectivist cultural context than the usual individualist ideas of well-being, such as self-actualisation, the application of the PWBS of Ryff could be well utilised.

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire – Short Form (TEIQue-SF)

The TEI questionnaire –short form (TEIQue-SF) (refer to Appendix C) is a 30-item questionnaire designed to measure global TEI. It is based on the long form of the TEIQue (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). Two items from each of the 15 subscales of the TEIQue were selected for inclusion, based primarily on their correlations with the corresponding total subscale scores. This procedure was followed in order to ensure adequate internal consistencies and broad coverage of the sampling domain of the construct. Item responses are given on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) completely disagree to (7) completely agree. The TEIQue has been constructed with the aim of providing comprehensive coverage of the TEI domain (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Certain items are reversed scored, and then all responses are added up to gain an overall score for TEI.

In two studies, Cooper and Petrides (2010) examined the psychometric properties of the TEIQue–SF (Petrides, 2009) using item response theory (IRT). Study 1 (N = 1,119, 455 men) indicated that most items had good discrimination and threshold parameters and high

item information values. At the global level, the TEIQue–SF showed very good precision across most of the latent trait range. Study 2 (N = 866, 432 men) also used Item Response Theory (IRT) techniques in a new sample based on the latest version of the TEIQue–SF (version 1.50). Results replicated Study 1, with the measurement tool showing good psychometric properties at the item and global level. These 2 studies recommend that the TEIQue-SF can be suggested when a prompt assessment of TEI is necessary (Cooper & Petrides, 2010). Findings in several studies confirmed the discriminant validity of TEI and personality (Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003). Within the South African context the TEIQue-SF has been used with success, and the Cronbach Alpha was reported to be 0.90 (Hardy, 2005).

Intervention

EI workshops

The EI workshop (refer to Appendix D) was done in two sessions that took four hours each and was held a week apart from each other. The participants were given a booklet after the conclusion of the first session and asked to keep a diary where they incorporate what they had learnt in the first session. The participants were also encouraged to continue using the diary after the last session so as to incorporate what they had learnt within their daily lives. It is important to note that the diaries were not used as a data source but it was part of the intervention itself.

The EI workshops format was adapted from the work done by Nelis et al. (2009) and is based on Mayer and Salovey's four-branch model (1997): (1) perception, appraisal, and expression of emotion; (2) emotional facilitation of thinking; (3) understanding and analysing emotions; (4) reflective regulation of emotion. During the programme, techniques to enhance these skills, especially emotional regulation (intrapersonal and interpersonal) and emotional understanding were discussed. The content of the workshop included short lectures, role-

plays, group discussions, two-person work, and relaxation exercises. The participants were also given a diary in which they were encouraged to report daily on their emotional experience.

Procedure

After ethical clearance was obtained from the University Ethics board (refer to Appendix E) the research began. The researcher obtained written permission from the organisation to conduct the research (refer to Appendix F). The organisation from which the sample was obtained, determined a potential timeline for when the research would be conducted. It was decided that two half days would be the most suitable for the proposed intervention to take place.

The researcher approached the potential participants, during their class time at the NGO, before the start of the intervention so as to explain what the goal of the research was as well as to clarify that taking part in the research was completely voluntary. The youth that chose to participate in the research were invited to return on the scheduled times to take part in the research. The participants were randomly assigned to the experimental group or the control group by means of a table of random numbers. The participants were given a questionnaire pack that contained the participant information sheet, the biographical questionnaire, the PWBS and the TEIQue-SF. Participants were informed that the questionnaires would take approximately one hour to complete. Completing the questionnaire pack took place a day prior to the first session of the intervention. Even though all participants were literate the interpreter that was on site at the NGO was available during the research to clarify anything if necessary.

Each participant received a number in order to compare pre- and post-test results. A sheet containing the number that had been allocated to the specific participant was given to

the co-ordinator of the NGO to keep safe in case a participant could not remember his or her number. The researcher did not have access to this list to ensure confidentiality.

The participants that were allocated to the experimental group returned on the following day to take part in the intervention. The intervention took place in two sessions each session was four hours adding up to eight hours in total. Participants were given blank diaries and were requested to keep a diary during the following days of how they incorporated what they had learnt during the first session. The next formal session took place one week later at the same time. After the final session the participants were encouraged to continue using the diary to practice what they had learnt.

One month after the intervention concluded, all participants (experimental group and control group) were asked to return to complete the post-test data. Each participant was again given a questionnaire pack containing the PWBS and the TEIQue-SF. Participants were asked to indicate their assigned number on the questionnaires so as to compare pre- and post-test scores. After data capturing had been finalised, all data was placed in a container and will be kept for five years. The control group participants were also given the opportunity to attend the same EI workshop after the data had been captured.

The participants were thanked for their participation in the research. After the research report had been completed the NGO was given a copy for their information. Participants were able to access the report through the NGO if they chose to do so.

Research design

A true experimental, pre-test post-test control group design was utilised to explore whether an EI workshop would enhance PWB of disadvantaged youth in the South African context. The control and experimental groups were randomly assigned. According to Cozby (2009) this design enables the researcher to determine whether the experimental group and control group are equivalent at the beginning of the experiment. The independent variable

was the participation in the EI workshop, the dependent variables were PWB as measured by Ryff's PWBS and TEI as measured with the TEIQue-SF. This design incorporated an experimental group and control group. Both groups were measured before and after the intervention although the control group did not participate in the EI workshop. The researcher was able to compare the pre-test (time 1) and post-test (time 2) to see if the EI workshop did enhance PWB and increase TEI.

Data analysis

The first consideration was to establish if the data met the assumptions for parametric analysis. The four assumptions of parametric analysis are: random independent sampling, interval scale of measure for the dependent variable, dependent variable is normally distributed and lastly if the between-groups variance are homogeneous (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2010). The current study made use of non-probability sampling namely convenience and purposive sampling, thus random independent sampling was not possible. According to Bordens and Abbott (2011) it is often the case in social sciences, but then the concession is made that random sampling will be assumed.

Once data had been collected the homogeneity and normality of the variance was evaluated using Levene's tests and distribution analysis. The interval scale of measure was similarly assumed due to the distribution of the variables that were found to be normal (Borgatta & Bohrnstedt, 1980; Giato, 1980). It was thus possible to conduct parametric analysis.

The group participation in the EI workshop was the independent variable (IV) and PWB and EI were the dependent variables (DV). To investigate whether the experimental group and control group differed at the beginning of the study it was necessary to conduct independent sample t-tests. This was done for each subscale to ensure the equivalence of the groups.

To evaluate if the EI workshop (the intervention) caused an increase in PWB and EI, a matched-pairs t-test for PWB and EI for each group was conducted. This showed whether an increase had occurred over the course of the study in the experimental group and not in the control group. To determine whether the experimental and control group show differences in PWB and EI at the end of the study a two-independent sample t-test was conducted.

The relationship between EI and PWB was assessed using Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient. This was done separately for the data collected at the beginning and at the end of the study.

Ethical concerns

The research was only conducted once the ethical clearance certificate had been obtained from the ethics committee of the University of the Witwatersrand (refer to Appendix E). A permission letter had been obtained from the NGO where the research was conducted (refer to Appendix F). Each participant was given an information letter with information about the research: the purpose of the research, the fact that partaking in the research was voluntary and that all information would be kept confidential and that the anonymity of the participants would be honoured (refer to Appendix G). Attached to the information sheet was a participant consent form (refer to Appendix H), which the participating individuals signed and handed back to the researcher. To make sure of confidentiality each participant was assigned a number and the sheet with this information was kept safe by a third party so that the researcher did not have access to this information. The sheet was necessary in case participants did not remember their assigned numbers so as to compare pre-and post-tests results. An interpreter was present to clarify any questions the participants might have had during the research, since English was not the first language of all the participants all participants were however literate in English as second language. The interpreter was on site and works for the organisation.

The researcher was present when both groups completed the measurement tools. The researcher collected the answer sheets after they had been placed in a sealed box. The experimental group took part in the EI workshop that was conducted over 2 sessions. The researcher presented the intervention to the experimental group and after the research had been concluded the same workshop was offered to the control group participants. The researcher did not foresee any potential harm to the participants due to the research, as the study did not include any sensitive material.

Chapter 4: Results

This chapter reports on the descriptive statistics including the demographic information of the sample, the reliability of the scales utilised in the study and analysis of the scale distribution. The inferential statistics results section will include answering the research questions by presenting the results of the independent t-tests, matched pairs t-tests and the significance (or not) of the Pearson's product correlations.

Descriptive Statistics

Demographic information of the sample

The sample consisted of 63 black disadvantaged youth. The sample was further divided into two groups: 32 participants in the experimental group and 31 participants in the control group. As mentioned in chapter 3 the experimental group took part in the intervention and the control group did not. None of the participants had an income of more that R1500 per month. All participants had completed grade 12. None of the participants were married. The gender distribution of the group is given in Table 2.

Table 2

Gender distribution for Experimental group and Control group

	Gender distribution		
	Experimental group	Control group	Total
Male	12	9	21
Female	20	22	42
Total	32	31	63

The average age of the participants are given in Table 3, the mean, standard deviation and range are also included.

Table 3

Age distribution for Experimental group and Control group

Groups	Frequency (n)	Minimum age	Maximum age	Mean age	Std. Dev.
Experimental	32	18	26	21.1	2.35
Control	31	19	27	21.9	1.89

Although the experimental group had one more participant than the control group, the groups were similar with regard to age and gender splits. The minimum and maximum age and the average age (mean) of the participants for both the experimental and the control groups were very similar.

The PWB and TEI Means and Standard Deviations summary of the results for time 1are presented in table 4 and the results for time 2 are presented in table 5.

