

**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB
PERFORMANCE AMONG SERVICE PROVIDERS IN REHABILITATION
SCHOOLS IN KENYA**

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to two special men in my life, my husband Joe Kathungu, for encouraging me to begin the journey of my graduate studies while seven months expectant with our first born child, and my father, J.M.K. Mwathi for his great faith in my capacity to succeed. To my dear mother Madris for teaching me the value of hard work and to my lovely kids Ivy and Ken, for boldly sharing in the sacrifice of a mother's strive to achieve.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Declaration	ii
Dedication	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Table of Contents	vii
List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiii
Abbreviations and Acronyms	xiv
Abstract	xv
CHAPTER ONE :INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background to the Study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	3
1.3 Purpose of the Study	5
1.4 Objectives of the Study	5
1.5 Research Questions	6
1.6 Rationale and Assumptions.....	7
1.7 Significance of the Study	8
1.8 Scope and Limitations.....	9
1.9 Operational Definition of Terms.....	10
CHAPTER TWO :LITERATURE REVIEW	12
2.1 Introduction.....	12

2.2	Theoretical Framework.....	12
2.2.1	Person Centered Approach	12
2.2.2	Social Learning Theory	14
2.3	Review of Literature Related to the Study.....	15
2.3.1	Historical Development of Emotional Intelligence (EI).....	15
2.3.2	Models of Emotional Intelligence.....	19
2.3.3	Importance of Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace.....	20
2.3.4	Role of Emotional Intelligence in Educational Settings.....	26
2.3.5	Emotional Intelligence and Gender	29
2.3.6	Emotional Intelligence and Age.....	31
2.3.7	Emotional Intelligence and Educational Qualifications	31
2.3.8	Emotional Intelligence and Length of Service.....	32
2.3.10	The Assessment of Emotional Intelligence.....	34
2.3.11	Job Performance and its Assessment	36
2.3.12	Service Provision in Rehabilitation Schools in Kenya.....	38
2.4	Summary of Literature Review.....	39
2.5	Research Hypotheses	42
2.6	Conceptual Framework.....	43
CHAPTER THREE :RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		45
3.1	Introduction.....	45
3.2	Research Design.....	45
3.3	Variables under Study.....	45
3.4	Site of the Study.....	46

3.5	Target Population.....	46
3.6	Sampling and Sample Size.....	49
3.7	Research Instruments.....	50
3.7.1	Emotional Intelligence Scale.....	50
3.7.2	Job Performance Scales.....	52
3.7.2.1	Self -rating Job Performance Scale.....	52
3.7.2.2	Supervisor -rating Job Performance Scale.....	53
3.8	Pilot Study.....	54
3.9	Validity and Reliability.....	54
3.10	Data Collection.....	56
3.11	Data Analysis.....	57
3.12	Data Management and Ethical Considerations.....	57
CHAPTER FOUR :PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS.....		59
4.1	Introduction.....	59
4.2	Demographic Characteristics of the Sample.....	59
4.2.1	Distribution of Schools in the Sample.....	60
4.2.3	Sex Distribution in the Sample.....	62
4.2.4	Age Distribution in the Sample.....	62
4.2.5	Educational Qualifications' Distribution in the Sample.....	63
4.2.6	Length of Service.....	65
4.2.7	Regional Distribution in Sample.....	66
4.2.8	Service providers' designations.....	67
4.2.9	Service providers' responsibilities.....	68

4.2.10	Service Provider’s posting Details.....	69
4.3	Emotional Intelligence of Service Providers	71
4.3.1	General Emotional Intelligence Scores	71
4.3.2	Emotional Intelligence and Sex.....	73
4.3.3	Emotional Intelligence and Age.....	73
4.3.4	Emotional Intelligence and Educational Qualifications.....	74
4.3.5	Emotional Intelligence and Length of Service	75
4.4	Service Providers’ Job Performance	76
4.4.1	General Job Performance Scores	76
4.4.2	Job Performance and Sex.....	79
4.4.3	Job Performance and Age	79
4.4.4	Job Performance and Educational Qualifications	80
4.4.5	Job Performance and Length of Service	81
4.5	Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance.....	82
4.5.1	Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance	83
4.5.2	Relationship between Dimensions of EI and Dimensions of Job.....	86
	Performance	86
4.5.3	Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance while partialling out the Effects of Various Demographic Variables	87
4.5.3	Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of Job Performance.....	89
4.6	Summary of Results	90
CHAPTER FIVE :DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS		95
5.1	Introduction.....	95
5.2	Discussion of the Results	95

5.2.1	Demographic Information of Service Providers in Rehabilitation Schools	95
5.2.2	Emotional Intelligence of Service Providers	99
5.2.3	Job Performance of Service Providers	102
5.2.4	Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance	106
5.2.5	Support for the Theoretical Framework	114
5.3	Conclusions.....	115
5.4	Recommendations.....	117
5.4.1	Recommendations for policy makers (Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development Services and Line Ministries).....	117
5.4.2	Recommendations for Managers of Rehabilitation Schools	119
5.4.3	Recommendations for Further Research.....	119
REFERENCES.....		121
Appendix 1: Instrument for Service Providers		132
Appendix 2: Instrument for Supervisors.....		140
Appendix 3: Introduction Letter and Consent Form for Service Providers.....		142
Appendix 4: Introduction Letter and Consent Form for Supervisors		143

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1	Population of service providers in rehabilitation schools	47
Table3.2	Designations/cadres of various service providers in the target population	48
Table 3.3	The sampled schools and their service providers	50
Table 4.1	Descriptive statistics of the emotional intelligence scores	71
Table 4.2	Emotional Intelligence across sex.....	73
Table 4.3	Emotional intelligence across age.....	74
Table 4.4	Emotional intelligence across educational qualifications	75
Table 4.5	Emotional intelligence across length of service	76
Table 4.6	Descriptive statistics of the job performance scores.....	77
Table 4.7	Job performance across sex	79
Table 4.8	Job performance across age	80
Table 4.9	Job performance across educational qualifications	80
Table 4.10	Job performance across lengths of service	81
Table 4.11	Correlation between emotional intelligence and job performance	85
Table 4.12	Partial correlation coefficients while controlling for various demographic variables	88

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.6	The relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance	44
Figure 4.2	School's categorization in the sample	61
Figure 4.3	Distribution of respondents by sex	62
Figure 4.4	Age distribution in the sample.....	63
Figure 4.5	Educational qualifications distribution.....	64
Figure 4.6	Length of service	65
Figure 4.7	Regional distribution	66
Figure 4.8	Service providers' designations.....	67
Figure 4.9	Service providers' responsibilities	68
Figure 4.10	Whether the service providers were posted by the Ministry of Gender Children and Social Development Services	69
Figure 4.11	Who posted the service providers who were not posted by the Ministry of Gender Children and Social Development Services	70
Figure 4.12	Distribution of emotional intelligence scores.....	72
Figure 4.13	Distribution of job performance scores	78
Figure 4.14	Scatter plot of the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance.....	84
Figure 4.15	Regression line for predicting job performance from emotional intelligence	89

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

APA	American Psychological Association
CA	Cognitive Ability
CI	Cognitive Intelligence
ECGN	Emotionally Competent Group Norms
ECI	Emotional Competent Inventory
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EQ	Emotional Quotient
EQ-I	Emotional Quotient Inventory
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
JP	Job performance
MEIS	Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale
MSCEIT	Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
OCBO	Organizational Citizenship Behavior directed at the Organization
OL	Organizational Learning

ABSTRACT

The Kenya government has established various rehabilitation schools to help in rehabilitating and reintegrating into society, children who commit various offences and end up in the hands of the juvenile justice system. These schools are staffed with various service providers such as Children's officers, teachers, nurses, religious leaders and housemothers who ensure successful rehabilitation of these children. Studies have shown that there lacks clarity as to the most appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes that such service providers need to possess to be effective in their job performance. Review of literature indicated that emotional intelligence is important for job performance across a variety of work settings such as business, leadership and education in general. However, there was a general absence of data on the role of emotional intelligence in the job performance of service providers in the behavioral rehabilitation sector. To fill this gap in knowledge, the current study sought to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya. A correlational research design was used to test the hypothesis that, emotional intelligence is significantly related to job performance among service providers of rehabilitation schools in Kenya. Stratified proportionate sampling was used to obtain a sample of 81 service providers from a target population of 103 service providers in rehabilitation schools. Due to non response rate, final data was obtained from 63 service providers. Emotional intelligence was assessed using an adapted version of items borrowed from the tests of Emotional Intelligence developed by Wood, & Tolley (2003), while job performance was assessed using supervisor and self-ratings on a 5 item Likert scale. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to test the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance and one way ANOVA to test for differences across demographic variables in emotional intelligence and job performance separately. The findings revealed that there were no significant differences in emotional intelligence as well as in job performance across various demographic variables namely, age, sex, educational qualifications and length of service. In terms of the relationship between the two variables, the study found a significant, moderate and positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools. In addition, it revealed that some dimensions of emotional intelligence such as motivation and social skills were significantly related to job performance, while the empathy dimension was significantly related to teamwork dimension of job performance. Based on the findings, it was suggested that emotional intelligence testing could be factored into recruitment of service providers of rehabilitation schools and that emotional intelligence development programs could be used as an intervention to ensure higher job performance of service providers in rehabilitation schools. In addition, the motivation, social skills and empathy dimensions of emotional intelligence need special attention when it comes to promoting job performance of service providers for rehabilitation schools.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

In every society children are valued, they are tomorrow's society, and through them we are assured that society will continue to thrive. As such, every effort is made to nurture children and to ensure that they are well cared for and protected from any possible physical or psychological harm. The goal of this is to ensure that they grow into responsible citizens of tomorrow. For many societies, the actualization of this goal is becoming a mirage as societies become increasingly complex and social structures that traditionally existed to ensure children's care and protection disintegrate. This has resulted in new challenges such as child neglect, abandonment and even abuse.

The global concern for the promotion of the welfare of children is reflected in initiatives such as the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), which clearly outlines policies that should govern the treatment of children by all governments that ratify it. Similar commitment at a local level is evidenced by the Kenya government's ratification of this convention in July 1990. It is further reflected in the initiative to contextualize this convention through the enacting of the Children's Act in 2001. This Law took effect on 1st March 2002, and ushered in various changes to improve the conditions of children living in especially difficult circumstances. One category of such children is that of those who commit offences that lead them into conflict with the law. These offences include stealing, bestiality, trespassing, rape, possession of drugs, among others. Once children commit such offences, they often put law enforcers in a difficult situation as they are still children and have not attained adult status to be charged under the Law. In recognition of the unique challenges posed by the plight of such children, the

Kenya Government has established various institutions to support their rehabilitation with a view to turning them into responsible citizens of this nation. One category of such institutions is the rehabilitation schools, formerly known as approved schools and charged with the responsibility of rehabilitating and reintegrating children into society as fully functioning individuals. These schools fall under the jurisdiction of the Department of Children's Services, under the Ministry of Gender Children and Social Development Services. This Department oversees the running of these schools and ensures that the necessary resources, human and other, are made available to support the rehabilitation of these children.

To facilitate the rehabilitation process, the government has recruited various categories of service providers and posted them to these schools to carry out a wide range of duties assumed to be core to the rehabilitation process. Among the key responsibilities of these service providers are teaching, guidance and counseling as well as providing healthcare. Some of these service providers include managers, social workers, housemasters/mistresses, religious leaders, teachers and support staff, all of who work towards developing and implementing comprehensive programmes to ensure that these children reform and get successfully reintegrated into society. In spite of the Government's efforts over the years to improve the quality of rehabilitation programs in these schools, literature suggests that most of the service providers lack the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to effectively deal with the challenges that rehabilitating these children poses (Grobber, 2002; Mugo, Musembi & Kangethe, 2006; Njuguna, 2003 & Wakanyua, 1995).

Studies such as those by Human Rights Watch (1997), Mugo (2004) and Wakanyua (1995) suggest that many service providers in these schools exhibit insensitivity and hostility towards these children. It may be due to this situation that Grobbel (2002), found that some of these children become stigmatized in these very institutions and some leave worse off than they came in. The implication here is that the service providers are probably not well equipped to handle the process of rehabilitating these children.

It is possible that they lack clarity on what would be the appropriate approach to rehabilitation. Lavera (2002) and Mugo (2004) recognize this challenge and recommend the need for research to inform the development of best practices for rehabilitation programs in Kenya. There is generally lack of empirical evidence to show the ideal qualities that service providers working with such children need to possess and which need to be considered at recruitment. Such a scenario indicates an urgent need to determine among other things, key qualities and competencies necessary for service providers charged with the responsibility of rehabilitating such children.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Review of literature indicates that emotional intelligence has been identified as a key competency for successful performance in life as well as in the workplace (Goleman, 1996). This is supported by much research that has been carried out on the role of emotional intelligence in areas such as business, leadership and education in general (Butler & Chinowsky, 2006; Coté & Miners, 2006; Hopkins, O'Neil & Williams, 2007). It is noted that most of this research has been done outside Kenya and mainly not focusing on rehabilitation settings.

It is further observed that much research has been carried out in rehabilitation schools in Kenya mainly focusing on children, the resources as well as on general factors influencing successful rehabilitation. Hardly any research has sought to investigate the role of emotional intelligence in the rehabilitation work of service providers in rehabilitation schools.

There is a possibility that emotional intelligence is an equally important competence for successful job performance of service providers in rehabilitation schools as it has been proved to be for other work settings. This is particularly likely considering that in their work with children in rehabilitation schools service providers have to deal with a great deal of emotional vulnerability in the children they work with. This is attributable to various reasons. There are for instance, some of these children who have experienced trauma in the hands of law enforcers prior to arriving at these schools (Kenya Alliance for the Advancement of Children, 2002). There are also other children who are emotionally deprived having been rescued from circumstances of neglect, abandonment and abuse (Kinyua, 2004), while others have a sense of loneliness and miss their families (Lavera 2002; Mugo 2004). In addition, many of them struggle with the emotional instabilities characteristic of preadolescence and adolescence as well as the feelings of rejection, apathy, self hate and sense of hopelessness, as they struggle to come to terms with the events that led to their current circumstances. It is probably these factors that resulted in the findings by Maru (1998) that many of these children exhibit high levels of psychiatric morbidity.

The implication here is that part of rehabilitation work requires that service providers deal to a great extent with emotions of the children as well as their own emotions generated by

their interaction with these children. This implies the need for these service providers to have high emotional intelligence, defined by (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), as the capacity to understand one's emotion and the emotions of others and to manage relationships effectively. However, since no studies have specifically sought to investigate the role of emotional intelligence among service providers in rehabilitation schools we can only speculate its possible importance.

It was the need to fill this gap in knowledge that prompted the current study, to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya with a view to providing empirical evidence that can form the basis for the development of programs aimed at promoting emotional intelligence among these service providers.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to provide data on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya. In addition, the study sought to test whether there were significant differences across various demographic variables in both emotional intelligence and job performance of those service providers.

1.4. Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Determine if there were significant differences in emotional intelligence of service providers in rehabilitation schools across various demographic variables, namely:

- (i) Sex
 - (ii) Age
 - (iii) Educational qualifications
 - (iv) Length of service
2. Determine if there were significant differences in job performance of service providers in rehabilitation schools across various demographic variables, namely:
- (i) Sex
 - (ii) Age
 - (iii) Educational qualifications
 - (iv) Length of service
3. Determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya;
4. Establish if there was a relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools while controlling for various demographic variables namely:
- (i) Sex
 - (ii) Age
 - (iii) Educational qualifications
 - (iv) Length of service

1.5. Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. Are there significant differences in the mean emotional intelligence of service providers in rehabilitation schools across various demographic variables namely;
- (i) Sex
 - (ii) Age
 - (iii) Educational qualifications
 - (iv) Length of service
2. Are there significant differences in the mean job performance of service providers in rehabilitation schools across various demographic variables, namely;
- (i) Sex
 - (ii) Age
 - (iii) Educational qualifications
 - (iv) Length of service

3. Is there a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya ?

4. Is there a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya while controlling for :-

(i) Sex

(ii) Age

(iii) Educational qualifications

(iv) Length of service

1.6. Rationale and Assumptions

The rationale for the study lay in the assumption that since service providers in rehabilitation schools work in environments that are likely to be emotionally charged, they need to possess high levels of emotional intelligence in order to be effective in their work. Yet as observed earlier, studies on emotional intelligence and performance have not focused on service providers in such schools and especially in Kenya. Therefore there was a dire need for such studies to investigate the role of emotional intelligence in the job performance of service providers in rehabilitation school settings. This would provide data that may form the basis for developing programs aimed at enhancing emotional intelligence of such service providers as a way of enhancing their performance in their rehabilitation work.

In carrying out the study, several assumptions were made. First, that successful rehabilitation work results from collective effort of all service providers. Secondly, that successful individual job performance contributes to the successful collective outcome of rehabilitation work. Thirdly, that an individual's emotional intelligence has a bearing on his/her successful job performance in rehabilitation schools. Fourthly, that emotional intelligence can be accurately assessed using self report methods, and finally, that job

performance can be accurately assessed using a combination of self rating and supervisor rating methods.

1.7. Significance of the Study

The study was necessitated by the absence of data on the role of emotional intelligence in rehabilitation programs and especially rehabilitation schools in a Kenyan context. Hence it was hoped that the findings of this study would contribute to the body of knowledge on the role of emotional intelligence in rehabilitation school settings in a Kenyan and African context.

The study may also provide a basis for future researchers to test its findings as well as the various possible hypotheses arising from it. This will help to build and strengthen the body of knowledge on the relevance of emotional intelligence to rehabilitation schools as well as other educational settings in Kenya and Africa as a whole. In addition, the study findings would provide stakeholders, policy makers as well as those charged with the responsibility of implementing policies on rehabilitation schools, with empirical evidence on the importance of emotional intelligence for service providers in rehabilitation schools. It was hoped that such information would inform decisions on recruitment of service providers for rehabilitation schools, as well as on the need to incorporate emotional intelligence development programs into pre-service and in-service training for service providers of these institutions.

Finally, it was hoped that the job performance tools developed for this study would form a blueprint that could be further developed and refined to become standard tools for performance appraisal in rehabilitation school settings.

1.8. Scope and Limitations

The study focused on obtaining data on emotional intelligence and job performance of service providers in rehabilitation schools excluding the managers. It was found prudent to exclude them since they were being used as supervisors to rate the job performance of their fellow service providers.