PWB and TEI Means and Standard Deviations Summary

Table 4

Summary Statistics for PWB subscales (mean item scores), PWB total and TEI total for the experimental group and control group at time 1

	Experimental group					Control group				
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	N
Positive Relationships	4.080	0.651	2.714	5.214	32	4.221	0.522	3.214	5.500	31
Autonomy	3.896	0.620	2.642	5.285	32	3.918	0.605	2.714	5.500	31
Environmental Mastery	4.318	0.590	3.153	5.615	32	4.441	0.638	2.769	5.583	31
Personal Growth	4.921	0.554	3.769	6.000	32	4.862	0.494	3.714	5.714	31
Purpose in Life	4.606	0.535	3.285	5.500	32	4.601	0.623	3.071	5.857	31
Self Acceptance	4.042	0.508	2.769	5.071	32	4.090	0.566	3.142	5.500	31
PWB total	4.311	0.413	3.415	4.870	32	4.356	0.426	3.687	5.282	31
TEI total	4.711	0.619	3.400	5.666	32	4.668	0.651	3.344	5.724	31

Table 5

Summary Statistics for PWB subscales (mean item scores), PWB total and TEI total for the experimental group and control group at time 2

	Experimental group					Control group				
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	N
Positive Relationships	4.544	0.551	3.142	5.642	32	4.225	0.491	3.285	5.571	31
Autonomy	4.021	0.591	2.928	5.428	32	3.970	0.613	2.785	5.357	31
Environmental Mastery	4.714	0.611	3.461	5.769	32	4.346	0.622	3.166	5.583	31
Personal Growth	4.820	0.607	3.461	5.857	32	4.725	0.692	2.642	5.785	31
Purpose in Life	4.705	0.620	3.307	5.769	32	4.584	0.596	3.000	5.642	31
Self Acceptance	4.289	0.561	3.357	5.857	32	4.099	0.590	3.071	5.326	31
PWB total	4.516	0.442	3.524	5.287	32	4.325	0.478	3.373	5.326	31
TEI total	4.898	0.524	3.827	5.800	32	4.666	0.622	3.366	6.100	31

Reliability

In order to assess the reliability of the measurement instruments used in the study the Cronbach's alpha and test-retest reliability coefficients were calculated. The results of the internal consistency estimates are provided in Table 6.

Table 6

Cronbach's alpha for the PWB subscales, the PWB total and TEI total for time 1 and time 2

	Time 1	Time 2
Positive Relationships	0.601	0.592
Autonomy	0.609	0.657
Environmental Mastery	0.584	0.653
Personal Growth	0.679	0.782
Purpose in Life	0.592	0.637
Self Acceptance	0.530	0.635
PWB total	0.881	0.909
TEI – Total	0.729	0.742

The results indicate that the Cronbach's alpha was between 0.53 and 0.78. This was found to be sufficient. A debate seems to exist as to what constitutes an acceptable Cronbach's alpha score. According to Nunnally (1978) a Cronbach's alpha of 0.500 is acceptable. In a later work by the author this statement was revised to state that a Cronbach's alpha of 0.700 is normally accepted to indicate the consistency and reliability of a measuring instrument (Nunnally& Bernstein, 1994). Helmstadter (1964) stated that a Cronbach's alpha of 0.500 is acceptable. According to Tull and Hawkins (1993) and Malhotra (1993) a Cronbach's alpha of 0.600 is acceptable, while Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black (1998) indicated that a reliability level between 0.600 and 0.700 is acceptable. It is generally argued that a Cronbach alpha value below 0.600 is unacceptable (Malhotra & Biks, 1998). It was thus decided in the present research study that a benchmark of 0.600 Cronbach's alpha would

be considered adequate although the researcher admits that Cronbach's alpha values above 0.700 would have been ideal. Both the PWB total and the TEI total had Cronbach's alpha values of 0.700. More emphasis is focused on the totals of the scales than on the subscales. The subscales that were below 0.600 at time 1 were Environmental Mastery, Purpose in Life and Self Acceptance. The subscale that was below 0.600 at time 2 was Positive Relationships. The rest of the subscales of PWB as well as the PWB total and the TEI total were all above the 0.600 cut-off point for both time 1 and time 2. Important considerations to take into account would be the fact that all participants are literate but English is not their first language. For this reason an interpreter was made available to the participants but it was up to the participants to ask for assistance. Furthermore, the size of the sample could have influenced the outcome of the Cronbach's alphas. Another possibility for the Cronbach's alpha values not being higher could be due to the disadvantaged youth respondents used in this study. The standardised measuring instrument (Ryff PWBS) used was not validated with disadvantaged youth as a sample but was done on a sample of young adults, middle-aged adults and older adults. The education levels of those participants were high with the majority of participants having four years college education (Ryff, 1989b). Even though the literature indicated the successful use of the scale across many cultures the exact effect of using the scale with a disadvantaged youth population group could not be known before the implementation of the scale. Due to the fact that the majority of the subscales as well as the PWB total and the TEI total were above the 0.600 benchmark, the reliability and consistency of the measuring instruments were deemed acceptable for the present research study. The subscales with Cronbach's alpha values below 0.600 were interpreted with caution and mentioned in the presentation of the analysis of the results.

To investigate the reliability, further test-retest reliability was calculated between time 1 and time 2 for the six subscales of PWB, the PBW total and TEI total for the control group.

The results from the control group were used since it was not expected that the control group would show a difference between time 1 and time 2 whereas a difference between time 1 and time 2 for the experimental group was expected. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Test-retest reliability for the Control group between time 1 and time 2

	r
Positive Relationships	0.59598
Autonomy	0.82499
Environmental Mastery	0.81682
Personal Growth	0.57523
Purpose in Life	0.83819
Self Acceptance	0.82895
PWB total	0.86747
TEI - Total	0.81002

The results indicated that significant positive relationships were found between time 1 and time 2 for all the subscales as well as the PWB total and the TEI total. These results confirmed the reliability of the measurement instruments used in the research. The lowest correlation was indicated for Positive Relationship and Personal Growth. As mentioned earlier Positive Relationship had a Cronbach alpha value of below 0.600 for time 2 and just above 0.600 for time 1.This could have affected the correlation between time 1 and time 2 for this subscale. More important though would be that the low Cronbach alpha value for this particular subscale as well as the low test-retest correlation indicated that this particular subscale's reliability could be questionable. Furthermore Personal Growth had a low correlation between time 1 and time 2, but this subscale did have an acceptable Cronbach alpha of above 0.600 for time 1 and above 0.700 for time 2.

Based on the generally good Cronbach's alpha values as well as the high test-retest correlations, especially at a total level, the reliability of the measuring instruments were

deemed acceptable for the present analysis. However, caution needs to be taken in the interpretations of the subscales Positive Relationships (due to the Cronbach alpha value below 0.600 and the lower test-retest correlation) and Personal Growth (due to the lower test-retest correlation).

Parametric assumptions

To establish if the data met the assumptions for parametric analysis the four assumptions of parametric analysis were investigated. The assumptions of parametric analysis are random independent sampling, dependant variable measured on the interval scale, dependent variable is normally distributed and lastly homogeneity of group variance (Gravetter & Wallnau. 2010). The current study made use of non-probability sampling namely convenience and purposive sampling, thus random independent sampling was not possible. According to Bordens and Abbott (2011) it is often the case in social sciences, thus the concession is made that random sampling will be assumed.

Once data had been collected the homogeneity and normality of the variance was evaluated using Levene's tests and distribution analysis. Levene's test result indicated no significant differences in variance between the experimental and control groups across any of the dependent variables. Distribution analysis showed roughly normal histograms with the majority of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov values confirming normality (Refer to Appendix I). Thus, homogeneity of variance and normality of the DV's were deemed appropriate. According to Borgatta & Bohrnstedt (1980) and Giato (1980) if a variable is normally distributed then interval scale of measure can be assumed. In the present research study it was therefore possible to conduct parametric analyses.

Inferential statistics

Due to the fact that the present research study utilised an experimental design, the assumption could be made that the experimental group and control group should be

comparable at the beginning of the research study. Thus, firstly it was necessary to determine if this was indeed the case. If the intervention was successful then there should be a difference between the two groups at the conclusion of the research study. Furthermore we would expect to see significant change in the experimental group over time but not in the control group.

In order to assess whether or not the experimental and control groups were equivalent at the start of the study, a set of independent sample t-tests were used to test for possible differences between the experimental group and control group. The scales as Dependent Variable's (DV) and the experimental/control groups as Independent Variable's (IV) were used. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8

Independent sample t-test for Experimental group and Control group for PWB subscales (mean item scores), PWB total and TEI total at time 1

	Experimental group		Control group			
	Mean	Std.dev	Mean	Std.dev.	t	p
Positive relationships	4.0809	0.6514	4.2215	0.5229	0.94	0.3493
Autonomy	3.8962	0.6207	3.9185	0.6054	0.14	0.8860
Environmental Mastery	4.3186	0.5903	4.4417	0.6389	0.79	0.4298
Personal Growth	4.9212	0.5543	4.8625	0.4948	-0.44	0.6594
Purpose in Life	4.6067	0.5358	4.6014	0.6237	-0.04	0.9712
Self Acceptance	4.0426	0.5088	4.0907	0.5670	0.360	0.7237
PWB total	4.3110	0.4135	4.3560	0.4261	0.430	0.6718
TEI total	4.7113	0.6192	4.6684	0.6511	-0.270	0.7896

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$,*** $p<0.001$

No statistically significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups on any of the variables. It could thus be assumed that the groups were equivalent or comparable before the intervention took place.

Research Question 1(Does participation in an EI workshop improve PWB for disadvantaged youth?).

To establish whether the participation in an EI workshop improves PWB for disadvantaged youth, matched pairs t-tests were conducted for both groups. Furthermore an independent sample t-test was also conducted to test whether the groups differed significantly after the intervention. The results of the matched pairs t-test for the six subscales of PWB and the PWB total for the experimental group is presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Matched pairs t-test for the six subscales of PWB (mean item scores) and the PWB total for the experimental group.

		Experimental group	(d=mean at time 2 – mean at time 1)	
	Mean difference	Std.dev.	t	p
Positive relationships	0.4636	0.5381	4.87	<0.0001***
Autonomy	0.1254	0.4885	1.45	0.1565
Environmental Mastery	0.3964	0.6540	3.43	0.0017***
Personal growth	-0.1004	0.5349	-1.06	0.2964
Purpose in Life	0.0989	0.5000	1.12	0.2718
Self Acceptance	0.2466	0.4373	3.19	0.0032**
PWB total	0.2051	0.3404	3.41	0.0018***

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01,*** p<0.001

The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference for the total of the PWB for the experimental group. Thus indicating that the participation in an EI workshop improves the PWB of disadvantaged youth. Furthermore statistically significant differences were shown for the following subscales of PWB: Positive Relationships, Environmental Mastery and Self Acceptance. Important to note is that these were the subscales that had Cronbach's alpha values below 0.600 thus, these scales had to be interpreted with caution. . It

is important to note that the total PWB indicated a statistically significant difference and the total is seen as the most important gauge of improvement.

To investigate whether there was a statistically significant difference between time 1 and time 2 for the control group with regard to the PWB subscales and the PWB total a matched pairs t-test was conducted. The results for these tests are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Matched pairs t-test for the six subscales of PWB (mean item scores) and the PWB total for the control group

		Control group	(d=mean at time 2 – mean at time 1)	
	Mean difference	Std.dev.	t	p
Positive relationships	0.00428	0.4566	0.05	0.9587
Autonomy	0.0516	0.3605	0.80	0.4319
Environmental Mastery	-0.0949	0.3819	-1.38	0.1767
Personal growth	-0.1367	0.5748	-1.32	0.1956
Purpose in Life	-0.0168	0.3481	-0.27	0.7895
Self Acceptance	0.00922	0.3392	0.15	0.8808
PWB total	-0.0306	0.2384	-0.71	0.4810

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$,*** $p<0.001$

The results indicated that no statistically significant change over time was found in the overall PWB score of the control group. There were also no statistically significant differences between the average score at time 1 and time 2 in any of the subscales.

Based on the above-mentioned results there was a significant change in the experimental group but not in the control group. Thus the PWB of the experimental group did improve as a result of the intervention.

In order to compare the groups after the intervention had taken place, independent sample t-tests were conducted for the experimental group and control group for PWB subscales and PWB total scores at time 2. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Independent sample t-tests for Experimental group and Control group for PWB subscales (mean item scores), PWB total and TEI total at time 2.

	Experimental group		Control group			
	Mean	Std.dev	Mean	Std.dev.	t	p
Positive relationships	4.5445	0.5515	4.2258	0.4911	-2.42	0.0185*
Autonomy	4.0216	0.5912	3.9700	0.6130	-0.34	0.7350
Environmental Mastery	4.7149	0.6113	4.3468	0.6220	-2.37	0.0210*
Personal Growth	4.8207	0.6078	4.7258	0.6927	-0.58	0.5649
Purpose in Life	4.7056	0.6206	4.5845	0.5968	-0.79	0.4333
Self Acceptance	4.2891	0.5619	4.1000	0.5905	-1.30	0.1975
PWB total	4.5161	0.4421	4.3255	0.4787	-1.64	0.1056

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$,*** $p<0.001$

Statistically significant differences were shown for Positive Relationships and Environmental Mastery, once again it is necessary to take into account that these subscales had Cronbach's alpha values below 0.600. Due to the experimental design of the study it would be possible to deduce that these differences are due to the participation of the experimental group in the intervention, yet due to the questionable reliability of these particular subscales these results have to be interpreted with caution. While the experimental group did improve significantly over the time period and the control group did not, this change was not enough to cause a significant difference between the groups at time 2 specifically at a total level.

Research Question 2 (Does the participation in an EI workshop improve TEI for disadvantaged youth?)

This analysis answers whether the participation in an EI workshop improves TEI for disadvantaged youth. To answer this research question it was necessary to investigate if any difference had occurred due to the intervention. An independent sample t-test was conducted to establish if the experimental group and control group were equivalent at the beginning of the study for TEI total. The results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Independent sample t-test for Experimental group and control group for the TEI total at time 1

	Experimental group		Control group			
	Mean	Std.dev.	Mean	Std.dev	t	p
TEI total	4.7113	0.6192	4.6684	0.6511	-0.27	0.7896

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01,*** p<0.001

The results indicated that there were no statistically significant difference between the experimental group and the control group at the beginning of the study indicating group equivalency. To establish whether the intervention had an effect that led to a significant difference between the groups with respect to the TEI score at time 2 another independent sample t-test was done. The results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Independent sample t-test for Experimental group and control group for the TEI total at time 2

	Experimental group		Control group			
	Mean	Std.dev.	Mean	Std.dev	t	p
TEI total	4.8981	0.524	4.6667	0.6329	-1.58	0.1187

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01,*** p<0.001

The results indicated that there were no statistically significant difference between the experimental group and the control group for TEI. There is therefore insufficient evidence to conclude that the intervention will yield consistently good results if applied in the broader population of disadvantaged youth.

To further determine if the participation in an EI workshop improved the TEI for disadvantaged youth a matched pairs t-test was conducted to assess the significance of possible changes over time. This was done for each group separately. The results are presented in Table 14.

Table 14

Matched pairs t-test for the TEI total for the experimental group and the control group

	Experimental group				Control group			
	Mean	Std.dev.	t	p	Mean	Std.dev	t	p
TEI total	0.1868	0.5634	1.88	0.0702	-0.00169	0.3961	-0.02	0.9813

* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$,*** $p<0.001$

The results of the matched pairs t-test indicate that for both the experimental group and the control group there were no statistically significant difference between the TEI total score pre-and post intervention. In summary both the inter- and intra group analysis yielded no significant differences in the TEI total score. There is thus no conclusive evidence for the efficacy of such a workshop to improve TEI for disadvantaged youth.

Research question 3 (Is there a relationship between TEI and PWB?)

This part of the analysis explores the possibility of a relationship between TEI and PWB. Pearson's product moment correlation coefficients were conducted for all paired combinations of the six subscales of PWB, the PWB total and the TEI total. The results for both the Experimental group and Control group at time 1 are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Pearson's product correlation coefficients for the Experimental group and Control group at time 1

		TEI total	Positive rel.	Autonomy	Environmental Mastery	Personal Growth	Purpose in Life	Self Acceptance	PWB Total
TEI Total	r	1							
	p								
Positive relationships	r	0.44103	1						
	p	0.0003***							
Autonomy	r	0.51143	0.3514	1					
	p	<0.0001***	0.0047*						
Environmental Mastery	r	0.62293	0.5434	0.38127	1				
	p	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	0.002**					
Personal growth	r	0.4753	0.1775	0.36906	0.31638	1			
	p	<0.001***	0.1639*	0.0029**	0.0115**				
Purpose in Life	r	0.5816	0.3420	0.46768	0.46593	0.57462	1		
	p	<0.0001***	0.0061**	0.0001***	0.0001***	<0.0001***			
Self Acceptance	r	0.57749	0.4458	0.57002	0.57902	0.27851	0.60637	1	
	p	<0.0001***	0.0003***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	0.0271*	<0.0001***		
PWB total	r	0.73769	0.6659	0.51143	0.62293	0.60974	0.78836	0.79718	1
	p	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01,*** p<0.001

The results indicated that a strong statistically significant relationship exists between TEI total and all the subscales on PWB as well as the PWB total. Furthermore the results indicated that a statistically significant relationship does exist between the PWB total and all the PWB subscales as would be expected since the total is based on the subscales. It is important to emphasise that all the subscales were also strongly correlated pairwise.

To understand the relationship between TEI and PWB further, the results from the control group and the experimental group for time 2 were also examined. The results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Pearson's product correlation coefficients for the Experimental group and Control group at time 2.

		TEI total	Positive rel.	Autonomy	Environmental Mastery	Personal Growth	Purpose in Life	Self Acceptance	PWB Total
TEI Total	r	1							
	p								
Positive relationships	r	0.47483	1						
	p	<0.0001***							
Autonomy	r	0.49014	0.35992	1					
	p	<0.0001***	0.0038**						
Environmental Mastery	r	0.53160	0.58207	0.41059	1				
	p	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	0.0008***					
Personal growth	r	0.52580	0.47123	0.46644	0.43292	1			
	p	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	0.0001***	0.0004***				
Purpose in Life	r	0.57724	0.53863	0.42090	0.56311	0.67070	1		
	p	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	0.0006***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***			
Self Acceptance	r	0.52085	0.49917	0.46643	0.61928	0.62532	0.66496	1	
	p	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***		
PWB total	r	0.67242	0.73245	0.67248	0.77894	0.79565	0.83217	0.83324	1
	p	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	<0.0001***	

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01,*** p<0.001

The results for the experimental group and the control group together at time 2 indicated that a strong relationship exists between TEI and PWB as is seen with the statistically significant correlation coefficients across all the subscales of PWB as well as the PWB total. Furthermore the results also indicated a strong relationship between all subscales of PWB and all subscales with the PWB total.

These results confirm that a relationship does exist between TEI and PWB, as the p-values indicated statistically significant correlations for all the subscales of PWB and the TEI total as well as for the TEI total and the PWB total.

Conclusion

The results indicated that the experimental group and control group were similar with regard to age and gender distribution at the onset of the present research study. An investigation into the reliability of the measurement instruments indicated that certain scales of PWB needed to be used with caution, however the total PWB and the TEI showed reliability. Homogeneity of variance and normality of the DV's were deemed to be sufficient, thus it was possible to conduct parametric analysis.

Equivalence of the experimental and the control groups at the onset of the current research study was confirmed. The experimental design of the current research made it possible to determine if any change had occurred in the experimental group as measured by the post-intervention scores compared to those at the onset. The matched pairs t-test for the six subscales of PWB and the PWB total for the experimental group indicated that a change did occur for the experimental group with regard to PWB. Noteworthy is that an improvement was found specifically at a PWB total level. The matched pairs t-test for the TEI yielded no significant change for TEI in the experimental group. At the conclusion of the current research study the matched pairs t-tests showed that there were no statistically significant differences for either the experimental group or the control group as far as the TEI

total and PWB total were concerned. Differences were noted for the subscales of PWB, namely Positive Relationships and Environmental Mastery, however these subscales had questionable reliability.

The current research study also investigated the possible relationship between PWB and TEI. Correlation analysis indicated that a strong linear relationship does exist between these two constructs. The results will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5:Discussion

Findings

The aim of the study was to determine whether EI training could bring about an increase in PWB and TEI for disadvantaged youth in South Africa. EI as a construct that could enhance PWB was also investigated. Furthermore the current research study also aimed to gain insight into the relationship between PWB and TEI. To investigate these questions the researcher utilised parametric analyses that yielded the following results: The results from a set of two independent sample t-tests indicate that the experimental group and control group were equivalent at the onset of the current research study in regard to PWB and TEI. To investigate if the participation in the EI workshop caused an improvement in PWB for the experimental group, a matched pairs t-test and two independent sample t-tests were conducted. The results indicated that the experimental group did improve significantly over the time period while the control group did not, this change was however not enough to cause a significant change between the groups at time 2, specifically at a total level.

To investigate whether the TEI improved for the experimental group due to their participation in the EI workshop the same analyses were employed that were used to assess PWB improvement. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant difference for either the experimental group or the control group as far as the TEI total was concerned. The two independent sample t-tests and the matched pairs t-test revealed that the TEI for the experimental group as well as the control group remained constant.

To determine if a relationship between TEI and PWB exists, a Pearson's product moment correlation was conducted for time 1 and time 2. The results indicated that a relationship does exist between TEI and PWB, as the p-values indicated statistically significant relationships for all the subscales of PWB and the TEI total as well as for the TEI

total and the PWB total. The results will now be discussed in more detail as far as each research question was concerned.

Research Question 1 (Does participation in an EI workshop improve PWB for disadvantaged youth?)