Due to financial and logistical constraints, the study limited itself to the use of self report approach to assessment of emotional intelligence. While every effort was made to reduce dishonesty and to control for the effects of social desirability response set, commonly associated with self report methods, it is important to bear in mind that it may never completely be possible to overcome these limitations.

Due to financial constraints, this study limited itself to the use of subjective job performance assessment methods. In an ideal situation, a combination of objective and subjective methods, as well as the 360 approach advocated by London and Beatty (1993) would have been most appropriate. The study sought to enhance the reliability of the data obtained by combining two methods, the self ratings and the other-ratings which involved two supervisors' ratings to enhance inter-rater reliability. It is however important to bear in mind the limitations of the subjective approaches to appraisal while drawing conclusions from this study.

Since this was a first study of its kind in a rehabilitation setting in Kenya, it focused on all service providers as a group, without looking at specific categories of service providers. There is a possibility that specific categories of service providers when considered

separately may yield different findings. It is therefore important to bear this in mind when drawing conclusions from this study on specific categories of service providers.

Some of the service providers in the sample were unavailable at the time of data collection as they were away on leave and it was not possible to access them. This may have affected the obtained results and should be kept in mind when drawing conclusions from the study

1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

- Children** - Persons under the age of eighteen years
- Emotional intelligence** - A set of competencies namely: self awareness, self regulation, empathy, motivation and social skills which enable an individual to function effectively across a variety of settings.
- Job performance** - Effectiveness of an employee in carrying out work related tasks as required.
- Length of service** - The number of years an individual has served in a particular job
- Rehabilitation schools** - Institutions set up by the Government for the purpose of rehabilitating and reintegrating job delinquent children into society as fully functioning individuals (formerly referred to as the approved schools)
- Self ratings**- The evaluation of an employee's job performance by him/herself.

- Supervisor ratings** - The evaluation of an employee's job performance by his/her supervisor
- Service providers** - Persons charged with the responsibility of rehabilitating children in the rehabilitation schools

CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter contains a description of the theoretical framework for the study as well as a review of literature on emotional intelligence such as its historical development, its conceptualization, its importance to job performance, its development, its assessment, as well as its relationship to several variables such as gender, age, educational qualification and length of service. Also reviewed is literature on evaluation of job performance as well as on service provision in rehabilitation schools.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

This section discusses some of the theories on which the current study was anchored. Noting that there is not as yet a solid theory of emotional intelligence, it was important to look at other theories that in some way informed the current study before embarking on literature review on emotional intelligence

2.2.1. Person Centered Approach

The person centered approach can be traced to the works of Rogers (1951) who founded the Client centered therapy as an approach to counseling that focused on the client rather than on the methods used to bring change. The approach became popular not only in the field of counseling but also expanded to influence education, industry, groups, conflict resolution, among others, hence acquiring the name person centred rather than client centered approach to reflect the diversity of its application.

Among the key ideas of this approach, are that, people generally experience psychotherapeutic growth in and through a relationship with another person who is caring, understanding and real, irrespective of who that person is. Such relationships are not limited to counseling situations, but also to any situations where an individual seeks to help another to heal. Rogers described such relationships as therapeutic in nature because they yielded healing even if no other intervention was made. Rogers (1961) also emphasized the importance of empathy in any relationship that seeks to help people heal. In being empathic, one seeks to understand the other person's experience and feelings, sensitively and accurately, as if they were his/her own. In addition, one seeks to accurately communicate such understanding to the other person.

Roger's (1961) ideas of a therapeutic relationship and the importance of empathy have implications for service providers in rehabilitation schools. This is because they interact with children who have several emotional and behavioral problems and need to be helped to heal. It means that irrespective of the capacities in which these service providers interact with these children, whether as house masters/mistresses, teachers, nurses, cooks, social workers or counselors, they have the potential to significantly contribute to their healing, by forming conducive relationships, characterized by empathy. These service providers need to possess the capacity to accurately perceive the emotions of the affected children and accurately communicate such understanding to them. They need to apply sensitive listening, hearing and understanding in their day-to-day interactions with the children if they are generate meaningful healing relationships that can help transform these children.

In addition, the service providers need to possess the capacity to understand and manage their own emotions, as they are generated by the interaction with these children. This is likely to help the service providers develop meaningful healing relationships with these children, and consequently increase the likelihood of successful rehabilitation.

Such capacities to accurately understand one's emotions as well as understand the emotions of others fits under what has been referred to as emotional intelligence by several models such as that by Salovey & Mayer (1990). In fact several models of emotional intelligence incorporate empathy as a key aspect of emotional intelligence. This brings the link between Carl Rogers' theory and models of emotional intelligence. This implies that, if service providers in rehabilitation schools possess high levels of emotional intelligence, they are likely to be able to accurately perceive the emotions of these children, accurately communicate such understanding to them, and hence engage in conducive relationships that promote the psychological healing of these children in their day to day interactions with them.

2.2.2 Social Learning Theory

The social learning theory was founded by Bandura (1977) following his famous work known as, the Bobo doll experiment. The findings of his study revealed that, human beings learn through modeling, by imitating behaviors they observed in others. He discovered that children could learn to imitate and perform the behavior exhibited by a model and concluded that many behaviors outside of the laboratory setting, especially among children are learned through modeling.

Bandura's theory is relevant for service providers in rehabilitation schools. This is because the children in these schools have much to learn from the service providers as they interact with them on a day to day basis. Part of the behavior they learn may have to do with how the service providers deal with their own emotions. This means that, if service providers in rehabilitation schools are high in emotional intelligence, they are likely to exhibit behavior that includes appropriate emotional management and ability to use the emotions to enhance relationships. The children may in turn imitate such behaviors (Bandura, 1965) and consequently develop healthy ways of managing their own emotions and relationships. If on the other hand, these service providers have low emotional intelligence, they may model behaviors that reflect poor management of their emotions and relationships which may result in the children failing to develop healthy ways of dealing with their own emotions and relationships.

2.3. Review of Literature Related to the Study

In order to understand the concept of emotional intelligence, one needs an understanding of the historical development of the concept and the various forces that have shaped its definition. As such in this section, the researcher will begin by tracing the historical development of the concept of emotional intelligence, and then embark on defining the concept as understood today.

2.3.1. Historical Development of Emotional Intelligence (EI)

The general concept of intelligence has a long history. For a long time early Psychologists such as Binet (1916) and Spearman (1904) sought to establish the role of intelligence in determining successful management of one's environment. These early psychologists primarily focused on cognitive aspects, such as memory and problem solving. However,

there were those who from very early recognized that non cognitive aspects were equally important in assisting individuals to effectively manipulate their environments. Notable among these were Thorndike (1937), who made reference to social intelligence and Wechsler (1943), renowned for his research work on human intelligence and development of intelligence tests, who made reference to the importance of non intellectual elements such as affective and conative variables in helping individuals to effectively deal with their environments.

However, the work of these early psychologists almost remained forgotten until the 80s when Gardner (1983) introduced the concept of “multiple intelligence”, emphasizing the importance of both intellectual and non intellectual aspects of intelligence. In the latter, he emphasized the value of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences which were not captured by the traditional IQ tests.

Review of literature indicates that over the years a good number of researchers have shared the idea that IQ by itself is not a very good predictor of job performance .These include; Hunter and Hunter (1984) who estimated that at best IQ accounts for about 25 percent of the variance and Sternberg (1996) who pointed out that studies vary and that 10 percent may be a more realistic estimate.

A key study that supported the limits of IQ as a predictor of success in life is the Sommerville study by Snarey & Vaillant (1985).This was a 40 year longitudinal investigation of 450 boys who grew up in Sommerville Massachusetts. Two-thirds of the boys were from welfare families, and one-third had IQ's below 90. However, IQ had little relation to how well they did at work or in the rest of their lives. What made the

biggest difference were childhood abilities such as being able to handle frustration, control emotions, and get along with other people; aspects that today form part of what has come to be seen as emotional intelligence.

Another example is a study of 80 PhD's in science who underwent a battery of personality tests, IQ tests, and interviews in the 1950s when they were graduate students at Berkeley. Forty years later, when they were in their early seventies, they were tracked down and estimates were made of their success based on resumes, evaluations by experts in their own fields, and sources like *American Men and Women of Science*. It turned out that social and emotional abilities were four times more important than IQ in determining professional success and prestige (Feist & Barron, 1996).

It is therefore clear that since the work of Gardner (1983), more and more researchers have become interested in unearthing and conceptualizing these other aspects of intelligence that were evidently contributing to individuals' successes in life. This interest has resulted into a proliferation of work in the area of what has today come to be defined as emotional intelligence.

Contemporary interest in the field of emotional intelligence can be traced to the works of Salovey and Mayer, when they coined the term emotional intelligence in 1990. In their original model of emotional intelligence, Salovey and Mayer (1990) suggested that emotional intelligence is a form of social intelligence, characterized by five key abilities. These are, the ability to know one's emotions, to handle interpersonal relationships, to use emotions to motivate oneself, to recognize emotions in others and to manage one's emotions. The emphasis in this definition is that emotional intelligence comprises of

abilities. Later they reviewed their model and viewed emotional intelligence as the ability; to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Another key personality that has contributed significantly to the development of the modern field of study of emotional intelligence is Goleman (1995). Having been among the growing number of researchers who were becoming concerned with how little traditional tests of cognitive intelligence predicted success in life, Goleman (1995) researched on the existing ideas on emotional intelligence and eventually put together a book titled "*Emotional Intelligence*", emphasizing the importance of social and emotional abilities for personal success.

The importance of emotional intelligence received a further boost from the growing interest in Positive Psychology, a concept first introduced by Martin Seligman when he became the president of the American Psychological Association (APA). Seligman argued that Psychology had for too long focused on pathology and maladaptive behavior. He challenged psychologists to shift attention to studying human strengths or those things that human beings do right and the factors that enhance them (Seligman 1999). This led to a renewed interest in the area of emotions, an almost previously forgotten field. This has led to increased research interest in positive emotions and emotional intelligence.

Research work on EI today focuses on trying to gather sufficient data to support one or more of the currently existing models of EI such as those of Goleman(1995), Bar-on (1997) and Mayer & Salovey(1997) in order to increase clarification on the EI construct.

It also focuses on trying to generate empirical support for the various existing methods of assessing this construct.

2.3.2. Models of Emotional Intelligence

Initial models of EI often included a long list of attributes or abilities that appeared drawn from a number of aspects of personality psychology. More recent work, however, has focused on a more limited set of emotional and social competencies. One of the prominent models of EI today is that of Goleman (1995). According to him, EI is a set of four key competencies namely; Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness and Social Skills. Self-Awareness includes emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. Self-Management includes self-control, adaptability, conscientiousness, trustworthiness, initiative, and achievement orientation. Social Awareness includes empathy, service orientation, and organizational awareness. Social Skills include leadership, influence, developing others, change catalyst, communication, conflict management, building bonds, teamwork & collaboration

Another contemporary model of EI is advanced by Bar-On (1997). According to him, EI is a set of skills namely; intrapersonal skills including, recognizing and understanding one's feelings, interpersonal skills like empathy, the skill of adaptability such as being able to adjust one's emotions and behaviors to changing situations and conditions and the skill of stress management including resisting or delaying an impulse.

A third prominent model is that of Mayer and Salovey (1997). For them, EI is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to

understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to effectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Today most researchers of EI conduct their studies within one or more of these three models. For purposes of the current research, emotional intelligence is viewed as a set of competencies, key ones being self awareness, self regulation, empathy, motivation and social skills. These cut across the main areas emphasized by most current researchers of EI including, Wood, & Tolley (2003).

2.3.3 Importance of Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace

According to Chermis (2000), by the early 1990's, there was already in existence a long tradition of research on the role of non cognitive aspects in helping people succeed in the workplace as well as in life in general. In addition, in the field of Industrial/Organizational Psychology, many of the non cognitive components measured in assessment centers involved social and emotional competencies such as communication, sensitivity, initiative and interpersonal skills.

Research over the years suggests that, emotional intelligence is important in a wide range of settings, including education, business, and accounts and that emotional intelligence is related to achievement, productivity, leadership, personal health and job performance (Butler & Chinowsky, 2006; Coté & Miners, 2006; Hopkins, O'Neil & Williams, 2007).

Recent studies such as that by Dulewicz, Young and Dulewicz (2005) show that EI is closely associated with job performance, and that EI may be a more reliable predictor of job performance compared to cognitive ability. These researchers investigated among

other variables, the contributions of emotional Intelligence and Intelligent Quotient, on leadership and job performance within the British Royal Navy. They found that emotional Intelligence made a greater contribution to overall performance and leadership compared to Intelligent Quotient.

Similar findings were obtained in a study by Coté and Miners (2006) which examined the relationship between EI, Cognitive Intelligence (CI), and job performance among 175 managerial, administrative, and professional full-time employees of a large public university. EI was measured using the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), while job performance was assessed using supervisory ratings based on a 5-item scale. Results found that CI moderated the association between EI and job performance. EI became a stronger predictor of job performance and organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization (OCBO) as CI decreased. Results suggest that using CI tests alone to predict job performance entails risk, because employees with low CI can perform effectively if they have high EI.

Similar support for the use of EI in predicting workplace performance across a variety of settings is found in the results of a study by Rozell, Pettijohn and Parker (2006) who examined among other variables, the effects of EI on sales performance. They found sales performance to be significantly related to EI. This finding empirically supports the notion that EI is directly related to performance on a variety of tasks. They concluded that EI is valuable for human resource development and a useful selection tool for salespeople.

Such findings suggest that there's an increased likelihood for emotional intelligence to be equally important for the performance of service providers in rehabilitation schools.

Literature also reveals that EI is particularly important for group performance. This is supported by a study by Offermann, Bailey, Vasilopoulos, Seal and Sass (2004) who examined the relative contributions of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Cognitive Ability (CA) on individual and team performance, team-member attitudes and leadership emergence among 425 undergraduate Business students. EI was measured using the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) developed by Boyatzis & Goleman (2001). Results revealed that CA was more related to individual performance, while EI was more related to team performance. This finding suggests that EI has significant positive effects on group performance. Furthermore, individuals who scored higher on the ECI were more likely to emerge as team leaders. Such findings imply that emotional intelligence may be equally important for employees in rehabilitation schools, where teamwork is critical among both the service providers as well as among the children themselves, in carrying out various activities in the school.

There is general support for the idea that managers need to possess high EI. Such EI has been closely associated with improved workers' performance and job satisfaction. This is supported by studies such as those by Sy, Tram, and O'Hara (2006), who investigated the relationships among employees' EI, their managers' EI, employees' job satisfaction, and employees' job performance in the food service industry. They found that employees' EI was positively associated with job performance and satisfaction. In addition, managers' EI had a stronger positive correlation with job satisfaction for employees with low EI than for those with high EI. A similar pattern was found for job performance; however, the effect did not meet traditional standards of significance. These findings remained

significant after controlling for the Big Five personality factors. The findings suggest that managers' EI makes an important difference to employees who possess low EI.

These findings, linking Emotional Intelligence and workplace performance among managers, support those of an earlier study by Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) who found that higher emotional intelligence was associated with high leadership effectiveness among senior executives. Several other recent studies emphasize the importance of EI for effective leadership. These include those by Rego, Sousa, Cunha, Correia and Saur (2007) which examined the relationship between leaders' EI and creativity of their teams using a sample of 138 top and middle managers from 66 organizations operating in the European Union. Their findings suggest that emotionally intelligent leaders behave in ways that stimulate the creativity of their teams.

Similarly, Koman & Wolff (2008) studying aircrew and maintenance military team members found that team leader EI is significantly related to the presence of emotionally competent group norms (ECGN) on the teams they lead, and that ECGN are related to team performance. They concluded that employing leaders with developed EI competencies increases both their own personal performance as well as that of the teams they lead.

Such findings render support to the possibility that EI is equally important not only for the managers of rehabilitation schools but also for those many other service providers in those schools who play supervisory roles in a variety of areas such as dormitories and classes as house masters/mistresses, teachers.

Literature suggests that some aspects of EI are more critical than others in influencing job performance. For instance, Butler and Chinowsky (2006) found a positive relationship between total EQ and transformational leadership among construction executives but identified interpersonal skills and empathy as key EI competencies that need additional attention during the development of construction industry executives. This is supported by findings of Barbuto and Burbach (2006) who found among other things, that the empathetic response of the EI subscales is the most consistent antecedent of transformational leadership behaviors. Similarly Ker, Garvin, Heaton, and Boyle (2006) found differences in the importance of specific EI domains. They had sought to investigate the relationship between EI, as measured by the MSCEIT, and managerial effectiveness, as assessed via subordinate ratings. They found that the total MSCEIT score displayed a strong positive correlation with supervisor ratings. In addition, with regard to the specific MSCEIT domain scores, they found that, the Experiential EI domain, which includes perceiving and using emotions, was highly correlated with supervisor ratings, whereas the Reasoning EI domain, which includes understanding and managing emotions, displayed no significant correlation.

Findings of this nature point to the need for any study on EI to consider investigating the specific importance of each of the EI domains separately, in addition to looking at the total EI score. As such the current study will seek to investigate the relationship between job performance and specific EI domains in addition to the total EI score.

While most studies render support for the importance of EI in work settings, a few others, such as that by Brown, Bryant and Reilly (2006) found some contradicting results. In their investigation of relationships among EI, transformational leadership, and desirable

organizational outcomes, no support was found for hypothesized relationships between EI and organizational outcomes or between EI and transformational leadership. No indication was found that EI is of particular value in these explorations, which the authors suggest brings into question the practicality of EI as a traditional concept to be used in understanding leadership and social influence. Such contradicting findings point to the need for more research into the area of EI across various settings in order to add clarity on its importance for leadership and job performance. This then makes the current study justified, in that it will provide additional knowledge that will help in increasing such clarity.

It is noted that the various EI studies use a variety of EI assessment methods. Some such as, Tsaousis and Nikolaou (2005); Sy, Tram, and O'Hara (2006) and Rego, Sousa, Cunha, Correia and Saur (2007) use self report based methods. Others, such as, Brown, Bryant and Reilly (2006) use the other-report, while still others, such as, Ker, Garvin, Heaton, and Boyle (2006); Côté and Miners (2006) and Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005), assess EI using ability tests(such as the MSCEIT).