The results of the PWBS at the onset of the study indicated that the experimental group and the control group were equivalent at the beginning of the present research study in regard to PWB. After the experimental group had been exposed to the intervention and a time lapse of a month had occurred, the groups were re-evaluated and the results indicated that a significant change occurred for the experimental group but not for the control group. The results further indicated that an improvement in the experimental group's PWB was obtained due to the participation of the experimental group in the EI training. These results suggest that it is possible to improve the PWB of disadvantage youth. The results did however reveal that even though the experimental group showed a significant change after the intervention there was no significant change between the experimental group and the control group at the end of the current research study. Due to the design of the current study it was expected that the experimental group and the control group would be different at the end of the present research study. Significant differences were only present in two of the subscales of PWB namely Positive Relationships and Environmental Mastery. Important to note is that the overall PWB did not show a significant change. Thus, although the PWB of the participants in the experimental group did improve, it was not to the extent that the researcher had anticipated. An area of consideration, as to understand the above-mentioned results, is the time frame, the intensity, and the format of the intervention that was used in the current research study.

This study integrated information from previous research and created an intervention using mini-lectures, role-plays, discussions, and diary keeping. The intervention was

conducted in two sessions of four hours each and was a week apart from each other. It has to be considered that the format and time frame for the intervention used in the current study may not have been sufficient in giving the participants enough time to incorporate what they had learnt and to apply it to their daily lives, as had been the expectation. As the literature review in chapter two indicated, there exist many possibilities as to how to conduct the EI workshop. Some interventions rely on a one-day intervention (Meyer et al., 2004), others are done over multiple days (Sala, 2002), while four-week interventions (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004) and interventions that take place over the duration of a semester (Moriarity & Buchley, 2003) are also proposed. The intervention used in the current research study was conducted in eight hours total. It is possible that this might not have been the appropriate time frame for the intervention in regard to improving the PWB of disadvantaged youth.

Due to the exploratory nature of the current research, the literature in regard to improving PWB for disadvantaged youth is very limited. Even though the Ryff PWBS was not used as a measurement instrument of PWB, the study of Matsuba et al., (2008) indicated that an employment training programme especially intended to help at-risk youth find work was implemented over a 7 month period and showed improvement in PWB. It is significant to note the time period that the participants were exposed to the intervention. Using a social skills training programme for students was also successful in enhancing PWB (Bijstra & Jackson, 1998), but this study was conducted over a 10-week time period. Other research that was not focussed on youth, but on other population groups also indicated that longer time framed interventions proved to be successful in enhancing PWB (Smith et al., 2010; Pihet, Bodenmann, Cina, Widmer, & Shantinath, 2007; Lyons & Magai, 2001). Thus, it seems that the time frame of the intervention could have affected the outcome of the results in that an improvement in PWB was not indicated to the extent that the researcher anticipated.

Another factor to explore in regard to the lack of improvement in PWB is the reliability of the PWBS. The study made use of the Ryff PWBS to determine the level of PWB at the onset of the present research study. The results indicated questionable reliability for some of the subscales of the PWBS. The subscales Self Acceptance, Positive Relationships, Environmental Mastery, and Purpose in Life all had Cronbach's alpha values of below 0.600. Furthermore Positive Relationships and Personal Growth subscales also had low correlations as indicated in the test-retest. To understand why these particular subscales might have been problematic for this particular population it is necessary to consider the fact that the PWBS was not validated for a disadvantaged population group, but on a group of young adults, middle-aged adults and older adults that were well educated American individuals (Ryff, 1989b). Wissing et al. (2006) conducted research in regard to the white, more individualist, and black, more collectivist cultural orientation within the South African context. These authors argued that models of PWB should take cultural differences into consideration as they found that differences in patterns of PWB were apparent between the more individualist and more collectivist cultural groups in their research. It could thus be argued that the current research study with the sample group that would fall within the black more collectivist cultural group would define PWB differently. Furthermore the South African context with its unique history could also have added to the lack of reliability in certain subscales. For example when Ryff defines Self Acceptance, she places emphasis on the idea of feeling confident about the past life (Ryff, 1989b). Considering the legacy of apartheid in the South African context "feeling confident about past life" might be extremely difficult for this particular population group since the history of South Africa has affected this particular group negatively. According to Jansen (2009), apartheid was an institutionalised policy of racial oppression that started long before it was exaggerated through racist laws and policies that were sanctified under the Afrikaner nationalists in 1948. Self-Acceptance is but

one of the subscales that were problematic for the sample group in the current research, but similar arguments could be made for the other subscales as well. Research done by Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier (2002) indicated that significant differences were found between Americans and black Africans on individualism, while no significant differences were indicated for English speaking white South Africans and Americans in this regard. Thus, the fact that the PWBS was not validated for disadvantaged youth and the very specific South African context could have influenced the reliability of the PWBS negatively. As mentioned in the presentation of the results in chapter four, the sample size could also have influenced reliability as well as the fact that the education level of the sample that the PWBS was validated on, was much higher than the education level of the sample in the current research study. A further factor that needs to be mentioned is language.

The primary language of the participants in the current research study was not English. The questionnaires as well as the intervention itself were presented in English. Even though an interpreter was made available to assist the participants in this regard, it did remain up to the participants to ask for the necessary assistance from the interpreter. Some questions could have been misunderstood, as well as some principles in the workshop, and this could have influenced the outcome of the research. Barnes (2010) confirms that miscommunication could have an effect on the participants in a study, and thus influence the results. Therefore it has to be considered that the results within the current study could have been influenced by miscommunication, and that this could have prevented the experimental group form gaining more from the intervention. Furthermore the reliability of the PWBS could also have been influenced by miscommunication. It is important to emphasise that the PWB total did have sound reliability and that the PWB total did not show a significant improvement at time 2.

A further factor that needs to be considered is the fact that the participants in the current research study consisted of youth that are part of the “bridge the gap” programme

aiming to equip the youth with life skills to make them more employable. This fact, coupled with the inability to keep the participants in the experimental group separate from the control group, makes it necessary to discuss the possibility of the Hawthorne effect. According to McCarney et al. (2007), the Hawthorne effect is a reactivity of participants that are being studied, to improve or change an element of their response being experimentally measured simply because they are being studied. In a recent study done within the South African context, Barnes (2010) found that poverty does contribute to the Hawthorne effect. He states that, "it is important to consider how participants' experiences of poverty may influence them to put 'their best foot forward' to impress the research team. This is especially true in contexts where communities have been historically deprived of basic services and where there is an emphasis on shared responsibility for development" (p. 368). Considering the fact that the sample in the current study is from a deprived background and they are currently in a programme that offers, "shared responsibility for development," it is possible that the results reflect the Hawthorne effect. Furthermore, the fact that the experimental group and the control group were together in the programme could have caused a halo effect, message contamination, learning effect, and the John Henry effect or compensatory rivalry that could have contributed to the Hawthorne effect. Considering the proximity of the experimental group and the control group within the current research study it is very possible that all these effects could have played a role in the outcome of the research results. Yet the results indicated no significant difference in the control group at time 2 indicating that the Hawthorne effect did not contribute to the outcome of the results.

It can therefore be concluded that although PWB did improve for the experimental group in the current study, it was not to the extent that caused a significant difference between the experimental group and control group at time 2. It is argued that the format and the level of intensity of the intervention, as well as the time frame of the intervention could

have influenced the results. The questionable reliability of the PWBS could also have influenced the results in the current research study. Furthermore, it could also be argued that miscommunication, due to the fact that the participants' first language was not English, could also have contributed to the lack of improvement in PWB. The fact that the experimental group did show a significant improvement in PWB should be viewed, as positive and additional research to enhance this improvement further should be investigated. Considering the multitude of benefits of improved PWB, like increased learning (Seligman, Ernst, Gillham, Reivich, & Linkins , 2009) and a predictor for finding work (Matsuba et al., 2008), it remains important to continue to investigate the possibility of improving PWB for disadvantaged youth within the South African context.

Research Question 2 (Does the participation in an EI workshop improve TEI for disadvantaged youth?)

The researcher also aimed to investigate if participation in an EI workshop would improve TEI for disadvantaged youth. In order to determine if the groups were equivalent at the beginning of the current study the experimental group and control group were asked to complete the TEIQue-SF. The results indicated that the groups were equivalent before the experimental group was exposed to the intervention. After the experimental group had participated in the intervention, the results indicated no significant change in the experimental group. Furthermore the results of the independent sample t-tests revealed that there were no significant changes between the experimental group and control group at the end of the study, thus indicating that the participation in the EI workshop did not improve TEI for disadvantaged youth. These results were surprising in that the experimental group did demonstrate an improvement in PWB after the exposure to the EI workshop. Since the fact that it was an EI workshop, it would be expected that the experimental group would improve in regard to TEI. Although much research exists on the correlation between TEI and factors

such as life satisfaction, social networking and the quality of the network (Austin et al., 2005), as well as adaptive coping styles (Mavroveli et al., 2007) as indicated in the literature review in chapter two, the research investigating whether TEI could be improved is very limited. In this regard, the study conducted by Nelis et al. (2009) indicated that TEI could be improved. The results of that study indicated a significant increase in emotion identification and emotion management abilities in the experimental group. Furthermore, follow-up measures after 6 months revealed that these changes were persistent. Important to note is that the participants in this study were Psychology students. Thus, comparing this previous study to the current study it has to be considered that the level of education of the participants could have influenced the outcome of the current study. TEI as a construct should be investigated as to understand the results further.

TEI is described as "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies" (Petrides et al., 2007, p. 287). According to Nelis et al. (2009) "traits that have shown to be relatively stable over time can be modified through intensive training" (p. 40). This is, however, contradictory to the findings of the current research study. The current study might very well indicate that it is difficult to improve a trait that would be considered a construct that remains stable over time. Within TEI research, much emphasis has been placed on the discriminant validity of TEI and personality (Saklofske et al., 2003). Recently Petrides (2011) argued for the location of TEI in personality factor space. He states that, "taken together, these findings provide solid support for the conceptualisation of EI as a personality trait" (p. 666). It could thus be argued that changing TEI could be just as difficult as it would be to change one's personality. Even though the study conducted by Nelis et al. (2009) indicated a change in TEI, these authors also stated "as these traits are precisely relatively stable, it is possible that people would come back to their 'baseline' after a while if the competences are not practiced" (p. 40).