The fact that most findings from the studies reviewed above, irrespective of the method used, seem to converge around the importance of EI across a variety of settings gives credit to the role of emotional intelligence in the workplace. This increases the likelihood of similar results for the current study on service providers in rehabilitation school.

2.3.4 Role of Emotional Intelligence in Educational Settings

Considering that rehabilitation schools are in some way considered educational settings, the researcher found it important to review existing literature on the role of emotional intelligence in educational settings. The findings of the review are discussed below.

Emotional intelligence has been indicated as important in education, with educators calling for an increased emphasis on emotional intelligence facilitation, arguing that the timely facilitation of learners' emotional intelligence could significantly improve their ability to deal better with, adapt to and cope with changing surroundings (Elkins and Low (2004); Vela (2003)). Similar ideas are advanced by Elkin and Low (2004) who conducted a study with first-year college students who were planning to become teachers. They identified a clear need to develop communication competence and emotional intelligence skills in these teacher trainees. Vela (2003); Stottlemire (2002) and Nelson and Low (2003, 2005) provided evidence that student achievement could be improved by learning and developing key emotional intelligence skills. Related work by Lyons & Schneider (2005), examining the relationship of ability-based EI facets with performance under stress among undergraduate students, found that EI was related to more challenge and enhanced performance. These studies have identified the need to integrate emotional intelligence instruction into the curricula to improve academic and career success.

More specifically, literature supports the importance of EI for teachers, both during training as well as while in service. Researchers Goad (2005) and Justice (2005) have emphasized the importance and value of emotional intelligence in teacher preparation programs. They indicate that pre-service teacher education, induction experiences with mentoring, and alternative certification programs could be strengthened by providing

emotional intelligence training in preparing new teachers. Emotional intelligence skills have been linked to both classroom management performance and teacher retention factors for new and novice teachers. This is relevant for service providers in rehabilitation schools who have to effectively manage both in-class and out of class activities for the children.

More recently, Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008,) tested for links between EI, affect at work and job satisfaction among 523 educators in Greece. The results showed that EI is an important predictor of work affectivity and job satisfaction in educational settings. Results also indicated that positive and negative affect at work substantially mediate the relationship between EI and job satisfaction with positive affect exerting a stronger influence. Among the four EI dimensions used, the use of emotion and emotion regulation were significant predictors of affect at work whereas perceiving others' emotions was uniquely associated with job satisfaction. It is likely that such job satisfaction may translate into better job performance.

These findings are relevant to rehabilitation settings in that job satisfaction is crucial for service providers in rehabilitation schools, considering that they work with vulnerable children who may place additional emotional demands on them compared to many other settings. While these service providers cannot control issues related to remuneration, resources and facilities, they can learn and choose to develop skilled behaviors to deal with stressors related to their work environment.

Nelson and Low (2005), advocating for transformative learning, argue that emotional intelligence skills are key factors in personal, academic, and career excellence. They call

for the inclusion of emotional intelligence skills and competencies to be delivered in a transformative learning environment in schools and colleges for students and in preparing effective teachers and administrators. They argue that emotionally intelligent teachers are more resilient and proactive in responding to stressors and less likely to react to stress. Teachers who model emotional intelligence are characterized by: intentional reflective (not reactive) behavior, more flexible (not resistant to change), assertive communication (not aggressive or passive), more optimistic and hopeful (not pessimistic and negative), and rely on skills and positive habits (not reactive habits). This is supported by Goad (2005) and Justice (2005) who argue that pre-service, new, and novice teachers could benefit from emotional intelligence training, as emotional intelligence skills are key to managing stress and the daily pressures of life and work.

It emerges from the above literature that, emotionally intelligent teachers are needed in the ordinary classroom to optimize student performance and outcomes. Considering the unique emotional needs of children found in rehabilitation schools, it is even more crucial for the service providers in such settings to possess high levels of emotional intelligence, in order to be able to effectively manage the stress and pressures caused by their daily work with these children.

In spite of the evidence of the importance of EI in educational settings, and the possibility that EI could be equally important for service providers in rehabilitation schools, studies to support the latter are generally lacking. Review of literature indicates that most research efforts on the role of EI have focused on profit based organizations, some service organizations and the ordinary educational institutions. Hardly any literature shows similar work in rehabilitation settings, yet as implied above, this is one area where EI may

be actually a key factor in successful rehabilitation outcomes. This situation implies the need for such studies investigating the role of EI in rehabilitation settings. The current study seeks to meet such a need.

It is further noted that most of the studies on EI in education settings have been done outside Kenya. Hardly any literature exists on the role of emotional intelligence in schools within Kenya and especially in the rehabilitation setting. The current study is therefore timely as it seeks to investigate the role of emotional intelligence on the job performance of service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya. Data from this study will help to test whether findings from other work settings apply to rehabilitation schools, as well as if findings from the rest of the world are applicable to the Kenyan context.

2.3.5. Emotional Intelligence and Gender

It is noted that where as the term gender encompasses much more than just sex differences, most studies including recent ones use the term gender to refer to differences between males and females.

Differences between males and females have been observed across a wide range of behaviors. It was therefore important to find out what literature says with regard to EI of males and females. Literature suggests that gender may have an influence on emotional intelligence, though studies give mixed findings. For instance, a study by Mandell and Pherwani (2003) examined the predictive relationship between EI and transformational leadership style, the gender differences within each construct, and any interaction effects between gender and EI. EI was found to significantly predict transformational leadership style. A significant difference was also found between the EI scores of male and female

managers. Gender, however, did not predict a transformational leadership style over and above EI. These results indicate that EI could be used to identify leaders who demonstrate positive transformational leadership qualities.

Other studies report gender differences in some dimensions of EI and not others. Such is the case with a study by Stone, Parker, and Wood (2006) that found women to score higher than men on the interpersonal dimension of the EQ- I by Bar-On (1997; 2000).

A closely related study, investigating gender differences in EI and leadership effectiveness, found EI to be positively and significantly related to organizational leadership for both genders. Results however revealed no significant differences between male and female software professionals in terms of EI and overall leadership effectiveness (Singh, 2007)

More recently, Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008) sought to investigate among other variables, gender differences in the relationship between emotional and social intelligence competencies and organizational success. The results showed no significant differences between male and female leaders in their demonstration of emotional and social intelligence competencies.

The above mixed findings on gender and EI suggest the need for more research work in the area to bring more clarity on the specific interaction between gender and EI in different settings. Thus, the current study will incorporate testing for differences in EI between males and females as well as control for sex differences while testing for the relationship between EI and job performance.

2.3.6. Emotional Intelligence and Age

There are many assumptions about age and intelligence with, popular literature and “common sense” asserting that older people are more aware, wise, and restrained. The question is, are older people necessarily better in emotional intelligence than younger people? The need to answer this question drove the need to review literature on age and EI, which yielded the following findings.

Anitei (2008) carried out a study on 405 American people between 22 and 70 years of age using the Six Seconds’ emotional intelligence assessment (SEI). He found a positive, significant, but weak relationship between the emotional intelligence and age, $r=.13$ ($p<.01$). These findings suggest that older people are slightly more likely to be higher in EI than younger people. It is likely that accumulated life experiences contribute to higher EI. The link between the emotional intelligence and age has proven to be quite slight. This suggests the need for more studies investigating the role of age in relation to emotional intelligence. It is this need that prompts the current researcher to test for differences in EI across different ages as well as to control for the influence of age while testing the relationship between EI and job performance.

2.3.7. Emotional Intelligence and Educational Qualifications

Considering the emphasis placed on educational qualifications in recruitment of workers into various positions across professions, it was important to find out what existing literature says with regard to emotional intelligence and educational qualifications.

The key question that arises is that of whether academic advancement enhances emotional intelligence. Goleman (1995) argues that trying to teach emotional competencies via the

traditional courses is inappropriate. He argues that the traditional training methods are based on cognitive learning, which draws on different areas of the brain from emotional learning; emotional learning involves ways of thinking and acting that are more central to a person's identity. Moreover, people are more likely to resist being told that they need to learn how (for example) to control their temper or improve their interpersonal skills than they are to being told that they need to improve their technical skills (Goleman, 1995: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD), 2008).

Inferring from Goleman's ideas, it is likely that educational qualifications may not necessarily have a big impact on emotional intelligence. This is particularly so for a Kenyan setting where the education system is more emphatic on cognitive rather than affective aspects. However review of literature suggests that studies investigating the possible influence of educational qualifications on EI are generally lacking. There is need for such studies to provide empirical evidence on the role of educational qualifications in influencing emotional intelligence. For this reason, the current research includes the investigation of the possible influence of educational qualifications on both emotional intelligence and job performance as well as on relationship among service providers in rehabilitation schools.

2.3.8 Emotional Intelligence and Length of Service

A key consideration in recruitment and promotion of workers is work experience or length of service. It is assumed that with increased length of service is better mastery of work related skills and competencies. One wonders whether the same applies when it comes to emotional intelligence. It can be hypothesized that emotional intelligence may improve with length of service considering that as one grows in a job; they become more

mature age wise and can also handle the challenges of the job with more ease. In addition they may have learnt what works and does not with regard to their use of their emotions. Thus they may learn to exhibit more emotionally intelligent behavior.

Studies on the relationship between emotional intelligence and length of service have however shown the reverse to be the case. For instance, a study by Ngah, Jussof and Rahman (2009) found no significant correlation between EI and length of service among academics and middle management employees in Malaysian academia. Similarly, a study by Landa, Lopez-Zafra, Martos and Aquilar-Luzon (2008) found EI not related to length of service among nurses in a General hospital in Spain. These findings are far from conclusive as they represent limited populations. There is need for more studies to investigate the relationship between length of service and emotional intelligence in order to test whether the findings observed by previous researchers apply to workers in rehabilitation school settings.

2.3.9 Development of Emotional Intelligence

There is growing empirical evidence that the type of competencies most closely linked with emotional intelligence are strongly linked with an individual's ability to cope with environmental demands and uncertainties (Maver, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Thus, emotional intelligence has come to be viewed as an important factor in the quality of one's general well-being (Goleman, 2006) as well as an important predictor of one's ability to succeed in the classroom and on the job (Goad, 2005; Lyons & Schneider, 2005). Regardless of the emotional intelligence model, most theorists assume that the various emotional and social competencies or abilities are quite malleable and can be developed and enhanced through appropriate interventions (Bar-on & Parker, 2000).

Based on findings of a study investigating workplace learning in UK hospices, Clarke (2005), concluded that the ability to manage and to use emotions to facilitate thinking and decision-making can be developed using workplace or on-the-job learning methods.

These findings supported those of an earlier study in Sweden by Sjolund and Gustafsson (2001) which compared the EQI scores of 29 individuals before and after they participated in a workshop designed to strengthen emotional and social competencies among other skills. They found significant increases in EQ scores. The findings shed light on the fact that it is possible for emotional intelligence to be improved. This implied that data from the current study could be used as a basis for developing intervention programs geared at strengthening the emotional intelligence of service providers in rehabilitation schools.

2.3.10. The Assessment of Emotional Intelligence

From the literature review above, it is clear that emotional intelligence is important and can be developed, the next important question is about its assessment. This is addressed in this section.

Review of literature indicates that there are various tests that have been developed to assess emotional intelligence. While many of them seem promising, it is noted that many have not been empirically evaluated. For others however, great efforts have been made to empirically validate them. An analysis of the literature on assessment of EI reveals that there are three general approaches currently in use: Self-Report, Other-Report and Ability measures. Each approach has its unique strengths and limitations.

While self report approach is useful in providing information about a person's self-perceptions of their emotional intelligence, the method is not free from the limitations of self report measures such as personal bias in reporting. An example of a self report type of assessment of emotional intelligence is the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) developed by Bar-On (1996)

Another approach is the other report also known as the 360 approach. An example is the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) by Goleman. An individual's score is a reflection of feedback from one's boss, peers, and subordinates. While this approach may yield comprehensive data on one's emotional intelligence as viewed by close observers, there is the risk of their feedback being based on their limited contact with the person or being a reflection of their own personal biases towards him/her.

The third approach is ability based. The assumption underlying the ability tests is that the best way to know a person's ability or skill is to test them at the skill rather than ask them or another party about it. From this model, EI is assessed using tasks designed to measure specific abilities believed to be associated with EI. This is the model adopted by the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) developed by Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (1997).

As earlier indicated, each approach has its set of strengths and weaknesses. It is also noted that most of these tests are yet to be locally validated. Thus in conducting a study on emotional intelligence one has to weigh the strengths and limitations of each of the available approaches and tests.

The current research chose to use an adapted version of the emotional intelligence tests developed by Wood and Tolley (2003), considering that most other tests were far too costly to purchase and most were too long to be practically effective for the rehabilitation school setting.

2.3.11 Job Performance and its Assessment

Job performance is one of the most important work outcomes since the success or failure of an organization or institution depends on the performance of its employees. As such, much effort is put in trying to design appropriate measures of job performance.

There are currently, two approaches to assessing such performance. These are the use of objective performance criteria and that of subjective performance criteria. Objective performance criteria entails measuring some easily quantifiable aspects of job performance, such as the number of units produced, amount of sales or time taken to perform a task. Subjective performance criteria on the other hand involve using judgments or ratings made by some knowledgeable individual such as a worker's supervisor or co-worker (Riggio, 2003).

In choosing between the two approaches one has to examine the nature of work that the specific worker is involved in. Objective methods are relevant for jobs such as production and sales where output is in form of easily quantifiable aspects, such as number of items produced or packaged, or amount of money generated. Subjective methods are suitable for jobs that may not have tangible and easily quantifiable results. This includes service industry where for instance one may not directly link any specifiable quantity to an individual worker alone.

In rehabilitation school setting, for instance, successful rehabilitation of ten children may not be an objective output for a single employee, but rather, it reflects a collective institutional output. Assessing an individual worker's performance using objective methods may therefore not be practical in such a setting. It may be more practical to use the subjective approach.

It is also noted that there are a variety of methods to choose from among the subjective techniques. These include: self appraisals, peer appraisals, subordinate appraisals, customer appraisals, supervisor appraisals, as well as the 360-degree feedback which gathers feedback from all these other methods to give a comprehensive appraisal (Riggio, 2003). While each of the methods has its strengths each also has its share of limitations.

While the 360-feedback approach would be the most ideal, the limitations of cost prohibit its use for the current research. As such, the researcher has to choose from one of the remaining methods. In deciding on the method to use, the researcher has considered the suitability of each, bearing in mind their strengths and limitations, as well as the target respondents and the nature of organization involved in the study.

The researcher felt that a combination of self ratings and the supervisor ratings was likely to give a more reliable and valid image of the individual worker's performance compared to peer rating which may have been greatly influenced by biases of the peer. Customer appraisal was thought to be unsuitable for the rehabilitation school since it's a kind of organization whose core activities are not primarily customer care directed. Subordinate ratings were also ruled out considering that the targeted respondents were from all cadres of the institution rather than those in managerial positions.

In designing specific tools for both self ratings and supervisor ratings, one has to critically analyze the specific work environment and determine the specific performance indicators relevant to that job (Wheaton &Whetzel, 1997). Considering that the target population comprised of service providers performing a variety of tasks, such as teachers, nurses, cooks and social workers, the researcher found it necessary to determine the various job performance indicators that cut across the various work areas in a typical rehabilitation school. These guided the researcher in developing generic items for use in the self -rating and supervisor -rating job performance scales.

2.3.12. Service Provision in Rehabilitation Schools in Kenya

It was important to review literature related to service provision in rehabilitation schools in Kenya. It was noted that to facilitate the rehabilitation process of children in conflict with the law, the Kenya government has recruited various service providers and posted them to rehabilitation schools in a variety of categories to carry out a wide range of duties assumed to be core to the rehabilitation process. Among the key responsibilities of these service providers are teaching, guidance and counseling, providing health care, among others. Some of the key service providers include, children's officers, housemasters/mistresses managers, religious leaders, teachers and support staff who work towards developing and implementing comprehensive programs to ensure that these children reform and get reintegrated into society successfully.

It is noted that service providers play a key role as they are the custodians of the rehabilitation program. Effective rehabilitation depends on the quality of programs they develop for these children as well as the quality of implementation of these programs. Referring to Carl Rogers' (1961) theory it is important for these service providers to

establish conducive therapeutic relationships with the children in these schools in order to help them heal or reform. These service providers need to possess the capacity to accurately perceive the emotions of these children and accurately communicate such understanding to them. They need to apply sensitive listening and understanding in their day to day interactions with these children if they are to generate meaningful healing relationships that can help transform these children.

Literature on Kenyan rehabilitation schools suggests that most service providers lack the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to effectively deal with the challenges that rehabilitating these children requires (Grobber, 2002; Mugo, Musembi & Kangethe, 2006; Njuguna, 2003 & Wakanyua, 1995). Studies such as those by Human Rights Watch (1997), Mugo (2004) and Wakanyua (1995),) suggest that many service providers in rehabilitation schools exhibit insensitivity and hostility towards the very children they seek to assist reform. It may be due to this situation that Grobber (2002), found that some of these children become stigmatized in these very institutions and some leave worse off than they came in. The implication here is that these service providers may not be well equipped to deal with the kind of challenges posed by these children. As such, the need to investigate the emotional intelligence of these service providers is crucial in order to increase understanding of what areas they need to be strengthened in so that they can be able to successfully carry out their rehabilitative mandate.

2.4. Summary of Literature Review

Review of literature indicated that there was still lack of consensus in conceptualizing emotional intelligence with some researchers viewing it as a set of four key competencies Goleman (1995), others as an ability (Mayer and Salovey (1997), while others as a set

of skills (Bar-On (1997) . Most researchers of EI use one or the other of these three models to operationalize the emotional intelligence construct. This implies that there is need for more research to clarify the concept of emotional intelligence.

Another observation from the literature review was that there is generally no agreement on the most suitable method to assess emotional intelligence as a variable. Three general approaches are currently in use: Self-Report, Other-Report and Ability measures. Each approach has its unique strengths and limitations and each researcher has to carefully evaluate them in deciding on the approach to use.

In spite of lack of consensus in conceptualizing and measuring emotional intelligence, research over the years, using the various models and assessment approaches, has provided evidence to show that emotional intelligence is important in a wide range of settings, including education, business, and accounts. Some of the studies have found emotional intelligence to have positive effects on performance (Offermann, Bailey, Vasilopoulos, Seal & Sass, 2004; Sy, Tram, & O'Hara, 2006). A positive relationship has also been found between emotional intelligence and leadership (Dulewicz, Young & Dulewicz, 2005; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Butler & Chinowsky, 2006), as well as emotional intelligence and team performance (Rego, Sousa, Cunha, Correia & Saur, 2007; Koman & Wolff, 2008). Other literature pointed to the importance of emotional intelligence in determining physical and psychological wellbeing, as well as, success in relationships and work (Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2005; Goleman, 2006).

In educational settings, relationships were found between emotional intelligence and performance of students (Vela, 2003; Lyons & Schneider, 2005). In addition literature

suggested that emotional intelligence is important in teacher preparation programs as it helps one better manage stress and the daily pressures associated with the teaching job (Goad, 2005, Justice, 2005; Gary & Darwin, 2005)

In terms of gender as a variable in emotional intelligence, literature review yielded mixed results with some studies reporting significant differences between males and females (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Stone, Parker, & Wood, 2006 and others such as those by Singh (2007) and Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008), indicating no significant gender differences. These mixed findings on EI and gender suggest that there's need for more research work in the area to bring more clarity on the specific interaction between gender and EI in different settings.

Another key aspect that emerged from literature was that emotional intelligence is a malleable competence that can be developed and enhanced through various interventions including workplace or on-the-job learning (Bar-On & Parker, 2000b; Clarke, 2006; Sjölund & Gustafsson, 2001). This implied that there was need to assess the emotional intelligence of workers across various settings in order to establish baseline data that could be used to design on-the-job interventions aimed at enhancing emotional intelligence.

It was observed that most research efforts on the role of EI have focused on profit based organizations, some service organizations and the ordinary educational institutions. Hardly any work had been done in rehabilitation settings, yet as implied above, it is one area where EI was thought to be a key factor in successful rehabilitation outcomes. The

current study was therefore crucial as it would extend emotional intelligence research work into rehabilitation settings.

In addition, it was observed that most of the studies on EI in educational settings had been done outside Kenya. Hardly any literature existed on the role of emotional intelligence in schools in Kenya and especially the rehabilitation schools. The current study was therefore designed to provide data on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya as well as to test whether there were differences in both emotional intelligence and job performance across various demographic variables.

2.5. Research Hypotheses

In view of the literature reviewed, the following hypotheses were generated to guide the study:

1. There are significant differences in the mean emotional intelligence of service providers in rehabilitation schools across various demographic variables, namely:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| (i) Sex | (ii) Age |
| (iii) Educational qualifications | (iv) Length of service |

2. There are significant differences in the mean job performance of service providers in rehabilitation schools across various demographic variables, namely:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| (i) Sex | (ii) Age |
| (iii) Educational qualifications | (iv) Length of service |

3. There is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya.

4. There is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya while controlling for

(i) Sex

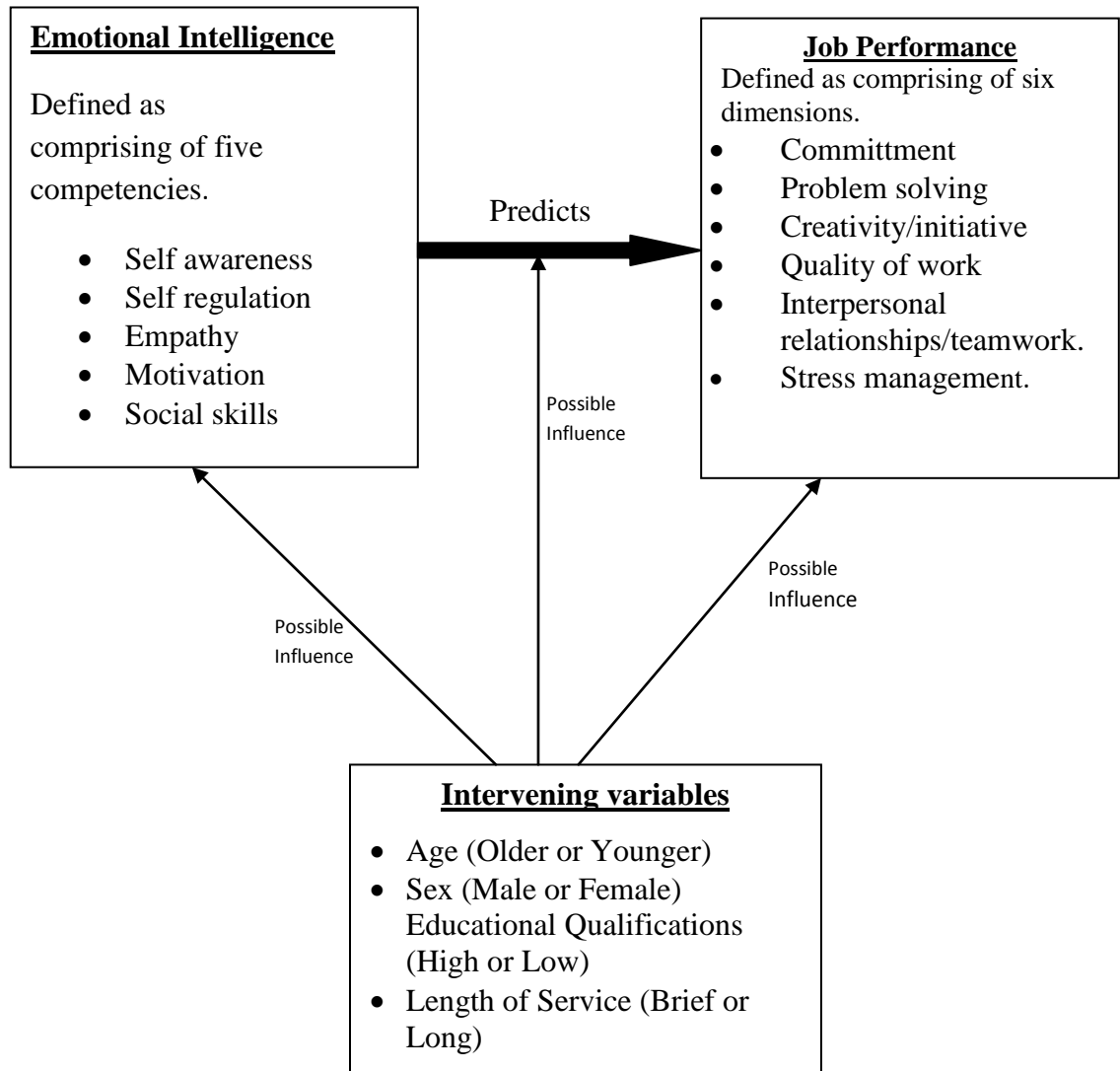
(ii) Age

(iii) Educational qualifications

(iv) Length of service

2.6. Conceptual Framework

Figure 2.6 illustrates the conceptualized framework for the variables under study. As can be seen from the figure, based on the literature review findings, it was assumed that emotional intelligence is a predictor of job performance among service providers in rehabilitation school settings. In addition, it was hypothesized that emotional intelligence and job performance may be correlated due to the influence of some demographic variables such as sex, age, educational qualifications and length of service. This implied that there was a need to control for the effects of these variables while testing for the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance.



Source:Kathungu (2010)

Figure 2.6 The relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter details the research methodology including the research design, variables under study, target population, sampling procedures as well as data collection, and analysis procedures.

3.2. Research Design

This study used a correlational research design. According to (Creswell, 2002) a correlational research design is used to describe the statistical association between two or more variables. In the current study, data was collected on the service providers' emotional intelligence and job performance in order to test the nature and extent of the relationship (if any) between the two variables in the population of service providers in rehabilitation schools.

3.3. Variables under Study

The variables under study were emotional intelligence (EI) and job performance (JP). Other variables were sex, age, educational qualifications, and length of service. In the analysis of the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance, emotional intelligence was the independent variable while job performance was the dependent variable. The other variables were treated as the intervening variables. In the separate analysis of data on the two variables (emotional intelligence and job performance), the variables sex, age, educational qualifications, and length of service were treated as independent variables while emotional intelligence and job performance were treated as dependent variables

3.4. Site of the Study

The study was conducted in selected government rehabilitation schools in Kenya. At the time of the study, there were a total of 8 rehabilitation schools. The 8 schools were Kabete, Likoni, Kakamega, Wamumu, Dagoreti, Kirigiti, Kericho, and Othaya. Out of the 8 schools, two were for girls, namely, Kirigiti and Dagoreti. The remaining schools were for boys. The boys schools were classified into three namely, high risk, medium risk and low risk. Wamumu was under the high risk category while Kericho and Othaya were under the low risk category. Kabete, Likoni and Kakamega were classified under medium risk category.

3.5. Target Population

The population targeted by the study was that of service providers in government rehabilitation schools, in Kenya. At the time of the study, according to the Department of Children's records, there were a total of 103 service providers in these 8 government rehabilitation schools. However on the ground, there were additional service providers engaged by the schools in different ways due to inadequacy of service providers posted by the Children's Department. Due to the fact that these additional service providers were playing key roles in most of these schools, it was found necessary to consider them as part of the target population. Table 3.1 shows the target population by schools according to records obtained from the Department of Children's services as at January 2009.

Table 3.1 Population of service providers in rehabilitation schools

School	Female Service providers	Male service providers	Total
Kirigiti	10	2	12
Othaya	5	6	11
Wamumu	5	10	15
Likoni	3	8	11
Dagoreti	8	7	15
Kabete	5	11	16
Kericho	5	7	12
Kakamega	3	8	11
TOTAL	44	59	103

Source: Department of Children's Services records, January 2009

The service providers in these rehabilitation schools had different designations. There were children's officers, house masters and mistresses, teachers and instructors (for technical courses), Maalim and catechists (religious teachers for Muslims and Christians respectively) among others. The number of various service providers by designation in respective schools is as shown in Table 3.2.

Table3.2. Designations/cadres of various service providers in the target population

Designation/ cadre of Service providers	Kirigiti	Othaya	Wamumu	Likoni	Dagoreti	Kabete	Kericho	Kakamega	Total
Children 's officer	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	16
House master/mistress	1	3	3	1	5	4	4	2	23
Storeman	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	3
Technical instructor	1	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	3
Artisan/charge	1	-	2	1	-	-	-	-	4
Catechist/ Maalim	1	-	-	2	-	1	-	1	5
Cook/ chef	1	-	2	-	2	2	1	1	9
Driver	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	3
Support staff	3	3	1	2	2	1	-	1	13
Teacher	-	2	1	1	3	2	3	1	13
Clerical officer/secretary	-	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	9
House keeper	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	2
Total	12	11	15	11	15	16	12	11	103

Source: Department of Children's Services records, January 2009

3.6. Sampling and Sample Size

To ensure representativeness, proportionate stratified sampling was used to obtain the sample. The schools were stratified into categories based on the sex and level of risk of the children they catered for. The schools were first stratified into girls schools and boys schools. The boys schools category was further stratified into three strata, namely high risk, medium risk and low risk. It was observed that the girls schools did not have the risk categorization hence were treated as one stratum. Random samples of schools were then proportionately drawn from each stratum. In some cases, where there was only one school in a stratum it become self-selecting. For instance in the girls category since Kirigiti had already been used in the pilot study, there was only one school left in that category, that was, Dagorreti, which therefore became self-selecting. In the Boys high risk category, there was only one school, Wamumu, which therefore became self-selecting. In the low risk category, there were two schools. One of them, Othaya, was randomly selected to represent the category. The medium risk category had three schools. Two schools, Kabete and Likoni were randomly selected to represent the category. The decision to select two schools from this category was based on the fact that the proportion of medium risk schools in the population was higher than that of the other categories.

A total of five schools out of the eight were obtained for the sample. Due to the small number of service providers in each school all the service providers in the selected schools were included in the sample making a total sample size of 81 service providers. In each school, two service providers were identified to serve as supervisors who would rate the job performance of the rest of the service providers in their school. Usually the two supervisors were the school manager and deputy manager since they are the ones in charge of administration in the rehabilitation schools. In some situations where either of

the two was on leave, the person left in charge of the duties of the absent person was considered the supervisor. The specific number of service providers in the sample is shown in table 3.3.

Table 3.3. The sampled schools and their service providers

School	Number of service providers according to Department of Children's services	Number of service providers on the ground
Kakamega	11	12
Dagorreti	15	13
Wamumu	15	20
Othaya	11	19
Likoni	11	17
Total	63	81

3.7. Research Instruments

A total of three instruments were used to collect data for the study namely; the emotional intelligence scale for service providers, the self-rating job performance scale and the supervisor rating job performance scale. In addition to the three, was a short questionnaire on demographic information. Each of the three is described in detail below

3.7.1 Emotional Intelligence Scale

The emotional intelligence scale was an adapted version of items borrowed from the tests of Emotional Intelligence developed by Wood, and Tolley (2003). The items were adapted accordingly to suit the local context. This scale comprised twenty items covering

five areas of emotional intelligence namely; self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. The scale had four items covering each of these five areas hence giving the total of 20 items. The items comprised descriptions of typical day-to-day situations in which one would be expected to respond with emotional intelligence. For each item, there were three possible typical responses, A, B, C representing three levels of emotional intelligence, namely, high, intermediate and low emotional intelligence. The respondent was to choose from the three possible responses the one that most closely indicated how he/she would respond when confronted with such a situation. To reduce the possible effects of a response set, the numbering of the possible responses was intermixed across the items, such that any one of the letters A, B, C, could represent either of the levels of emotional intelligence for different items. For instance, letter A could represent high emotional intelligence in one item and low emotional intelligence in another item.

For each item on the emotional intelligence scale, Wood and Trolley (2003) provide a template to score each of the responses from among the three options as representing either high, low, or intermediate emotional intelligence. Therefore, using this template, the individual's response to each item was appropriately scored as high, low or intermediate. Numerical scores were then attached to each level with 3 representing high, 2 representing intermediate and 1 representing low emotional intelligence. Hence for each item, an individual was assigned the score corresponding to the level of emotional intelligence of his/her specific response. The individual's total score on the scale was then computed by adding together the numerical scores for all the 20 items.

Since the lowest possible score per item was 1 and the highest possible score per item was 3, and there were a total of 20 items, the lowest possible score for any respondent was

$1 \times 20 = 20$, while the highest possible score was $3 \times 20 = 60$. The midpoint or intermediate score was $2 \times 20 = 40$. The scores were then transformed by calculating their percentages. Hence, the lowest possible score became $20/60 \times 100 = 33.33$ while the highest possible score was $60/60 \times 100 = 100$.

3.7.2. Job Performance Scales

There were two job performance scales; one was based on self-ratings while the other was based on supervisor ratings. The scores of the two scales were combined to form the final individual service provider's job performance score. The two scales were similar with a total of 18 items. The job performance scales were developed by the researcher based on performance indicators identified as key to successful job performance in the context of rehabilitation schools. The scales covered six key areas of job performance, namely; commitment to work, problem solving, creativity/initiative, quality of work, interpersonal relationships/team work and stress management. There were three items under each of these areas giving a total of 18 items.

3.7.2.1 Self -rating Job Performance Scale

For the job performance self-rating scale, each respondent was required to give a self-rating of his/her performance relating to the behavior described in each item. The individual was required to rate the frequency with which he/she exhibited the described behavior using a Likert like scale with five possible responses namely, almost always, most times, regularly, rarely, very rarely. For instance for an item like " I observe punctuality in attending to my duties", the respondent indicated the frequency with which he/she generally exhibits that specific work related behavior by ticking on the most appropriate response from the five options.

For the purposes of this rating scale, “Almost always”, meant the behavior was exhibited nearly all the time (about 90-100 % of the time) while “Most times”, meant the behavior was exhibited a lot of times but not all the time (about 75% of the time). “Regularly”, meant the behavior was exhibited a satisfactory number of times (about 50 % of the time) , “Rarely” meant the behavior was exhibited few times (about 25 % of the time), while, “Very rarely”, meant the behavior was almost never exhibited (below 10% of the time)

3.7.2.2 Supervisor -rating Job Performance Scale

This tool was very similar to the job performance self-rating scale. This scale was used by the supervisors to rate the job performance of the service providers. To enhance the reliability of the ratings, each service provider was separately rated by a supervisor and an assistant supervisor. For each item, the two supervisors separately rated each of the service providers under their supervision using the Likert like scale described under job performance self-rating scale above. The mean of the two supervisors’ ratings formed the supervisor based job performance score that was combined with the self-rating score to arrive at the final job performance score for the individual. In addition to the three instruments, information was also collected on demographic variables of the respondents such as age, sex, educational qualifications and length of service.

To score the job performance scales numerical scores of 1 to 5 were assigned to each possible response for each item as follows. A score of 5 for “almost always”, 4 for “most times”, 3 for “regularly”, 2 for “rarely” and 1 for “very rarely”. There were some negative items included in the scale to help improve reliability by reducing a response set tendency. These items were reversely scored with a score of 5 being assigned to “very

rarely” and a score of 1 to “almost always”. Hence for each item, an individual was assigned the score corresponding to his/her specific response. The individual’s total score on the scale was then computed by adding together the numerical scores for all the 18 items. Since the lowest possible score per item was 1 and the highest possible score per item was 5, and there were a total of 18 items, the lowest possible score for any respondent was $1 \times 18 = 18$, while the highest possible score was $5 \times 18 = 90$. The scores were then transformed to percentages. Therefore, the lowest possible score became $18/90 \times 100 = 20$ while the highest possible score became $90/90 \times 100 = 100$.

3.8. Pilot Study

To check the appropriateness of the instruments, a pilot study was conducted using 15 service providers in one of the rehabilitation schools randomly sampled from the target population. This pilot school, Kirigiti Girls School was excluded from the final sample. The pilot study was used to enhance the validity and reliability of the research instruments. Areas identified as potential sources of problems in the instruments were improved accordingly before the final administration of the instruments.

3.9. Validity and Reliability

In the development of the research instruments, efforts were made to enhance the validity and reliability of the tests through generating sufficient number of items that cover the key areas without making the tests too long as to cause respondent boredom and fatigue. In developing the job performance scales the researcher worked closely with the officers from the Children’s Department, under which the rehabilitation schools fall. These officers were considered to be experts on the relevant performance indicators for

successful job performance in a rehabilitation school setting. This helped to enhance the validity of the job performance scales.