Taking into account that TEI is located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides & Furnham, 2001), it would be important to acknowledge that there are certain circumstances in which high TEI scores would not be beneficial to an individual (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). According to Petrides and Furnham (2003), high TEI participants have higher mood declining tendencies when compared to low TEI participants after the viewing of a short upsetting clip. Furthermore, high TEI individuals showed an amplified sensitivity to emotionally charged provocations when compared to their low TEI counterparts. Higher TEI participants showed a decrease of positive affect and an escalation of negative affect when compared to low TEI participants after recollecting a previous choice that headed to strong negative affect. Petrides and Furnham (2003) concluded that this heightened sensitivity could not be effective in all situations, and it may even lead to a vulnerability to disturbance from emotionally charged provocations in memory and learning capabilities. Considering the above-mentioned information, it might then be important in taking the context of the current study's sample into consideration, to note that improved TEI might not be beneficial to disadvantaged youth. The research of Grootboom (2007) indicated that South African youth experience high levels of emotional stress as a result of crime, health issues, poverty and discrimination. Taking this emotional stress into account it might be necessary to investigate the longitudinal effects of high TEI for disadvantaged youth within their contexts. However George (2000) states that individuals with high EI are able to implement changes very effectively. Research would need to be conducted to investigate whether heightened TEI would also enable individuals to bring about change in their environments and circumstances that would lead to positive affect and well-being.

Another aspect to explore is the fact that the participants in the experimental group and the control group both responded very favourably to the TEIQue-SF at times 1 and 2. One explanation could be response distortion due to the statistical correction for *faking good*

(Meehl & Hathaway, 1946). According to Kent (2006), faking good can be described as a term used for incorrect answers given by participants to questionnaires in an effort to portray themselves in a more positive light. Some of the questions in the TEIQue-SF are asked in such a manner that it might well be possible to present oneself more favourable. Examples of items in the TEIQue-SF are: " I can deal effectively with people" (item 6); "I feel that I have a number of good qualities" (item 9); and "I believe I'm full of personal strengths" (item 24). Taking into account that the participants in the current study were enrolled in a programme that equipped them with life skills to make them more employable at the time of the research, it could be argued that they were aiming to present themselves in a positive light as they had been taught in the programme.

It could thus be concluded that TEI did not improve over the duration of the current study due to the possible effect of *faking good,* as well as the idea that a trait is a construct that remains stable over time. As discussed earlier, the language issues, as well as the format and time frame of the intervention, should also be taken into consideration. Even though the results in the current study did not yield a positive outcome, the research of Maree and Mokhuane (2007) argues for the continued exploration of the use of EI to address the problems of the youth in the South Africa context. It would be important to note that these authors did not use TEI within there application of EI. Furthermore the fact that PWB did improve for the experimental group, but that TEI did not improve after the exposure to the EI workshop, places the question about the similarities and differences of these two constructs at the forefront. Discussing the relationship between these two constructs hopes to shed more light on this particular question.

Research question 3 (Is there a relationship between TEI and PWB?)

Lastly the current research aimed to understand if a relationship exists between TEI and PWB. The results from the experimental group and the control group together at the

onset of the current study and at the end of the study indicate that a strong relationship exists between TEI and PWB. One of the leading scholars in the field of EI, Bar-on, first started investigating the construct of EI from a well-being perspective (Bar-On, 1988). As discussed in the literature review in chapter two, the current study confirms the results from previous research that a strong relationship does exist between EI and PWB. EI can be implemented as a predictor for well-being (Gignac & Ekermans, 2010); it has prognostic implications for PWB in that high levels of EI are related to positive PWB (Landa et al., 2010); it contributes to better coping in life (Carruthers et al., 2005); and EI enables a person to deal more effectively with their own feelings, everyday social interactions, and others' feelings. This enables them to function more optimal, and influences well-being in a positive way (Maree & Eiselen, 2004).

Due to the strong relationship indicated in the results of the current study, emphasis is placed on the question of whether these two constructs do then differ from each other. According to Bar-on (2010), EI and positive psychology (including PWB) have several aspects that overlap. Research by Brackett and Mayer (2003) investigating the convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of EI and PWB indicated that certain measurements of EI were not that different to PWB, while others were found to be discriminant. Although the current study did not investigate the convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of EI and PWB, the strong significant relationship that was indicated across all the subscales of PWB and the PWB total with TEI indicated that these two constructs are very closely related. It could thus be argued that the EI workshop that was based on EI theory could have in actual fact contributed more to PWB directly than to TEI. This in turn could then explain why the PWB for the experimental group would improve while the TEI would not improve.

The fact, as stated in the literature review in chapter two, that measures of EI are often used to determine well-being (Makola & Van den Berg, 2009; Visser & Routledge, 2007)

shows how closely these constructs are related. Bar-On (2010) stated that individuals that have high levels of EI often have high levels of PWB. He argues for the inclusion of EI within the realm of positive psychology. Bar-On (2010) states, "the growing body of research findings related to emotional intelligence would appear to have a great deal to contribute to the entire area of positive psychology" (p. 60). The fact that the current research study did show an improvement for the experimental group in regard to PWB due to the exposure to an EI workshop, supports the notion that EI has a role to play within the field of positive psychology, of which PWB is a part. Bar-on (2010) states that these constructs overlap in terms of "self-regard and self-acceptance based on accurate self-awareness, the ability to understand others' feelings, and the capacity for positive social interaction, the management and control of emotions, realistic problem solving and effective decision making, self-determination and optimism" (Bar-On, 2010, p. 59). The fact that EI and PWB overlap in these areas indicates that they share many similar aspects. In fact, it could be argued that EI and PWB are very similar due to the fact that EI measurement instruments are often used to investigate PWB. Thus, it might be tentatively assumed that the EI workshop that was implemented in the current research study could have contributed to PWB more than to TEI. Due to the exploratory nature of the current research, this statement needs to be accepted with caution, and further investigation on the discriminant validity of EI and PWB needs to be explored.

Chapter 6: Conclusion, Limitations and Recommendations for Future Studies

Conclusion

Due to the explorative nature of the current study, insights were gained regarding the possibility of improving PWB for disadvantaged youth within the South African context. The results indicated that PWB did improve for the experimental group, but the results were not significant enough to cause a change to occur between the experimental group and control group at time 2. Thus it was necessary to explore the possible reasons why the improvement was not more significant. The first consideration was the format, intensity and time frame of the intervention. The argument was made for a longer time frame as research indicated more success when the interventions were conducted over a longer time period. It seemed that the longer time frame gave the participants more time to incorporate the knowledge that they gained from the intervention. Furthermore the results indicated that certain subscales of the PWBS had questionable reliability.

In considering the reliability for the PWBS it was argued that the South African context offers a unique backdrop for any research to be conducted, especially with disadvantaged communities. The different approaches of individualist and collectivist cultures towards PWB need to be taken into account when conducting research in the field of PWB. Another aspect that could have influenced reliability could have been the fact that the PWBS was not validated for a disadvantaged sample, but rather on an older and more highly educated population, as well as the fact that they were American. The small sample size was also a possible attribute to the questionable reliability. However, it remains important to note that the PWB total of the PWBS was found to be reliable and thus it could be used to indicate whether an improvement in PWB did occur.

Another aspect that could also have influenced the outcome of the results was the fact that English was not the primary language of the participants in the current research study. It was argued that miscommunications could have occurred during the intervention as well as during the answering of the questionnaires.

Due to the proximity of the experimental group and control group to each other, and the inability to keep these two groups separate during the duration of the study it was also necessary to explore the possibility of Hawthorne effects. However, due to the fact that the control group did not improve significantly over the duration of the study, this idea was rejected. It was concluded that PWB has proven to have many potential benefits for disadvantaged youth, therefore future research in this area should be encouraged.

The current research further investigated the improvement of TEI due to the exposure of the experimental group to the intervention. The results indicated no significant differences for the experimental group or the control group. It was argued that this could have been due to the education level of the participants as well as the idea that TEI is based on traits that should remain stable over time. It was also considered that high TEI might not always be beneficial for disadvantaged youth, due to the fact that they are exposed to high levels of emotional stress that could affect them negatively.

Furthermore the considerations of time and format of the intervention and the language of the participants were also mentioned as possible reasons for the results. The participants in the experimental group and the control group both responded very favourably to the TEIQue-SF at times 1 and 2, which lead the researcher to argue for the concept of *faking good* that might have occurred in the current research study.

Lastly the relationship between PWB and TEI was investigated. The results indicated that a strong relationship does exist between PWB and TEI. These results confirmed the findings of previous research and lead the researcher to the question regarding the similarities

and the differences that are present between the two constructs. The researcher argued that the two constructs seem to be very similar, but stated that further research was required in this area.

Limitations of the current research study

The results and the discussion of the current study indicated that the study did have some limitations. The first limitation was the small sample size. The sample size of 63 participants (32 in the experimental group and 31 in the control group) might have impacted the outcome of the results and a larger sample could possibly have given more informative results. Thus, any attempt to generalise the results of the current study should be done with caution.

Furthermore the sample was only obtained from one NGO working with disadvantaged youth. It would have been more insightful had it been possible to extend the study to include participants from different NGO's. Considering the time limitations and the ethical considerations, this could not have been overcome within the present study. Additionally, this work is in its infancy, and is explorative in nature. For these reasons obtaining a sample of disadvantaged youth proved to be very difficult.

Furthermore, the measurement instruments utilised in the current study, although deemed reliable, might not have been the most acceptable within the unique South African context. The current research study might have benefitted from the use of measurement instruments that had been used more extensively within the field of PWB within the South African context. In this regard, PWB could have been measured using the Sense of Coherence Scale (SOC) (Antonovsky, 1987), the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS) (Diener, Emmons, Larson & Griffen, 1985), and the Affectometer 2 (AFM) (Kammann & Flett, 1983). These instruments have been used with success in many studies (Wissing & van Eeden, 2002; Temane & Wissing, 2006; Malebo et al., 2007; Wissing et al., 2010), and they have recently been translated in Setswana, one of the local South African languages, and

validated (Wissing, et al., 2010). EI might have been measured with the 60-item EQ-i: YV (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). This measurement instrument had been proposed by Maree and Mokhuane (2007) in a project where they aimed to introduce the concept of EI to eight schools, 320 learners and 32 teachers. The researcher did investigate the use of this particular instrument, but due to financial implications it was not feasible. The decision to use TEI and the TEIQue-SF was specifically chosen due to the fact that it's emphasis is not on what people know or can do, but on what they actually do in an emotional situation (Nelis et al., 2009).

Ryff's model of PWB and the PWBS was selected due to the fact that it had been implemented in many countries and across many cultures (van Dierendonck et al., 2008; Cheng & Chan, 2005). Furthermore the authors of the PWBS and the TEIQue-SF gave permission to use their measurement instruments at no charge for research purposes.

Self-report instruments always pose the problem that participants may respond in ways that are socially desirable instead of revealing their genuine response to each item (Galbraith, Strauss, Jordan-Viola & Cross, 1974). As discussed earlier, this might have been a limitation of the current research. Furthermore, the fact that English was not the primary language of the participants also added to the limitations of the study, since miscommunications could have occurred. It might have been more beneficial to utilise translated questionnaires as well as conduct the interventions in the participant's own language.