The validity of the emotional intelligence scale was also enhanced by adapting the items to make them relevant to the Kenyan context. Those items describing situations that were not relevant to the Kenyan context were modified accordingly to reflect situations that were more applicable to the local Kenyan context. For example, a situation asking how the person would react if delayed in an airport bus was rephrased to read bus without airport.

Test-retest reliability was used to check the reliability of the emotional intelligence and job performance measures. During piloting, the instruments were administered on two successive occasions with a period of three weeks in between the first and second administration. It was assumed that three weeks interval was long enough to ensure the respondents did not recall their responses from the first testing, and short enough to ensure there was no substantial change in the behavior under investigation. Reliability coefficients of $r_{xx}=.79$ and $r_{xx}=.84$ were obtained for the emotional intelligence and job performance scales respectively. These correlations were considered adequate since researchers generally recommend values of $r = .80$, or larger as ideal when using correlation to measure the reliability of measurement (Cohen, 1988; Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). In addition, inter-rater reliability was used to check the degree of agreement between the two supervisors during both the pilot and the final study. Correlation coefficients of $r= .89$ and $r=.87$ were obtained respectively.

Efforts were also made during test administration to enhance validity and reliability. These included establishing the necessary rapport with the respondents and giving clear written and verbal instructions to the respondents to ensure that the tasks were clearly understood. Bearing in mind the challenges posed to validity and reliability by self-report methods, the purpose of the study was clearly explained to the respondents and they were assured that their responses would be treated with utmost confidentiality and would only be used for the intended research purposes. This was to encourage respondents to respond with honesty hence enhance validity and reliability.

3.10. Data Collection

The researcher used three experienced research assistants to assist in data collection. These assistants were well-inducted in advance to ensure they were well-versed with the data collection procedures and to ensure consistent conditions of administration of the tools. The emotional intelligence scale and demographic questionnaire were individually administered to each service provider, in order to obtain data on the service providers' emotional intelligence levels as well as on their demographic information. The job performance scale was administered to the identified supervisors of the respective service providers who were expected to independently rate the job performance of each service provider under their supervision. Considering the sensitivity of the subject under study, every effort was made to create the necessary rapport and to explain to the participants the nature of the study and the purpose for which the results would be used, that is, for research purposes only. Participants were assured of confidentiality in handling their results and their written informed consent sought before they participated in the study. Efforts were made to debrief the participants after the instruments' administration to deal with any unwanted psychological effects of the testing.

3.11. Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to conduct both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses on the data obtained. Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was computed to determine whether there was a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence and job performance scores. Partial correlations were also conducted to determine whether there was a relationship between Emotional Intelligence and job performance while controlling for effects of gender, age, educational qualifications, length of service and regional differences.

Correlations were also computed to test for relationships between dimensions of EI and general job performance, dimensions of job performance and general EI as well as between dimensions of EI and dimensions of job performance. The statistical hypotheses were tested at the significance level of $p \leq .05$.

3.12. Data Management and Ethical Considerations

Prior to carrying out the study, the relevant authority to conduct research was obtained from the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, the Children's Department as well as the respective school managers.

The research participants were duly informed of the nature of research and their written informed consent sought prior to carrying out the study. Further, respondents were informed that they were free to withdraw from the research at any stage if they felt that they could no longer physically or mentally continue with the research. Respondents' data was treated with utmost confidentiality during and after the research and used only

for the intended research purpose. In addition, efforts were made to debrief the participants after the instruments' administration to deal with any unwanted psychological effects of the testing.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the findings of the study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section comprises the demographic characteristics of the sample. The second and third sections comprise the findings of the data on the independent variable (emotional intelligence) and dependent variable (job performance) respectively. The fourth section reports the findings on the relationship between the two variables (emotional intelligence and job performance) while the final section gives a summary of the results.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

The initial sample had a total of 81 service providers. However, during the actual data collection, 11 of the service providers were not accessible as they were away on leave or off and efforts to contact them were fruitless. In addition, 7 of the service providers declined to participate in the study for what they termed as personal reasons. As such, the final sample size used in the study was 63 (representing a 22% non response rate). Out of the 63 respondents, 10 served as supervisors who were used to rate the rest of the service providers. The 10 supervisors were excluded from providing data on their emotional intelligence and job performance. It was found prudent to exclude them since including them meant that they would have to rate themselves as well as others and this was likely to affect the validity and reliability of their ratings. At the same time, it was difficult to

have their performance rated by their supervisors as these were outside of the institution. As such data on both EI and JP was obtained from 53 service providers.

Data on the sample was analyzed in terms of various demographic variables such as specific school representation, risk category, sex differences, age, educational qualifications, length of service and regional distribution. The findings of this analysis are described below.

4.2.1 Distribution of Schools in the Sample

The sample was drawn from five of the eight government rehabilitation schools in Kenya.

Figure 4.1 shows the representation of schools in the sample.

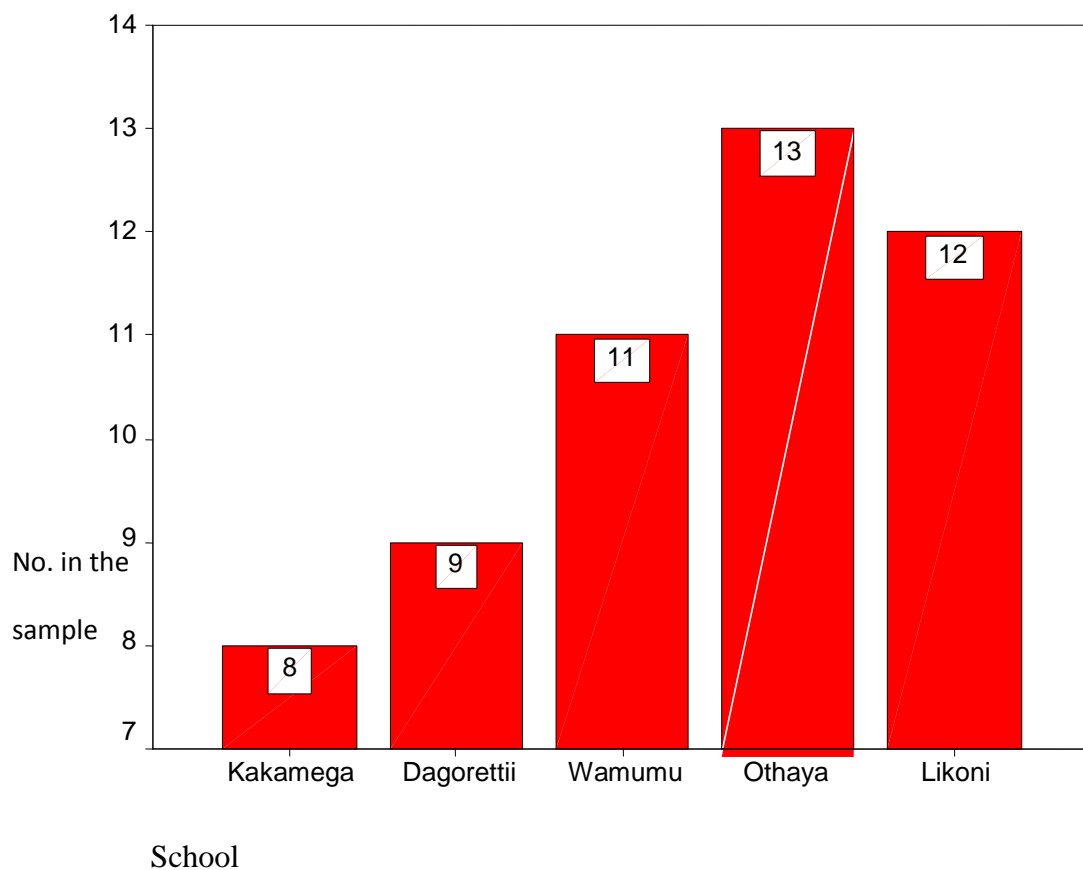


Figure 4.1 Schools' representation in the sample

4.2.2 School's Categorization in the Sample

The sample comprised schools representing the four main categories of rehabilitation schools, namely; boys high risk, boys medium risk, boys low risk and girls schools.

Figure 4.2 shows the representation of these categories in the sample.

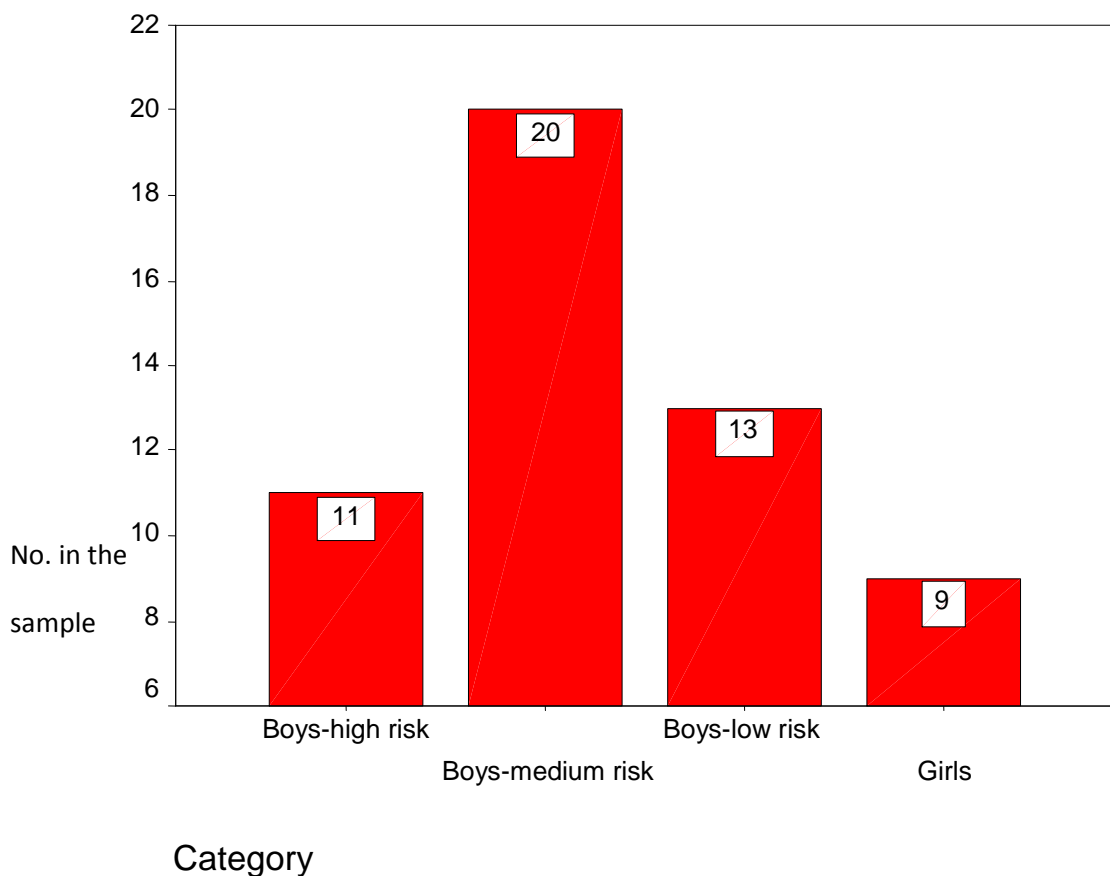


Figure 4.2 School's categorization in the sample

As shown in figure 4.2, the boys medium risk category had the highest representation followed by the boys low risk. The girls category had the lowest number of service providers.

4.2.3 Sex Distribution in the Sample

The sample comprised both males and females. Their distribution is as shown in the pie chart in figure 4.3.

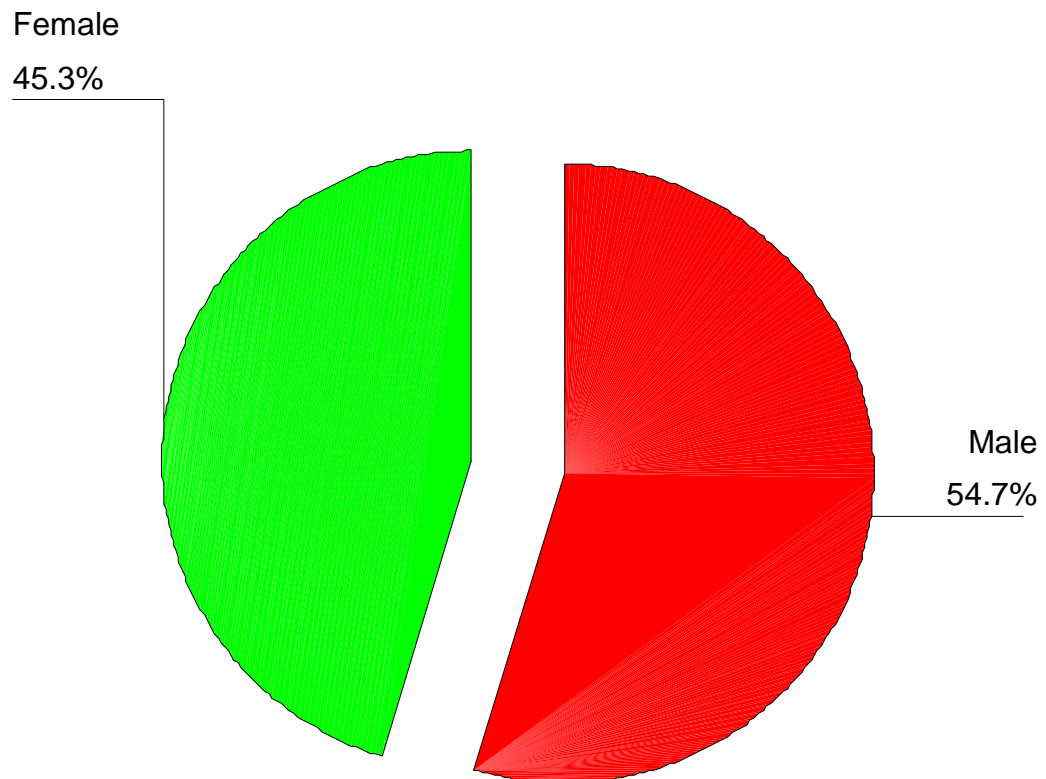


Figure 4.3 Distribution of respondents by sex

Figure 4.3 shows that there were some differences in the distribution of male and female service providers in the sample with the males being slightly more than the females.

4.2.4 Age Distribution in the Sample

The age of the respondents varied from below 30 years to over 50 years. The distribution of respondents across the various age brackets is as shown in the pie chart in figure 4.4.

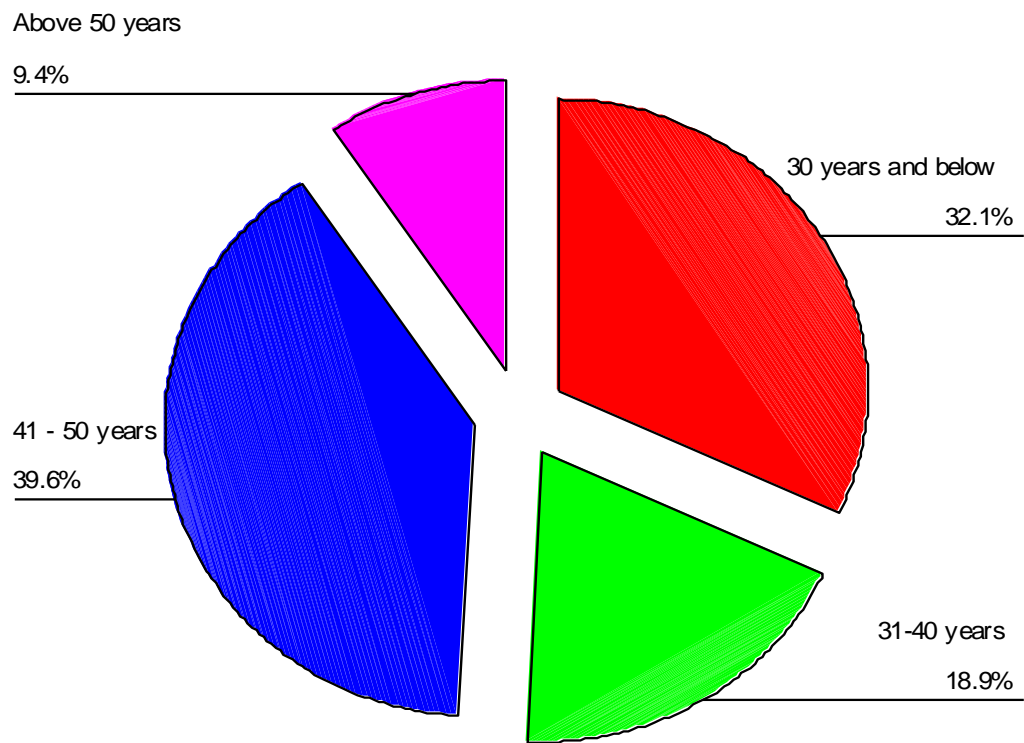


Figure 4.4 Age distribution in the sample

From figure 4.4 , the participants aged above 40 years(that is a combination of those 41-50 and above 50 years) were 49%, while those below 40 years of age were 51% . It is further evident that there were higher percentages of the older (above 41 years) and the younger (30 years and below) service providers compared to the percentage of those in the middle age bracket (31-40 years), who formed only 18.9% compared to 49% for the older service providers and 32.1% for the younger ones.

4.2.5. Educational Qualifications' Distribution in the Sample

The respondents varied in terms of educational qualifications. The minimum qualification was completion of primary school while the highest was completion of Bachelors degree.

The specific distribution of educational qualifications is shown in the pie chart in figure 4.5.

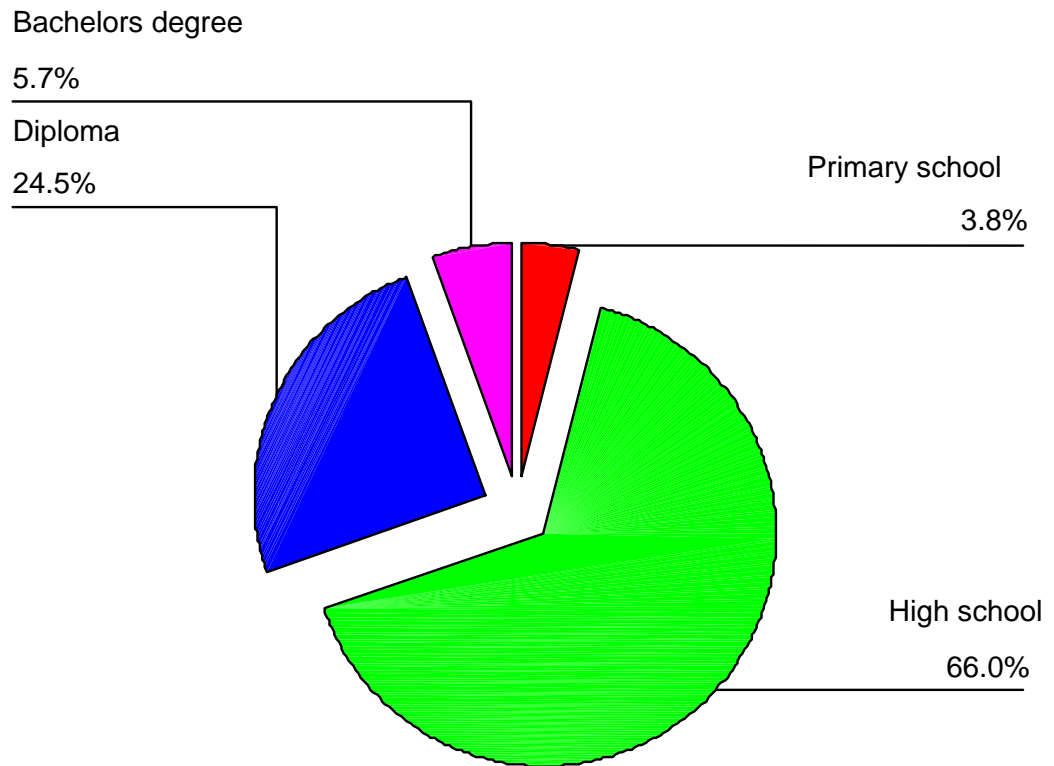


Figure 4.5 Educational qualifications distribution

From figure 4.5, it is evident that majority of the service providers, (66%) had attained high school education while only 30.2 % had qualifications beyond high school , with a mere 5.7% having achieved university education.

4.2.6 Length of Service

The respondents varied in terms of their length of service. While some had worked for only one year ,others had worked for over 20 years. The bar graph in figure 4.6 shows the specific distribution of length of service across the sample.

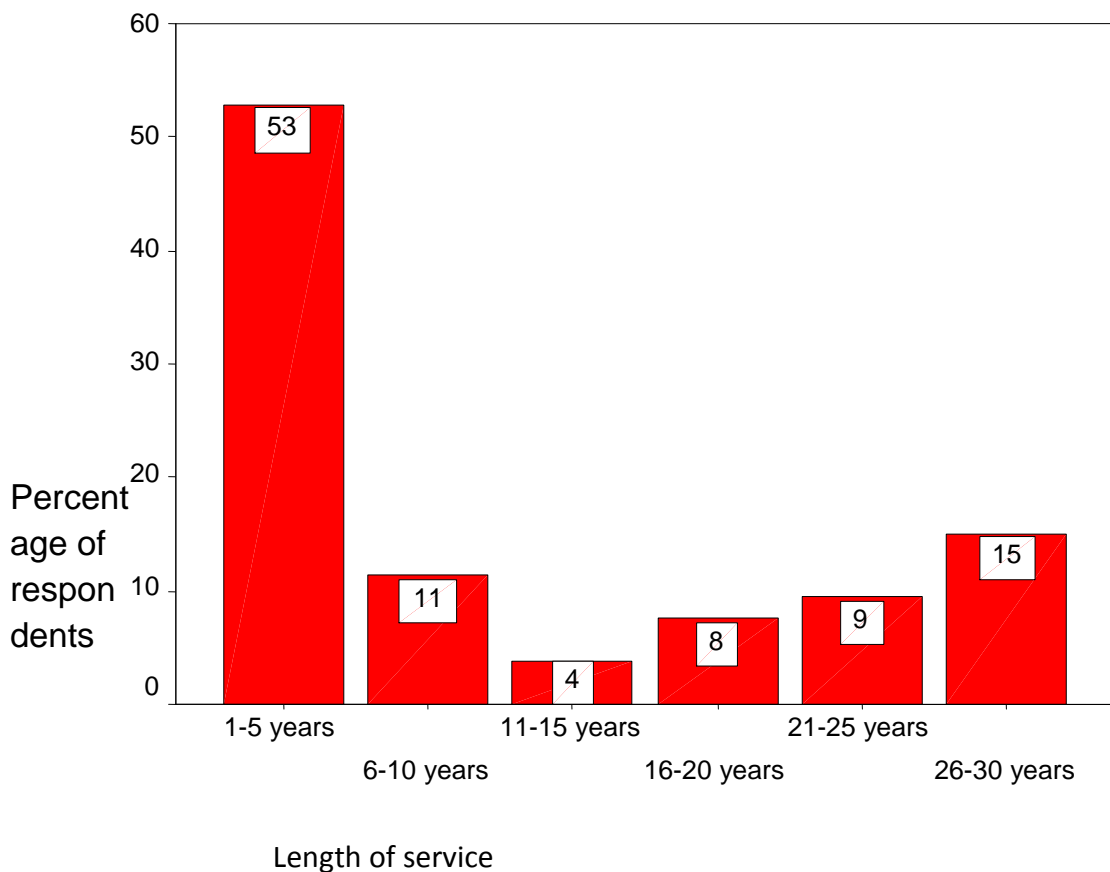


Figure 4.6. Length of service

As shown in figure 4.6 , the bulk of the workforce (53%) had worked for only 5 years and below, while the remaining 47% had between 6 and 25 years experience with a considerable percentage (15%) having served for over 25 years suggesting that they were nearing retirement. Only about 32% had between 6 and 25 years experience.

4.2.7 Regional Distribution in Sample

For purposes of this analysis, the five schools were grouped into regions based on perceived similarity. Dagorreti was classified as being in the Nairobi region due to its proximity to Nairobi. Wamumu and Othaya were grouped under Central region as they are in the heart of Central Province. Likoni was classified under Coast region, while Kakamega was classified under Western region. The distribution of the regions in the sample was as shown in the pie chart in figure 4.7.

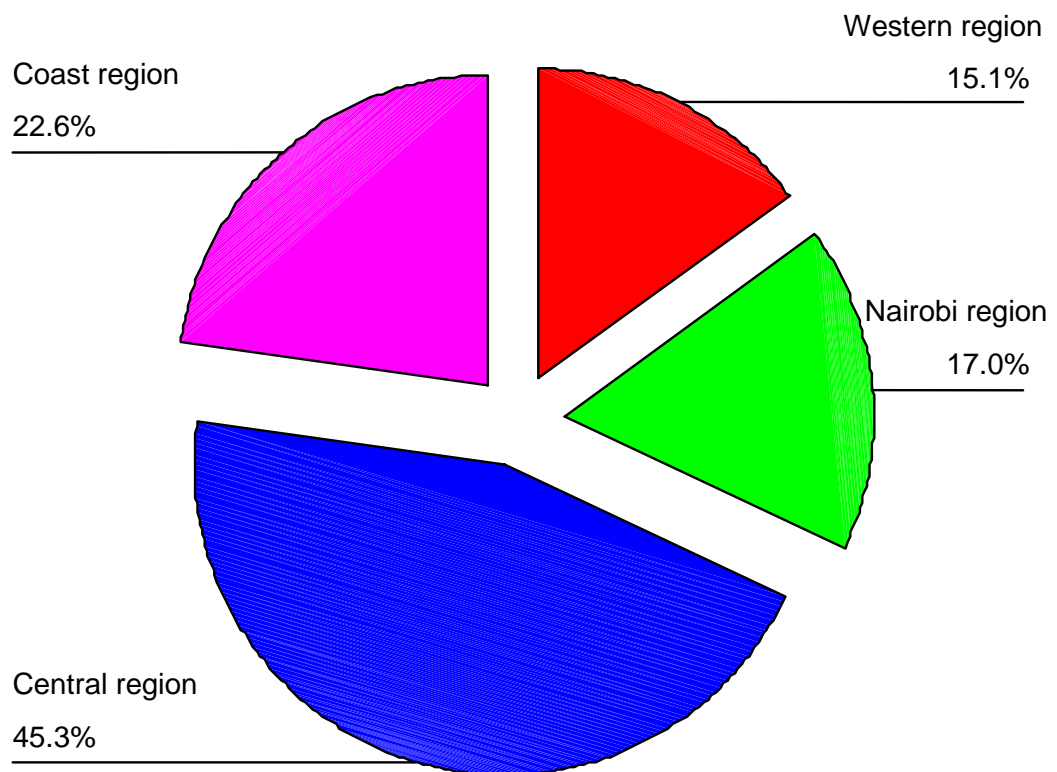


Figure 4.7 Regional distribution

From the pie chart in figure 4.7, Central region had the highest number of respondents while the rest had almost equal numbers, with Coast region having a slightly higher representation compared to the other two.

4.2.8 Service providers' designations

In terms of the designations of the various service providers, the following data was obtained.

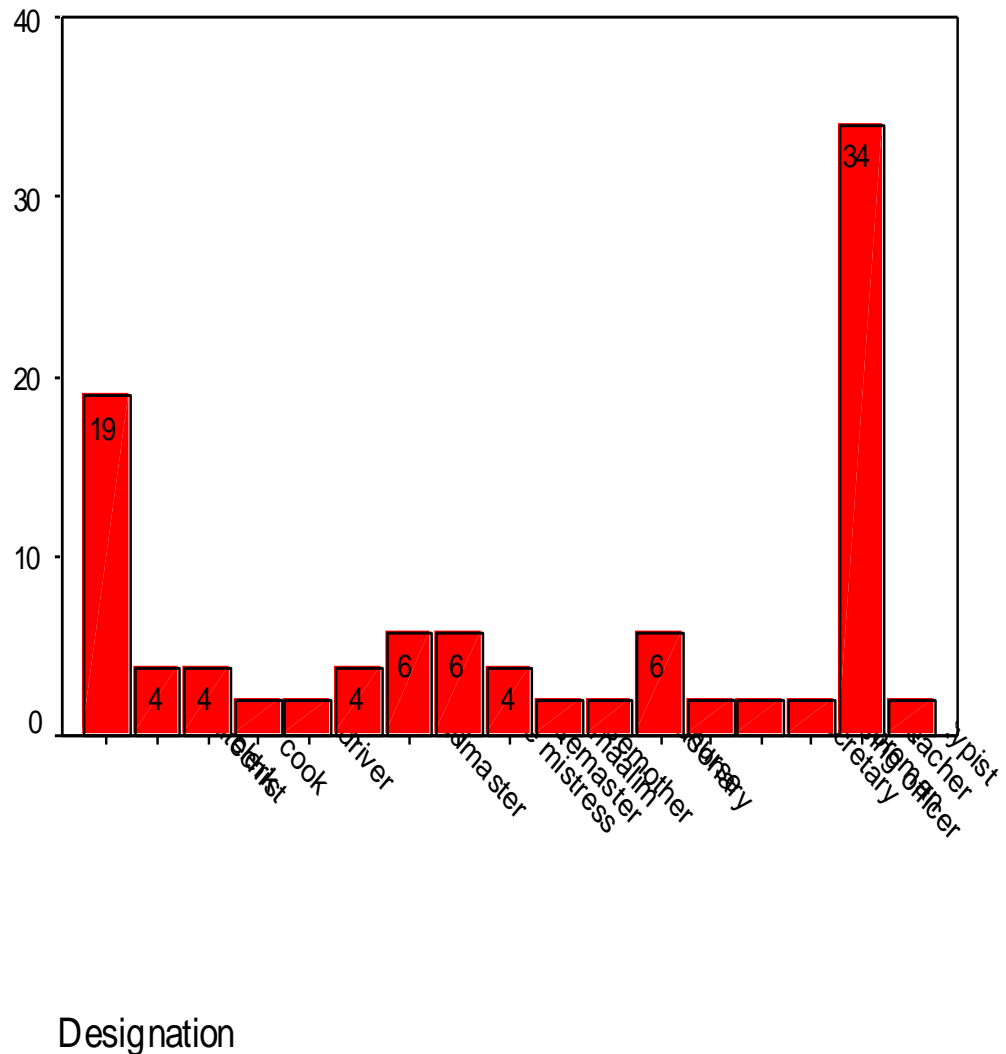


Figure 4.8: Service providers' designations

From figure 4.8, the highest numbers of service providers were designated as teachers. A substantial number did not indicate their designation.

From figure 4.9, the service providers were involved in several responsibilities, with the highest number being involved in teaching followed by guiding and counseling. Some 23% did not indicate their responsibilities

4.2.10. Service Provider's posting Details

The following data were obtained in terms of whether the service providers were posted by the Ministry of Gender Children and Social Development Services or not. Yes represents those posted by Ministry while no represents those not posted by the Ministry

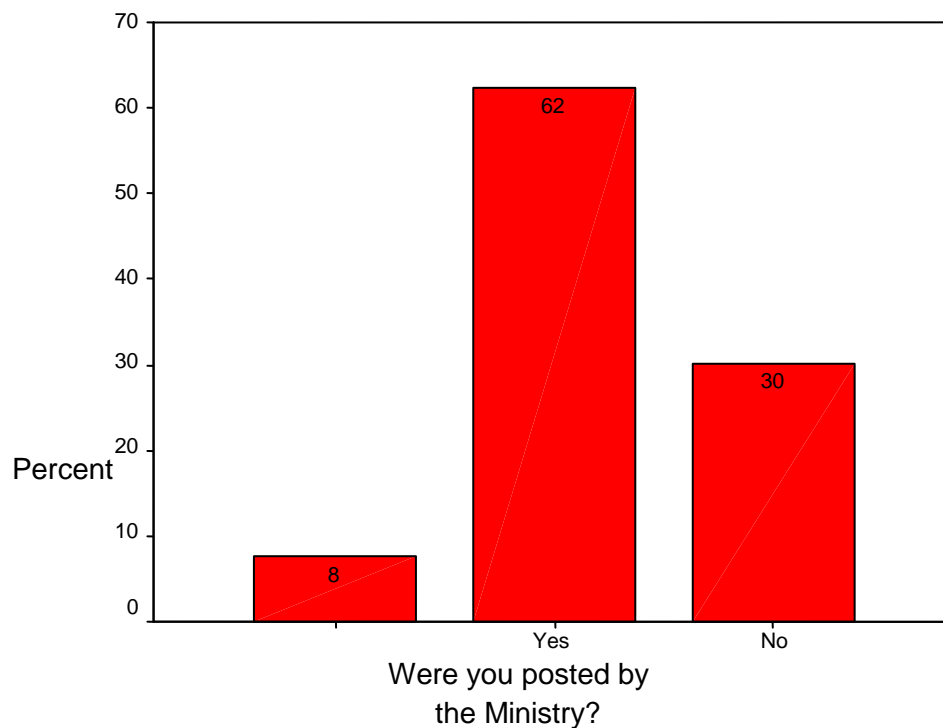


Figure 4.10: Whether the service providers were posted by the Ministry of Gender Children and Social Development Services

From figure 4.10, about 30 % said that they were not posted by the Ministry of Gender Children and Social Development Services. Another 8 % did not respond to the question. A follow-up question on who posted those who were not posted by the Ministry revealed the following results.

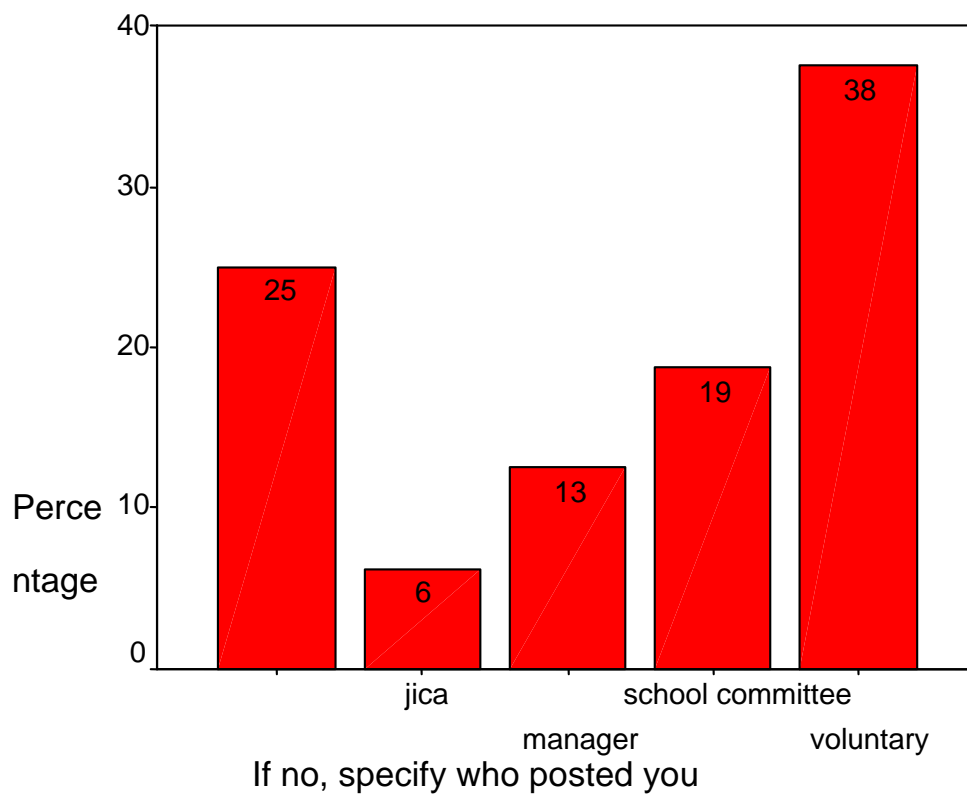


Figure 4.11: Who posted the service providers who were not posted by the Ministry of Gender Children and Social Development Services

From figure 4.11, several of the service providers who were not posted by the Ministry said that they were volunteers while a good number were recruited by the managers and

school committees. Another substantial number did not indicate who posted them. It is possible that the number that did not respond was not sure of their posting position but this cannot be confirmed.

4.3 Emotional Intelligence of Service Providers

4.3.1 General Emotional Intelligence Scores

Descriptive data analysis was carried out on the emotional intelligence scores. Table 4.1 gives the obtained descriptive statistics of the emotional intelligence scores.