Lastly, as mentioned earlier, the level of intensity, time frame, and format of the intervention might not have been sufficient to cause a change to occur in the experimental group. In the study by Nelis et al. (2009), which informed the current study, the intervention was conducted over four grouptraining sessions of two and a half hours each. This format might have given the participants more time to incorporate what they had learnt in the

training sessions. It seems that longer time-framed interventions are more successful (Matsuba et al., 2008; Bijstra & Jackson, 1998; Smith et al., 2010; Pihet et al.,2007; Lyons & Magai, 2001). The current research study was reliant on the time that was made available by the NGO, and thus the training had to be done during two sessions of four hours each.

Recommendations for future research

As the current study was of an exploratory nature, it would be recommended that the study be replicated while taking the limitations of the current study into account. Thus it would be useful to conduct a similar study with a much larger sample size. Furthermore, it might be useful in future research to apply different measurement instruments that have been proven successful within the South African context. Language issues must also be taken into consideration. Utilising instruments that have been translated, and presenting the workshop in the participants' first language might also prove helpful. The instruments used in the current study might be investigated further for their implementation within the South African context due to the fact that these instruments offer a unique perspective. The TEI does investigate what people actually do in emotional situations rather than look at what they know to do (Nelis et al., 2009). The PWBS had been used across many cultures and many of them had not been Western societies (van Dierendonck, Díaz, Rodríguez-Carvajal, Blanco & Moreno-Jiménez, 2008; Cheng & Chan, 2005), thus it should be investigated as to how this instrument could be adapted for the South African context.

Furthermore, McEnrue et al., (2010) argue that the area of EI training does not have a good reputation due to the fact that training programmes and interventions often lack empirical evidence in regard to the effectiveness of the training, and training content doesn't always match the aim of the training. Conducting research in regard to the most effective EI workshop would not only serve the community, but also add to the body of literature regarding effective EI training. It seems that the overwhelming amount of options available

in regard to an effective EI training programme can cause future researchers to also have to navigate the terrain in this field without knowing what really works and what does not. In this regard the specific needs of the participants should be considered and the means that they would best assimilate the information should be studied. Taking the disadvantaged youth sample in the current research study into account it is necessary to heed the sentiments of Wissing et al. (2006), when the authors state that sensitivity to the cultural context is of the utmost importance when interventions to enhance PWB are applied.

It would also be interesting to see what the effects of enhanced PWB for disadvantaged youth in South Africa would be in the long run. Thus longitudinal studies would be highly recommended to answer these and other related questions. Considering the South African context and the lack of employment, it would be helpful to ascertain whether enhanced PWB actually translates to job acquisition. Other areas of interest would be the protective capacity of PWB against the participation in crime and drug related activities.

In conclusion, research investigating the enhancement of PWB for disadvantaged youth should lead to practical implementations. Practical means of enhancing PWB for this specific population group should be explored, whether it be sports participation, spiritual activities, cultural traditions, employment programmes, amongst others. These options should be studied and implemented so that the youth within the South African context could benefit from their enhanced PWB.

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List of Appendixes

Appendix A Biographical Questionnaire

Appendix B Ryff's PWBS

Appendix C TEIQue-SF

Appendix D Outline of EI training sessions

Appendix E Ethical Clearance Certificate

Appendix F Oasis Permission Letter

Appendix G Information Sheet

Appendix H Consent Form

Appendix I Histograms

Appendices

A. Biographical Questionnaire

Participant Number: _____

Gender (Mark one) | Male | | Female |

Age: _____

Race (Mark one): | White | Black | Indian | Coloured | Asian |

Other (please specify): _____

(Please note this question is asked for statistical purposes only and is not meant to offend in any way)

What is your monthly income? _____

B. Ryff (PWBS)

Greetings,

Thanks for your interest in the well-being scales. I am responding to your request on behalf of Carol Ryff. You have her permission to use the scales. They are attached in the following files: "14 Item Handout" includes all 14 items for each of the six scales of well-being (14x6=84 items), scoring information, and details about shorter options, plus a list of published studies using the scales. "Form In Word 6 Format" includes a formatted version of the full instrument with all 84 items.

Please note, Dr. Ryff strongly recommends that you NOT use the ultra-short-form version (3 items per scale, 3x6=18 items). That level of assessment has psychometric problems and does not do a good job of covering the content of the six well-being constructs.

There is no charge to use the scales, but we do ask that you please send us copies of any materials you may publish using the scales to berrie@wisc.edu and cryff@wisc.edu.

Best wishes for your research,

Theresa Berrie

Administrative Assistant

Questionnaire excluded as to protect the intellectual property of the author.

C. TEIQue-SF

Dear Lorandi,

You do not need special permission to use any TEIQue form, provided it is for academic research purposes. With respect to time between pre and post testing, you could have one administration immediately prior to training, one immediately after and a follow up a couple of months later.

I hope this helps and wish you good luck with your research,
Dino

London Psychometric Laboratory (UCL)
http://www.psychometriclab.com

Questionnaire excluded as to protect the intellectual property of the author.

D. Outline of EI training sessions

Day 1
Session 1: Understanding emotions (110 min)
Role play illustrating the importance of emotions and EI.
Introductions/Welcome/Explanation of the sessions and the use of the personal diary.
Explanation of key concepts (emotions, emotional intelligence).
Tea break (20 min)
Session 2: Identifying emotions (110 min)
Identifying one's emotions using three doors (i.e., physiological activation, cognitions and action tendencies in Scherer's five components of emotion): theory and practice.
Identifying others' emotions through facial expression decoding: drill with the METT program.
Identifying others' emotions (continue): asking the right question and empathic communication.
Summary and homework.
Day 2
Session 3: Expressing and using emotions (110 min)
Review of previous session and feedback on keeping a diary.
How to express emotions: facts – emotions – need – positive solutions.
Role play.
Using the power of positive emotions: how to improve one's positive feelings (e.g., gratefulness).
Using emotions to solve problems: the emotional roadmap.
Tea break (20 min.)
Session 4: Managing emotions (110 min)
Coping strategies and their effectiveness: theory and group discussion.
Positive reappraisal: role play and drill.
Mind–body connections and relaxation exercises. Summary/Questions

E. Ethical Clearance Certificate

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND, JOHANNESBURG

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (SCHOOL OF HUMAN & COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**PROTOCOL NUMBER: MED/11/003IH**
PROJECT TITLE:	The psychological well-being of disadvantaged youth in South Africa: an investigation into the use of an emotional intelligence workshop.
INVESTIGATORS **DEPARTMENT**	Smith Lorandi Psychology
DATE CONSIDERED	22/03/11
DECISION OF COMMITTEE*	Approved

This ethical clearance is valid for 2 years and may be renewed upon application

DATE: 30 June 2011

CHAIRPERSON
(Professor M. Lucas)

cc Supervisor: Mr. Jarrod Payne
Psychology

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR (S)

To be completed in duplicate and **one copy** returned to the Secretary, Room 100015, 10th floor, Senate House, University.

I/we fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure, as approved, I/we undertake to submit a revised protocol to the Committee.

This ethical clearance will expire on 31 December 2013

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES

F. Oasis Permission Letter

14 December 2010

To whom it may concern:

This letter is to confirm that we, Oasis South Africa, have given Lorandi Smith permission to conduct research within the youth department of Oasis South Africa.

Oasis is a non-profit organisation situated in Cosmo City, North-west Johannesburg, that works with the marginalised in healthcare, education, youth, etc. (www.oasisza.org). We are aware that the administration of questionnaires and the presentation of EI training will be conducted on our premises. We are also aware that a pre-test and a post-test will be done and that we would make the facilities and people who have chosen to participate in the research available for these research requirements.
If you have any enquiries, please don't hesitate to contact me, 0828734224.



_____

Adri-Marie van Heerden
Youth & Education Program Manager
adrimarie@oasisza.org

G. Information Sheet

[Departmental approved letterhead to be provided for submission to the Ethics Committee by the research supervisor]

Hi,

My name is Lorandi Smith and I am conducting research for the purposes of obtaining my Master's degree in Educational Psychology at the University of the Witwatersrand. My area of focus is psychological well-being and emotional intelligence. I will be conducting an emotional intelligence workshop and evaluating if it has increased psychological well-being and emotional intelligence. Your participation is strictly voluntary and you will not be advantaged or disadvantaged by choosing to participate or not to participate in this study in any way. You are also free to withdraw from the study at any time during data collection with no negative consequences.

Participation in the study will require you to complete a questionnaire pack at Oasis and place it in a sealed box that will be placed in your lecture room at Oasis. The questionnaire pack will take about 40min to complete and contains a biographical questionnaire and two scales. You will be given a randomly assigned that will be written on a sheet of paper next to your name. This sheet of paper will be kept safe by a third party and the researcher will not have access of it. This sheet will just be kept in case you are unsure of your assigned number in the future when follow up data will be collected. You will indicate your assigned number in the biographical questionnaire. This is asked for so that your responses in the follow up data collections can be linked together. All participants will be randomly assigned to two groups the one group will join me for an emotional intelligence workshop while the other group will have the opportunity to attend the emotional intelligence workshop at a later stage. I will return the next day to present the emotional intelligence workshop for those who have been selected to take part in the workshop. The workshop will be done in two sessions of four hours each a week apart from each other. You will be given a diary and homework between the first and second session. After the completion of the workshop you will be encouraged to continue writing in your diary. A month after the conclusion of the workshop all participants will be asked to complete a second questionnaire pack. Once again a sealed box will be placed in your lecture room at Oasis for you to place the questionnaire pack in. The questionnaire pack will take about an hour to complete and will contain two scales. Once all of the data has been collated the sheets containing the numbers and names will be destroyed. Once the research report has been completed all questionnaires will also be destroyed. In this way non-one will be able to link back your responses to the questionnaires and your confidentiality will be protected.

Once the study has been completed a one-page summary of the results will be displayed on the Oasis notice board. If you would like a longer version of the study results, you are welcome to ask the Oasis co-ordinator who will have a copy of the research report available. No individual feedback will be available, however, as responses are anonymous.

Your participation in this study would be greatly appreciated. This research will provide information that may be useful in structuring future interventions that would be beneficial to future youth enrichment programmes.

Kind Regards

Lorandi Smith

Lorandi Smith : 072-671-6745 email: lollie.smith@gmail.com

Supervisor: Jarrod Payne: 0865795923: email:jarrod.payne@wits.ac.za

H. Consent Form

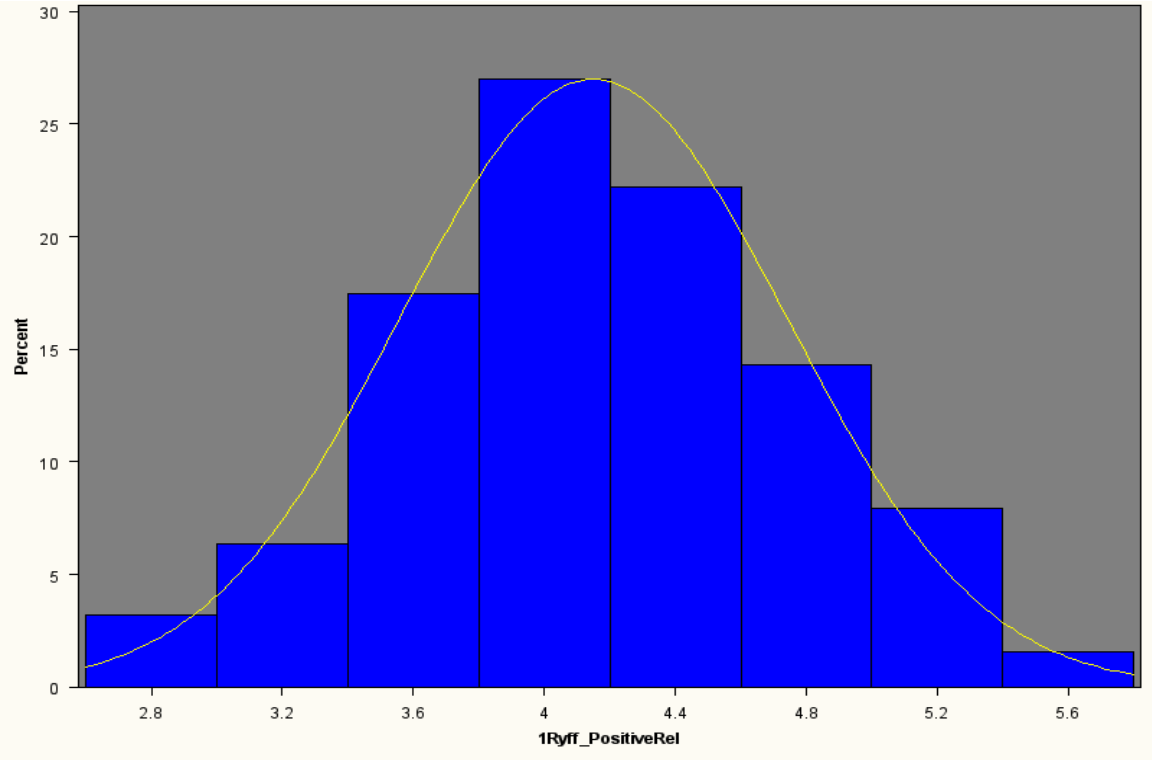
I _____ agree to participate in the study about the psychological well-being of youth and the investigation into the use of an emotional Intelligence workshop. The research will be conducted by:

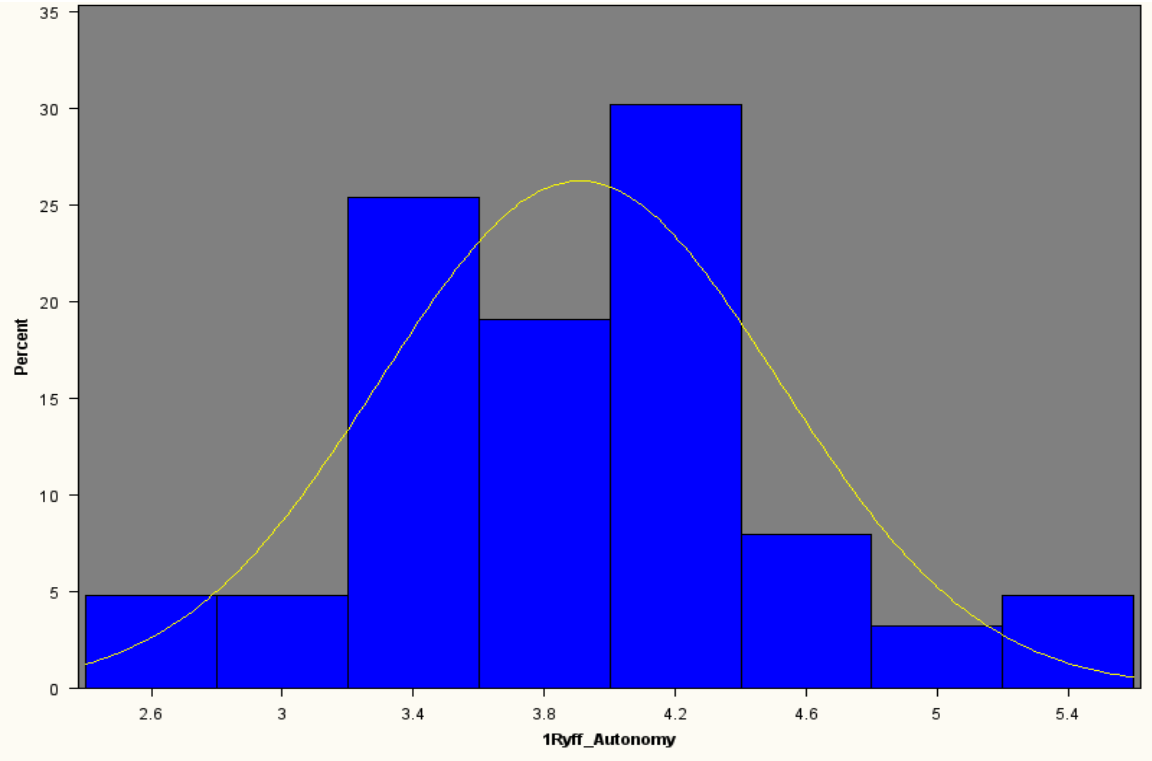
Name, position and contact address of Researcher:
Lorandi Smith, student, 072-671-6745 & lollie.smith@gmail.com

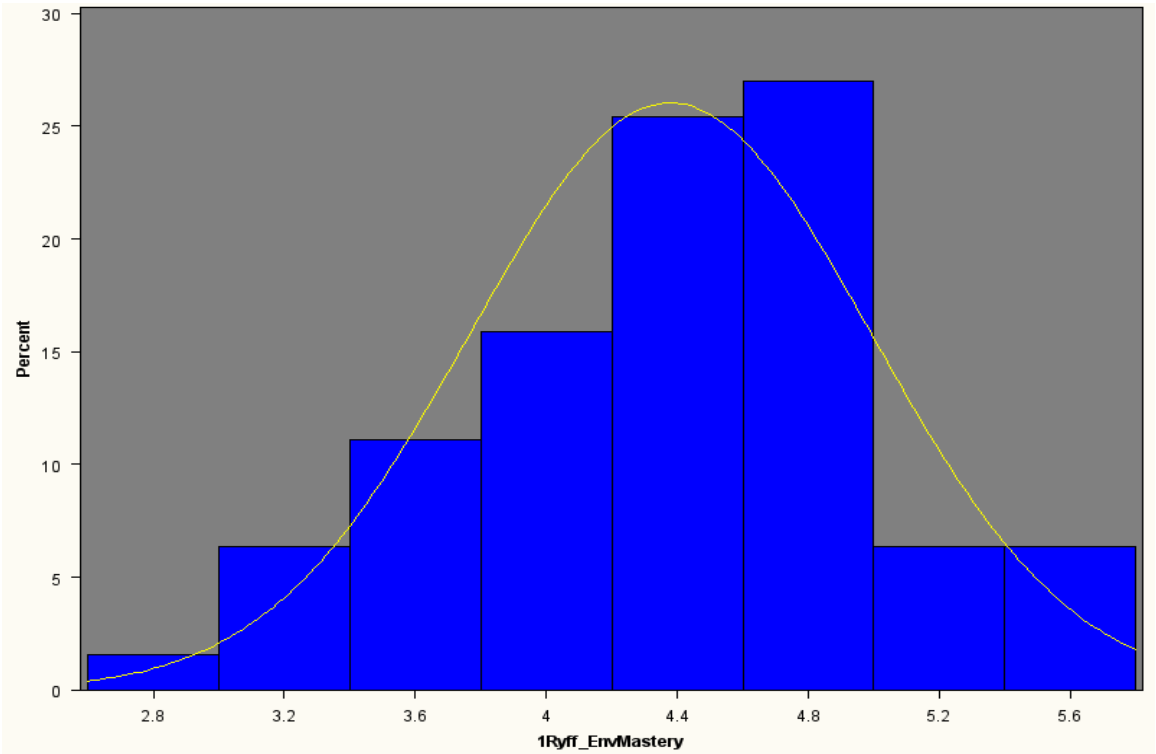
	Please initial box
1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.	☐
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.	☐
3. I agree to take part in the above study.	☐
4. I understand how the confidentiality will work.	☐

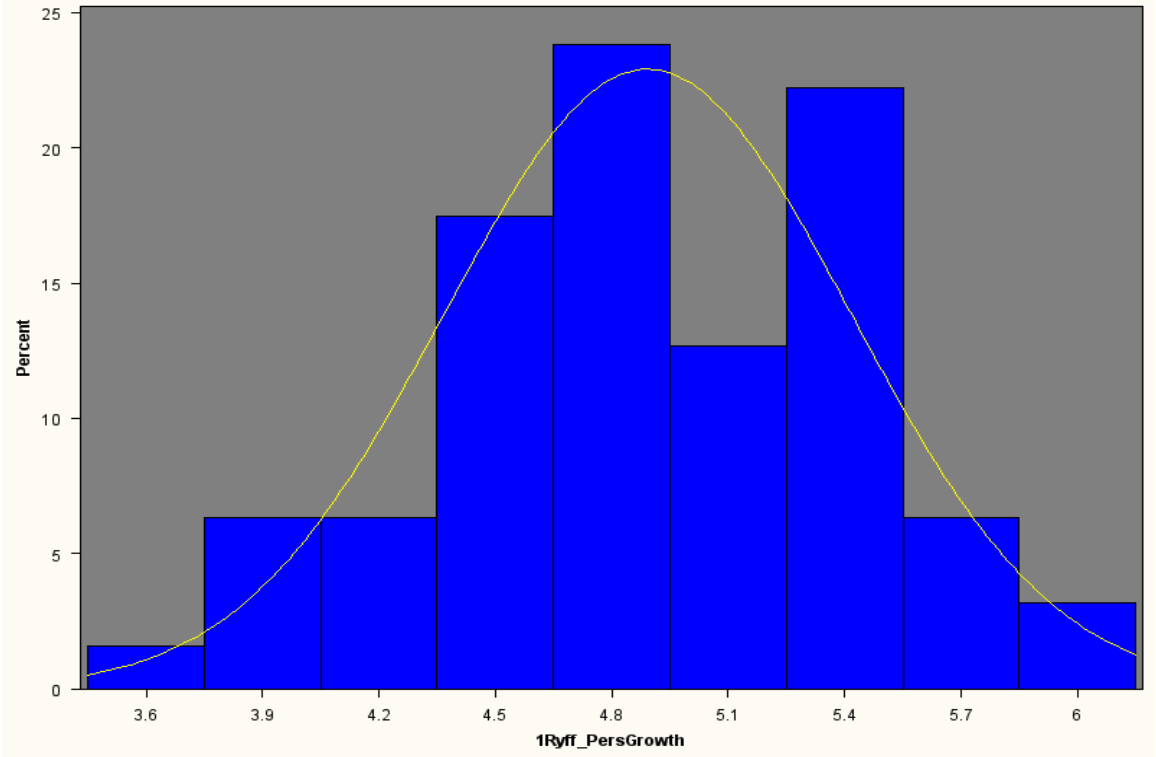
_____	_____	_____
Name of Participant	Date	Signature
_____	_____	_____
Name of Researcher	Date	Signature