Table 4.1 Descriptive statistics of the emotional intelligence scores

N	Valid	53
	Missing	0
Mean		77.1363
Std. Error of Mean		.92152
Median		78.9466
Mode		79.50
Std. Deviation		6.70878
Variance		45.00773
Skewness		-.758
Std. Error of Skewness		.327
Kurtosis		.242
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.644
Range		30.00
Minimum		60.00
Maximum		90.00
Percentiles	25	73.4993
	50	78.9466
	75	80.9992

From table 4.1, the lowest score was 60 while the highest was 90. The mean of the emotional intelligence scores was 77.14 with a standard deviation of 6.71. About 50% of the subjects had scored above the mean. The following histogram gives a visual impression of the distribution of the emotional intelligence scores.

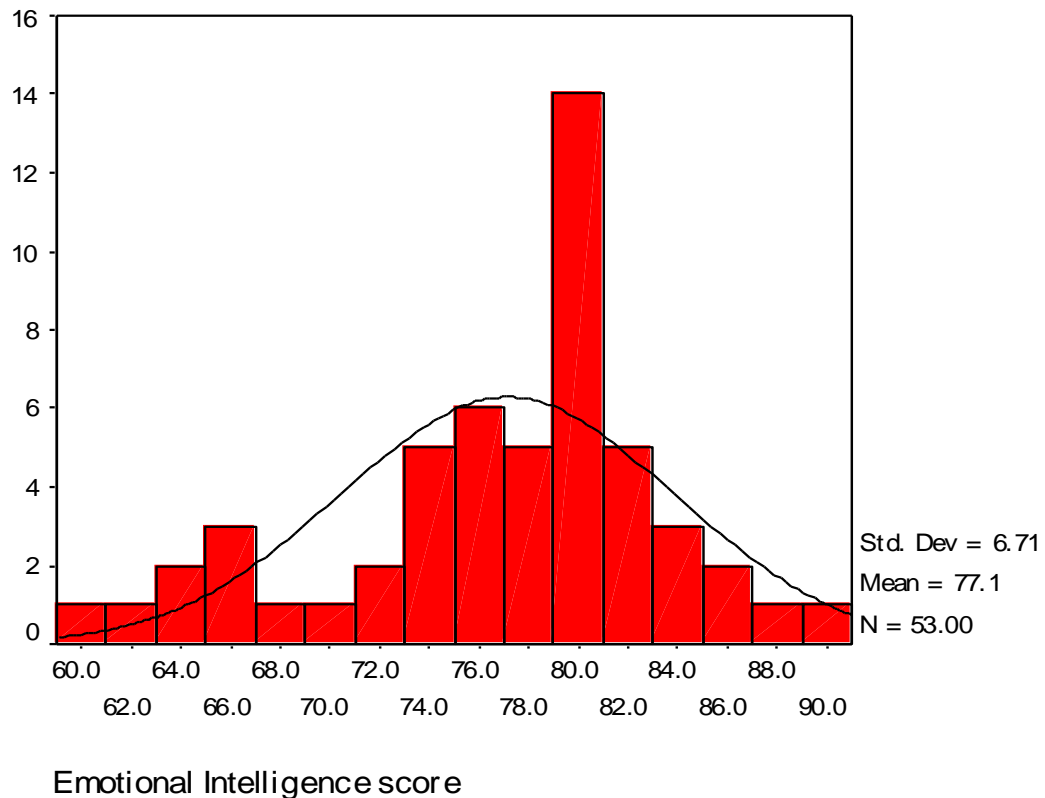


Figure 4.12 Distribution of emotional intelligence scores

From the histogram above, the distribution of emotional intelligence scores in the sample is roughly symmetrical. There is one peak which represents scores around 80. Majority of the scores cluster around the mean, between 74 and 82 suggesting a superior performance.

4.3.2 Emotional Intelligence and Sex

In order to compare emotional intelligence of the different sexes, descriptive statistics were obtained. The results are as shown in the table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Emotional Intelligence across sex

	Males		Females	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Emotional Intelligence	77.40	6.98	76.82	6.50

From table 4.2, the means and standard deviations of service providers were relatively similar for males and females. However, on the average, males had slightly higher emotional intelligence than females.

To test the hypothesis of no significant differences in EI between males and females, one way ANOVA was used. The obtained ANOVA was not significant, $F(1, 51) = .10, p = .76$. Because the p value was greater than .05, the null hypothesis was retained that there are no significant differences in emotional intelligence between the males and females.

4.3.3 Emotional Intelligence and Age

To compare emotional intelligence across various age categories, descriptive statistics were obtained. The results are as shown in table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Emotional intelligence across age

	30 yrs and below		31-40years		41-50 years		Above 50 years	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Emotional Intelligence	75.59	6.04	77.05	7.05	78.08	7.75	78.60	3.11

As shown in table 4.3, there were slight differences in the mean emotional intelligence for different age groups with those older generally having a higher mean compared to those younger.

To test the hypothesis of no significant difference in EI across age groups, one way ANOVA was used. The obtained ANOVA was not significant, $F(3, 49) = .50, p = .68$. The fact that the p value is greater than .05, we retain the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences between the various age groups.

4.3.4 Emotional Intelligence and Educational Qualifications

To compare the emotional intelligence of service providers with different educational qualifications, descriptive statistics were obtained. The results are as shown in table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Emotional intelligence across educational qualifications

	Primary education		High school		Diploma		Bachelors' degree	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Emotional Intelligence	74.25	3.18	77.82	6.48	76.15	7.73	75.34	8.11

As shown in the table 4.4, there were some differences in the mean emotional intelligence scores across different educational qualifications with those that had completed only primary education having a lower mean and a smaller standard deviation compared to those with higher qualifications. Performance however did not seem to improve with increasing educational qualifications beyond high school, in fact, it seemed to decrease.

To test the hypothesis of no significant differences in EI across educational qualifications, one way ANOVA was used. The obtained ANOVA was not significant, $F(3, 49) = .40$, $p = .76$. The p value is greater than .05, therefore we retain the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences between service providers of different educational qualifications

4.3.5 Emotional Intelligence and Length of Service

To compare the emotional intelligence across service providers with different lengths of service, descriptive statistics were obtained. The results are as shown in table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Emotional intelligence across length of service

	1-10 years		11-20 years		21-30 years	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Emotional Intelligence	76.36	6.45	79.42	5.45	78.11	7.93

As shown in table 4.5, there were differences in the emotional intelligence scores across different lengths of service, with the group with between 11 and 20 years of work experience forming the peak.

To test the hypothesis of no significant differences in EI across lengths of service, one way ANOVA was used. The obtained ANOVA was not significant, $F(5, 47) = .96, p = .45$. Since the p value is greater than .05, we retain the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in emotional intelligence among service providers with different lengths of service

4.4 Service Providers' Job Performance

4.4.1. General Job Performance Scores

Data on job performance were analyzed descriptively to give an overall image of the performance of the participants in the job performance scales. Table 4.6 shows the obtained descriptive statistics for the job performance scores.

Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics of the job performance scores

N	Valid	53
	Missing	0
Mean		66.4558
Std. Error of Mean		.85201
Median		66.1029
Mode		60.00(a)
Std. Deviation		6.20271
Variance		38.47356
Skewness		-.024
Std. Error of Skewness		.327
Kurtosis		-.578
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.644
Range		26.74
Minimum		52.00
Maximum		78.74
Percentiles	25	62.0000
	50	66.1029
	75	71.8571

a Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

From table 4.6, the mean of the job performance scores was 66.46 with a standard deviation of 6.20. The mean (66.48) and median (66.10) were quite close to each other, suggesting that the distribution of the scores is close to symmetrical. The mode was 62.5. Close to 50 % of the respondents scored above the mean.

The following histogram gives a visual impression of the job performance scores.

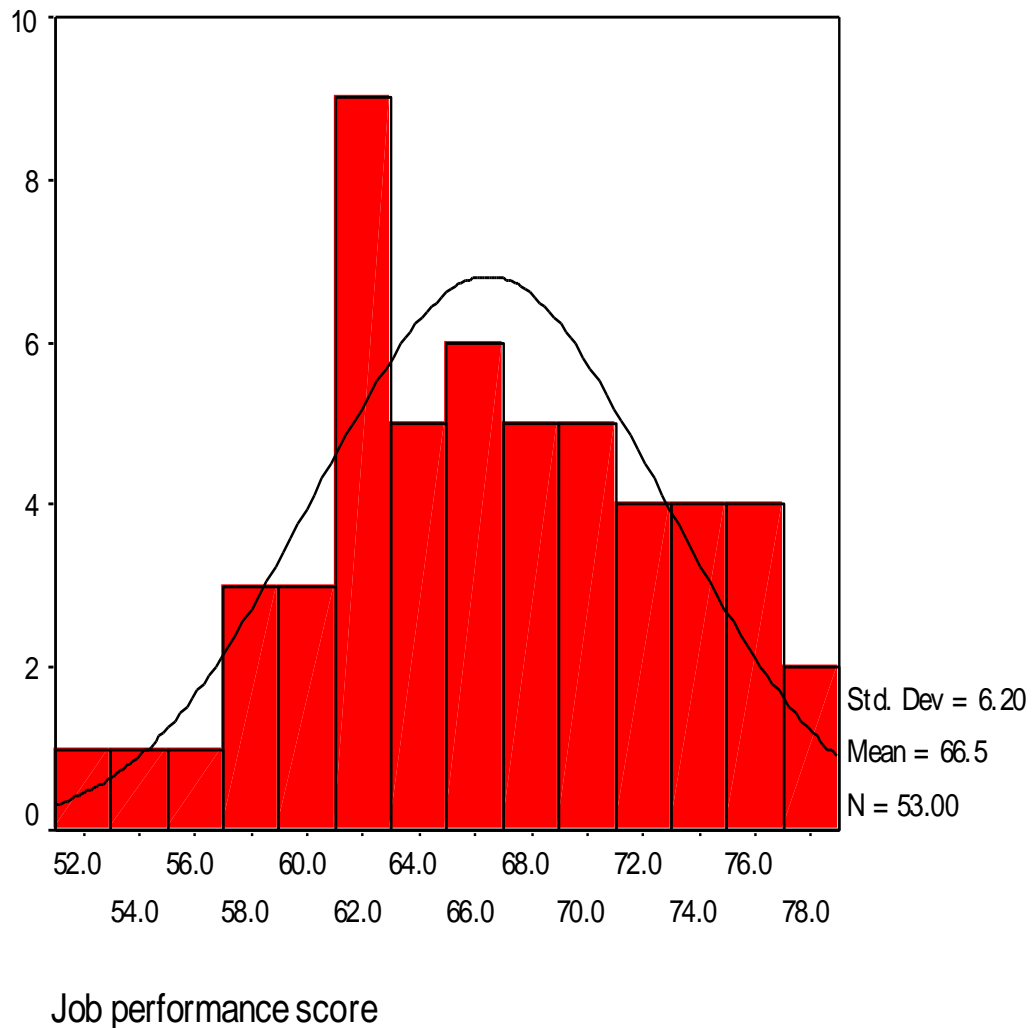


Figure 4.13 Distribution of job performance scores

From the histogram in figure 4.17, the distribution of job performance scores in the sample is roughly symmetrical. There is one peak in the distribution representing those who scored 62, representing the mode. The bulk of the scores fall around the mean, between 62 and 70.

4.4.2 Job Performance and Sex

To compare job performance of the different sexes, descriptive statistics were obtained. The results are as shown in table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Job performance across sex

	Males		Females	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Job performance	66.91	6.66	65.90	5.69

From table 4.7, the means and standard deviations of service providers were slightly different for males and females. On the average, males had higher job performance than females

To test the hypothesis of no significant difference in JP between males and females, one way ANOVA was used. The obtained ANOVA was not significant, $F(1, 51) = .35, p = .56$. Since the p value is greater than .05, we retain the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in JP between males and females.

4.4.3. Job Performance and Age

To compare job performance across different age brackets, descriptive statistics were obtained. The results are as shown in table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Job performance across age

	30 yrs and below		31-40years		41-50 years		Above 50 years	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Job performance	65.99	5.62	65.64	8.57	67.74	5.67	64.28	5.51

From table 4.8, there were some differences in the mean job performance across different age groups, though they were not consistent. However, the age group above 50 years had a generally lower mean compared to the rest of the age groups.

To test the hypothesis of no significant differences in JP across age groups, one way ANOVA was used. The obtained ANOVA was not significant, $F(3, 49) = .58, p = .63$. The fact that the p value is greater than .05, we retain the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in JP across different age groups.

4.4.4. Job Performance and Educational Qualifications

To compare the job performance of service providers of different educational qualifications, descriptive statistics were obtained for job performance scores across the age categories. The results are as shown in table 4.9

Table 4.9 Job performance across educational qualifications

	Primary	High school	Diploma	Bachelors'
--	----------------	--------------------	----------------	-------------------

	education				degree			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Job performance	67.97	7.74	65.93	6.58	68.28	5.36	63.67	4.76

From table 4.9, there were some differences in the means and standard deviations for different educational qualifications. Those with bachelor's degree had the lowest mean but also the smallest standard deviation. Diploma holders had a higher mean compared to the other groups.

To test the hypothesis of no significant differences in JP across educational qualifications, one way ANOVA was used. The obtained ANOVA was not significant, $F(3, 49) = .69$, $p = .57$. Since the p value is greater than .05, we retain the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in JP among service providers with different educational qualifications.

4.4.5 Job Performance and Length of Service

To compare the job performance of service providers of different lengths of service, descriptive statistics were obtained for job performance scores across lengths of service. The results are shown in table 4.10.

Table 4.10 Job performance across lengths of service

	1-10 years		11-20 years		21-30 years	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>

Job performance	66.12	6.72	68.73	4.31	66.29	5.66
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From table 4.10, there were some differences in the means and standard deviations for service providers with different lengths of service. Generally, those with medium length of service had a higher mean compared to those with shorter and longer lengths of service.

To test the hypothesis of no significant differences in JP across lengths of service, one way ANOVA was used. The obtained ANOVA was not significant, $F(5,47)=.33, p=.89$. Since the p value was greater than .05, we retain the null hypothesis that there are no significant differences in JP across service providers with different lengths of service.

4.5 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance

To investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance, the following two statistical hypotheses were tested:

H₀₃: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools.

H₀₄: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools while controlling for various demographic variables namely:

- (i) Sex
- (ii) Age
- (iii) Educational qualifications
- (iv) Length of service

4.5.1. Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance

The null hypothesis to be tested was:

H_{03} : There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools.

To test this null hypothesis, the Pearson Product Moment correlation was used. The Pearson Product –Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) was chosen because the two variables, emotional intelligence and job performance were quantitatively measured and each individual case had scores on the two quantitative variables. In addition, the data met the two key assumptions underlying the Pearson Product Moment correlation. These assumptions are; that the variables are bivariately normally distributed as indicated by a linear relationship between the two variables and that the cases represent a random sample from the population, with scores on one case being independent of scores for other cases (Green & Salkind, 2003). A scatter plot of the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance was plotted to assess whether the two variables were linearly related before a Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (r) could be computed. The scatter plot is shown in figure 4.8.

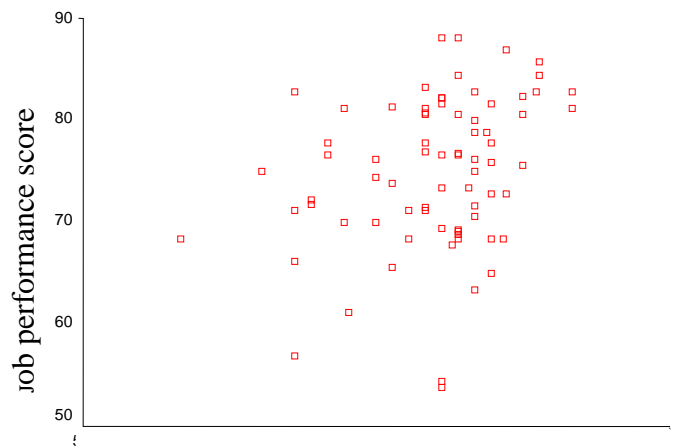


Figure 4.14. Scatter plot of the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance

From the scatter plot in figure 4.14, there was evidence of some degree of linear relationship though weak, between emotional intelligence and job performance, where higher scores of emotional intelligence tended to go with higher scores of job performance, and lower scores of emotional intelligence tended to go with lower scores of job performance. It was, therefore, concluded that it was reasonably safe to compute a Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient and test its significance. The significance test for r evaluates whether there is a linear relationship between the two variables in a population. Table 4.11 shows the results of the Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficient computation and its subsequent significance test at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.11. Correlation between emotional intelligence and job performance

	Emotional Intelligence	Self regulation	Self awareness	Motivation	Empathy	Social skills	Job performance	Commitment	Problem solving	Creativity	Quality of work	Team work	management
Emotional Intelligence													
Self regulation	.681(**)												
Self awareness	.657(**)	.612(**)											
Motivation	.534(**)	.083	.209										
Empathy	.633(**)	.239	.256	.269									
Social skills	.490(**)	.030	-.137	.233	.315(*)								
Job performance	.287(*)	.022	.104	.293(*)	.132	.279(*)							
Commitment	.239	.265	.214	.161	.135	-.034	.589(**)						
Problem solving	.255	.170	.081	.301(*)	.013	.186	.586(**)	.713(**)					
Creativity	.229	.145	.126	.285(*)	.040	.116	.607(**)	.765(**)	.798(**)				
Quality of work	.270	.212	.140	.174	.091	.101	.529(**)	.411(**)	.277	.157			
Team work	.383(*)	.145	.049	.108	.341(*)	.482(**)	.287	.165	.033	.082	.425(**)		
Stress management	.168	.008	.010	.072	.100	.238	.237	.022	.235	.175	.386(**)	.184	

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

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

N= ranged between 40-53

From table 4.11, a correlation coefficient(r) of 0.29 was obtained between job performance and emotional intelligence which was significant at 0.05 level. According to several researchers such as Cohen (1988), Gravetter & Forzano (2009) and Green & Salkind (2003), for the behavioral sciences correlation coefficients of $r = .10$, $r = .30$ and $r = .50$ are interpreted as small, medium and large coefficients respectively. The obtained r of 0.29 which is approximately equal to 0.30 therefore, indicates a moderate positive relationship between the two variables, emotional intelligence and job performance. Since the obtained $p=(0.04)$ was less than the set 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis that there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance was rejected at 0.05 level. The alternative hypothesis, that there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance was therefore, retained at the 0.05 level.