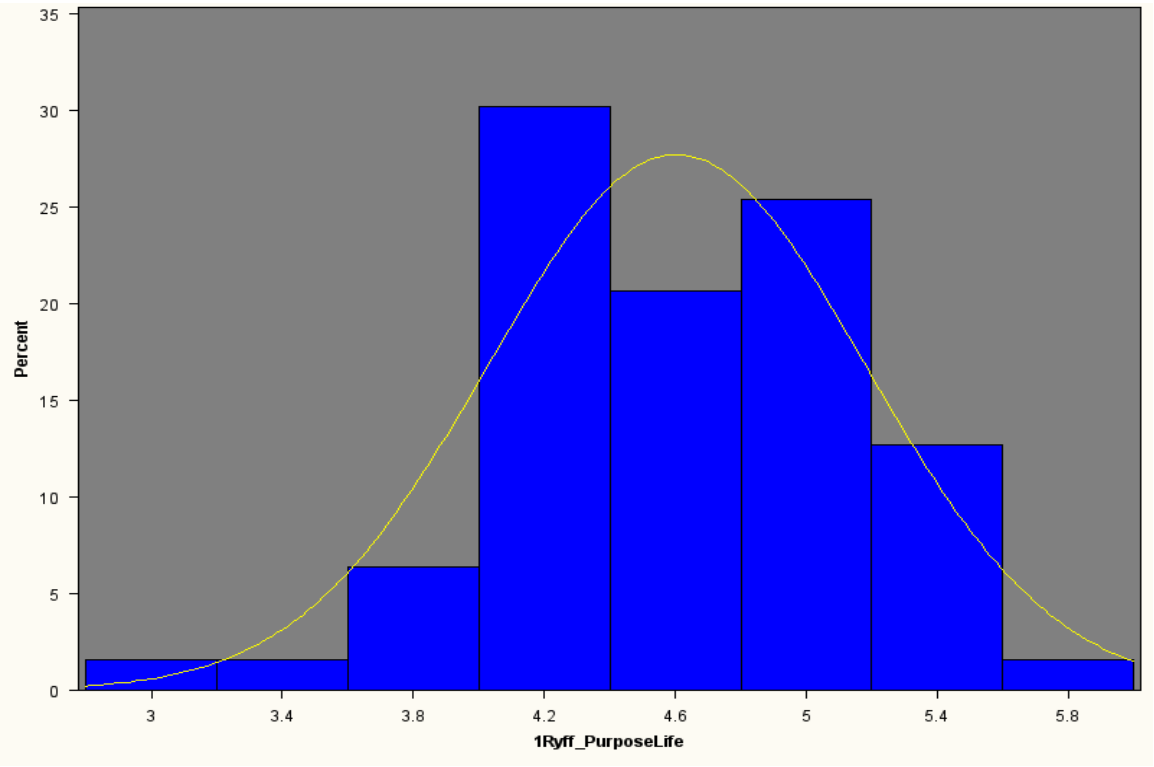
I. Histograms

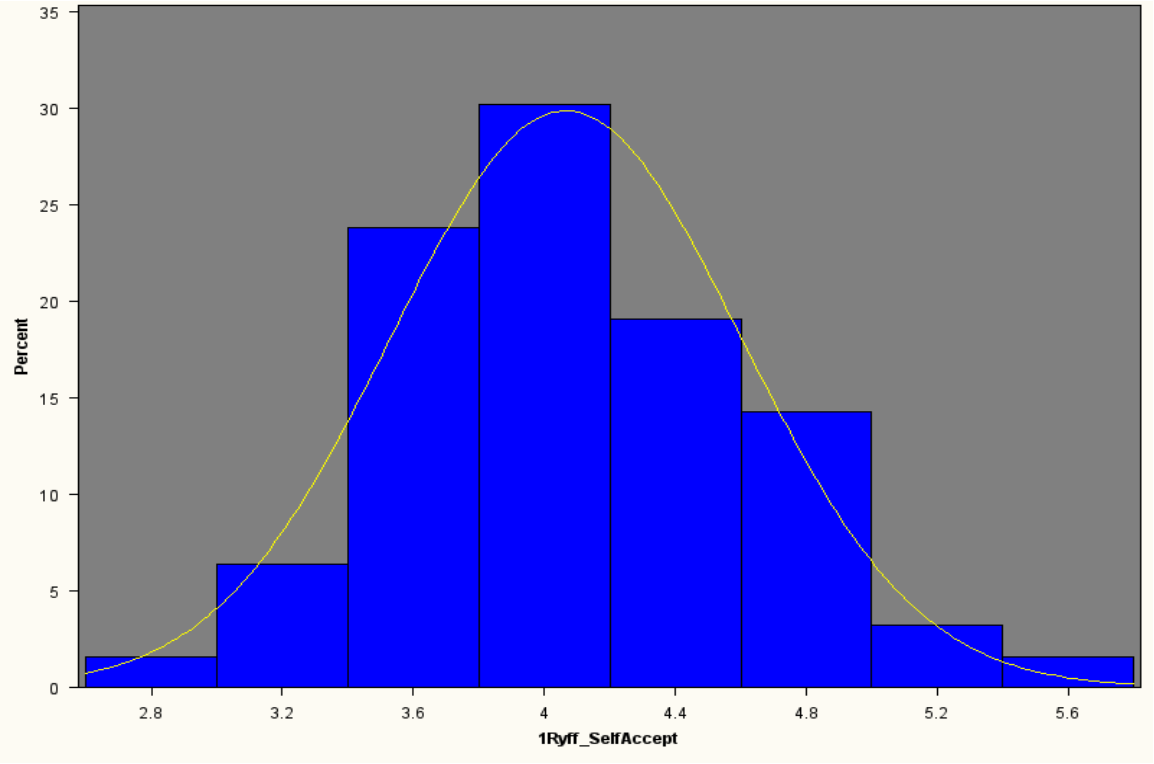


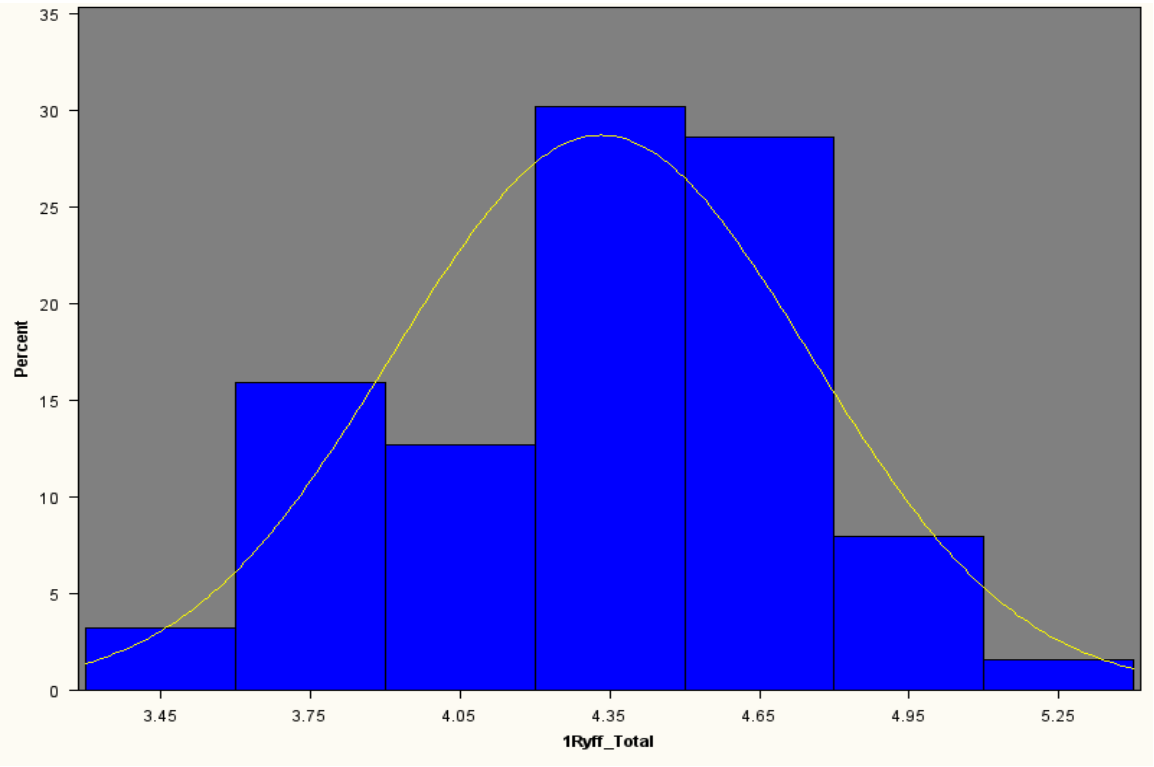



Percent
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
2.8
3.2
3.6
4
4.4
4.8
5.2
5.6
1Ryff_EnvMastery


Percent
25
20
15
10
5
0
3.6
3.9
4.2
4.5
4.8
5.1
5.4
5.7
6
1Ryff_PersGrowth


Percent
35
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
3
3.4
3.8
4.2
4.6
5
5.4
5.8
1Ryff_PurposeLife


Percent
35
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
2.8
3.2
3.6
4
4.4
4.8
5.2
5.6
1Ryff_SelfAccept


35
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
Percent
3.45
3.75
4.05
4.35
4.65
4.95
5.25
1Ryff_Total