4.5.2 Relationship between Dimensions of EI and Dimensions of Job

Performance

From table 4.11, all the five dimensions of emotional intelligence were related to job performance. However only 2 out of the 5 correlations were statistically significant at .05 levels. These were the motivation and social skills dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Further, from table 4.11, all the six dimensions of job performance were related to emotional intelligence. However, only 1 out of the 6 correlations was statistically significant at the .05 level. This was the teamwork dimension.

In terms of the relationship between dimensions of EI and those of JP, table 4.11 shows that four of the correlations were statistically significant at .05 levels. These were the correlations between motivation and problem solving, motivation and creativity, empathy and teamwork, social skills and teamwork. Interestingly, the social skills dimension was negatively correlated with commitment to work though the correlation was weak and not statistically significant.

4.5.3. Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance while Partialling out the Effects of Various Demographic Variables

Ho₄: There is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools while controlling for various demographic variables namely:

- (i) Sex
- (ii) Age
- (iii) Educational qualifications
- (iv) Length of service

To test this hypothesis, partial correlation coefficients were computed for each of the demographic variables and their significance tested at the .05 level. According to Green and Salkind (2003), the partial correlation is calculated to evaluate why two variables are correlated. A possible explanation is that the two variables are correlated because they have a common cause. In the current study, certain demographic variables had been hypothesized to have an influence on both emotional intelligence and job performance. It was, therefore, possible that the obtained correlation between emotional intelligence and job performance was due to them sharing some common causal variables such as sex, age, educational qualifications and length of service. It was, therefore, important to hold each of these demographic variables constant and to

test whether the two variables emotional intelligence and job performance would still be correlated. Partial correlations were therefore, obtained while holding each of these demographic variables constant. The obtained results are reported in table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Partial correlation coefficients while controlling for various demographic variables

Demographic variable controlled for		Job performance
Sex	Emotional intelligence	.2846 (50) P= .041
Age	Emotional intelligence	.2846 (50) P= .041
Educational qualifications	Emotional intelligence	.2894 (50) P= .037
Length of service	Emotional intelligence	.2852 (50) P= .04

(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)

From table 4.12, for each of the demographic variables namely, sex, age, educational qualifications and length of service, slightly moderate partial correlations of 0.28, 0.28, 0.29, and 0.29 were obtained respectively. In each case a *p* value of less than .05 was required for significance. The obtained *p* values were all less than .05. This led to the rejection of the null hypothesis that the population partial correlation was equal to zero for each of these demographic variables. The obtained partial correlation

coefficients were therefore, significant. This meant that emotional intelligence and job performance were still positively correlated when demographic variables namely sex, age, educational qualifications and length of service were held constant.

4.5.3 Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of Job Performance

A regression line was plotted to evaluate the prediction of job performance from emotional intelligence for service providers in rehabilitation schools. The results are as shown in figure 4.15

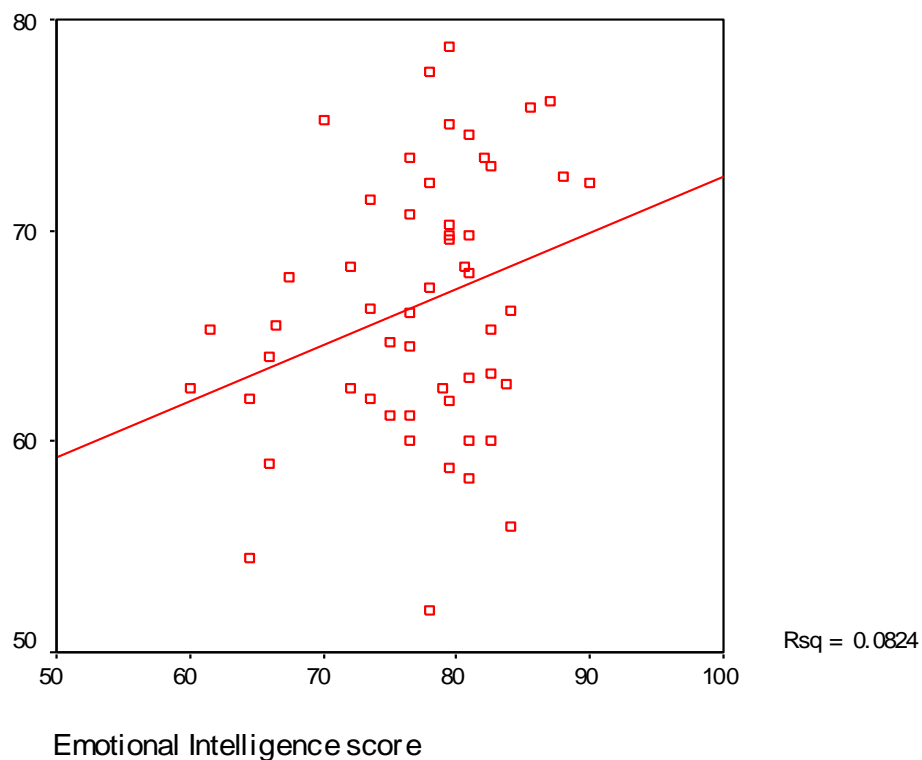


Figure 4.15 Regression line for predicting job performance from emotional intelligence

An examination of the regression line shown in figure 4.15 above indicates some predictability though some points fall off the line indicating poor prediction of those

points. A simple linear regression analysis was calculated predicting subjects' job performance based on their emotional intelligence. A significant regression equation was found $F(1, 51) = 4.58, p < .05$ and $t(51) = 2.14, p < .05$ with an R^2 of .082. Subjects' predicted job performance is equal to $.27 \text{emotional intelligence} + 45.990$. Approximately 8 % of the variance of the job performance index was accounted for by its linear relationship with the emotional intelligence index.

4.6 Summary of Results

The following is a summary of the results from the data analysis.

In terms of demographic characteristics of the sample, there were various findings. In terms of sex differences, there were an almost equal number of males and females.

With respect to age, the bulk of the service providers were in the older (over 40 years) and younger (30 years and below) age brackets represented by 49% and 32.1% respectively, compared to only 18.9% of those in the middle age bracket. This indicates the presence of a workforce that is dominated by extremes in terms of age, that is, many younger and older service providers and few in the middle.

In terms of educational qualifications, the bulk of the workforce in the rehabilitation schools was average in terms of educational attainment with majority of the service providers (69.8%) having attained high school education and below while only 30.2% had qualifications beyond high school, with a mere 5.7% having achieved university education.

With regard to the length of service, the analysis revealed a workforce that is heavy at the lower end and relatively weak at the middle. The bulk of the workforce (53%) had worked for only 5 years and below, while only about 32% had between 6 and 25 years of service. A considerable percentage (15%) had a long service of over 25 years suggesting that they were nearing retirement.

Descriptive data analysis on the independent variable, emotional intelligence, revealed several findings. The mean emotional intelligence score of service providers was generally high ($M= 77.13$) with a standard deviation of 6.71

In terms of differences across sex, on the average, males had slightly higher emotional intelligence than females though the differences were rather slight. ANOVA revealed that the differences were however, not significant.

Analysis of emotional intelligence across various age groups revealed that emotional intelligence seemed to increase with age though the differences were slight. The mean for the age group 30 years and below was 75.59 compared to 78.60 for the group above 50 years of age. Analysis of variance, however, revealed that the differences were not significant.

On educational qualifications, there were some differences in emotional intelligence across different educational qualifications with those that had completed only primary education performing lower than, those with higher qualifications. Performance, however, did not seem to improve with increasing educational

qualifications beyond high school, in fact, it seemed to decrease. ANOVA revealed that the differences were, however, not significant.

Analysis of emotional intelligence scores across different lengths of service revealed some differences, with the group with middle length service(11-20 years) registering a higher performance compared to those with shorter and longer periods of service. The obtained differences were, however, not significant

Descriptive data analysis was also done on dependent variable, job performance and revealed the several findings. The mean emotional intelligence score of service providers was generally high (M= 66.46) and a standard deviation of 6.20.

In terms of job performance differences across sex, the differences were slight, with males tending to perform higher than females. However, the differences were not significant.

A comparison of various age groups revealed that some differences in job performance with the age group above 50 years having a generally lower mean compared to the rest of the age groups. The differences were, however, not significant.

Analysis of job performance across different educational qualifications revealed some differences in the means and standard deviations for different educational qualifications with those with bachelor's degree having the lowest mean and those

with diploma having the highest mean. ANOVA revealed that these differences were however not significant

About length of service, there were differences in job performance with those with medium length of service having a higher mean compared to those with shorter and longer lengths of service. These differences were, however, not significant

Statistical analysis of the data on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance revealed several findings. The null hypothesis that there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools was rejected at .05 level. The alternative hypothesis, that there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance was, therefore, accepted at the .05 level.

In terms of dimensions of emotional intelligence, all the five dimensions of emotional intelligence were related to job performance. However, only 2 out of the 5 correlations were statistically significant at .05 levels. These were motivation and social skills dimensions of emotional intelligence. In terms of dimensions of job performance the six sub areas of job performance were related to emotional intelligence. However, only 1 out of the 6 correlations was statistically significant at the .05 level. This was the teamwork dimension.

In terms of dimensions of emotional intelligence and those of job performance four of the correlations were statistically significant at .05 levels. These were the correlations between motivation and problem solving, motivation and creativity, empathy and

teamwork, and social skills and team work.

The regression equation for predicting job performance from emotional intelligence was; predicted job performance = 0.27 emotional intelligence + 45.99. The amount of variance in job performance accounted for by its linear relationship with emotional intelligence was approximately 8 %.

The null hypothesis of no relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools while holding constant various demographic variables namely, sex, age, educational qualifications and length of service was rejected as all the obtained partial correlation coefficients were significant at the .05 level. This meant that emotional intelligence and job performance were still positively correlated when demographic variables namely sex, age, educational qualifications and length of service were held constant.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the discussions of the findings, as well as the conclusions and recommendations drawn from them. The chapter begins with the discussion of the findings, followed by a section on the conclusions drawn from the discussions and finally a section on the recommendations arising from the study.

5.2 Discussion of the Results

This study sought to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya. It was hypothesized that there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools. In this section, the researcher discusses the findings of the study including their implications under four sub-sections. The first sub-section discusses the findings from the analysis of demographic information of service providers, the second and third sections discuss the findings on the independent variable (emotional intelligence) and the dependent variable (job performance) respectively, while the final sub-section discusses the findings on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance.

5.2.1 Demographic Information of Service Providers in Rehabilitation Schools

Based on demographic analysis of the sample which was assumed to be representative of the population under study, various observations were made. On sex differences, there was an almost equal number of males and females suggesting that there is some sort of balance in terms of sex of service providers. With respect to age, it was found

that the bulk of the service providers were in the older (over 40 years) and younger (30 years and below) age brackets represented by 49% and 32.1% respectively, compared to only 18.9% of those in the middle age bracket(31-40 years). This reflected a workforce that was generally dominated by extremes in terms of age, that is, many younger and older service providers and few in the middle.

In addition, the finding that close to 50 % of the work force was aged between 40 and above, reflects a generally aging workforce considering that these are government organizations where retirement age was just recently increased to 60 from 55. This means that a considerable number of service providers in these institutions is on its way to leaving the workforce, a situation that has implications with regard to succession and continuity, and ultimately, on the quality of future service provision in these institutions and which needs to be urgently addressed.

About educational qualifications, the bulk of the workforce in the rehabilitation schools was found to be average in terms of educational attainment with majority of the service providers (69.8%) having attained high school education and below while only 30.2 % had qualifications beyond high school , with a mere 5.7% having achieved university education. These findings have implications for successful outcome of rehabilitation programs in rehabilitation schools in Kenya. This is because these institutions have a serious responsibility bestowed upon them that of transforming vulnerable children into law abiding and responsible citizens of these country, a task that requires high level of understanding of the dynamics of individual and social behavior. This means that, such institutions need to be served by people with professional training in key areas such as Psychology, Counseling, Psychiatry,

and Sociology among others. Such qualifications are attained at least in diploma education but mainly at university level education. The findings, therefore, imply that such professional qualifications are lacking among most service providers in these rehabilitation schools. Earlier studies have made similar observations and have advocated the need for more professionals to be posted to serve in these institutions (Kinyua, 2004; Gachara, 2007). The current researcher found that majority of the workers, were assigned a responsibility of counseling, though they were not designated as counselors nor did they have training in counseling. Such findings raise questions about the need to evaluate the role of the service providers' educational and professional qualifications in the quality of rehabilitation outcomes for these key institutions.

With regard to the length of service, the analysis revealed a workforce that is heavy at the lower end and relatively weak at the middle. The bulk of the workforce (53%) had worked for only 5 years and below, with a substantial number having worked for about one year. Only about 32% had between 6 and 25 years of service. Another considerable percentage (15%) had a long service of over 25 years suggesting that they were nearing retirement. The presence of a bulk of newly employed service providers was suggesting that a good number of workers had been recently replaced possibly due to retirement. It was also found that in several institutions, a good number of workers had retired and not been replaced, leaving a gap in service provision and leading the managers in some of the institutions to have to hire staff at the school level on a casual basis. This has implications on quality of service provision as newly recruited workers are likely to be more inexperienced and need to

learn key job skills from those that have served longer who in these cases are the minority.

In addition to the above demographic information, it was observed that several service providers were providing guidance and counseling yet they were not designated as counselors. This suggests that the importance of counseling for these institutions is recognized, yet the necessary framework for its provision including designation of qualified counselors was lacking. Similar findings had been reported by Gachara (2007) and Kinyua (2004).

Similarly, it was found that majority of the service providers were designated as teachers and yet the primary goal of rehabilitation is not about formal education but rehabilitation so that the children can reform as quickly as possible and hopefully go back to join regular schools. This situation needs to be addressed in order to ensure that these schools are carrying out their primary mandate of rehabilitating the children. This conclusion supports that of earlier work by Mugo, Musembi and Kangethe (2006), who note that the concept of effective rehabilitation in Kenya is little understood and strongly recommend the need for a paradigm shift in the approach to rehabilitation.

It was also observed that a substantial number of the service providers were not posted by the mother Ministry and some were either recruited by the schools, or were working as volunteers. This has implications for quality control in service provision since the Ministry which is in charge of the rehabilitation schools may not have control over the qualifications of all the service providers working in these schools.

5.2.2 Emotional Intelligence of Service Providers

Analysis of data on emotional intelligence revealed that over 50% of the sample scored above the mean, had high emotional intelligence. It is possible that since service providers in rehabilitation schools have to deal with very vulnerable children, in the course of their interaction, they have learnt to evolve ways of coping with and managing these children that are emotionally intelligent, hence explaining the high performance in the emotional intelligence scale.

Similarly, considering that the bulk of service providers were newly recruited, with a length of service of 5 years and below, it is possible that the high emotional intelligence scores observed were as a result of this. On the other hand, since emotional intelligence was measured using only one method, the self-report approach, one may not be able to completely rule out the possibility that the results were influenced by the challenges of self-report techniques where individuals tend to distort their responses to give what they think are socially desirable responses. This would then result in a superior performance in emotional intelligence as observed. This implies that it would be important for future studies on emotional intelligence to use other methods in addition to self-report.

Data on emotional intelligence across sex revealed some slight difference in emotional intelligence with males having a slightly higher performance than females. The differences were, however, not significant. These findings support those of Singh (2007) who found no significant differences between male and female software professionals in terms of EI. Similar findings by Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008) revealed no significant differences in emotional and social intelligence competencies

between male and female leaders. The findings, however, do not support those of a related study by Mandell and Pherwani (2003) which found significant differences in general EI scores between male and female managers. The findings also do not support those of Stone, Parker, and Wood (2006) who found women to score higher than men but on one dimension of EI, namely, the interpersonal dimension.

It is possible that lack of significant differences observed in the current study may be due to the fact that the differences were only tested in the general emotional intelligence scores. There is a possibility that if separate dimensions of EI are examined, the findings may reveal some significant differences between males and females in certain EI areas.

Data analysis of emotional intelligence across age indicated that there were slight differences in the performance across different age groups with a tendency for emotional intelligence to improve with age. However, these differences were not significant. These findings did not support the findings of Anitei's (2008) study of a group of American people between 22 and 70 years of age which found a positive, significant, but weak relationship between age and EI. Anitei concluded that older people were slightly more likely to be higher in EI than younger people, though it may be in some aspects of EI and not others. For the current study, it is possible that the non-significant differences observed reflect the general EI score. It may be possible that if separate dimensions are considered, there may be some significant differences between the males and females. At the same time, the small samples in each of the age sub-groups may also influence the non-significance of the obtained differences.

On emotional intelligence and educational qualifications, slight differences in the performance across different levels of educational qualifications were obtained, with those that had completed only primary education performing lower than those with higher qualifications. However, the mean emotional intelligence did not improve between high school and university education. The differences across the various educational levels were not significant. These findings in some way support the views of Goleman (1995) who argued that the traditional training methods are based on cognitive learning, which draws on different areas of the brain from emotional learning. Therefore, inferring from Goleman's ideas, it is likely that higher educational qualifications may not have had a big impact on emotional intelligence especially considering that our education system in Kenya is more emphatic on cognitive rather than affective aspects. There is the possibility that the findings may be different when specific dimensions of EI are considered. Anitei (2008) argues that, some aspects of Emotional Quotient (EQ) develop only by training. The current study focused on the general EI score rather than the specific EI dimensions while looking at differences in educational qualifications. This suggests that future studies on EI and educational qualifications need to address specific EI dimensions.

Analysis of data on emotional intelligence and length of service indicated that there were differences in the emotional intelligence scores across different lengths of service, with the group with medium length of service having a higher mean than those with shorter and longer lengths of service. The differences were not significant. These findings in some way support those of Ngah, Jussof and Rahman (2009), who found no significant correlation between EI and length of service among academics and middle management employees in Malaysian academia. It also supports findings

of a study by Landa, Lopez-Zafra, Martos and Aquilar-Luzon (2008) who found EI not related to length of service among nurses in a general hospital in Spain. In examining differences in EI with regard to lengths of service, it is important to bear in mind that with increase in length of service, the individual also increases in age, hence it may be difficult to separate differences in performance attributable to length of service and those due to changes in age unless the study is designed with this in mind.

5.2.3 Job Performance of Service Providers

Analysis of data on job performance revealed that over 50% of the sample scored above the mean. The high performance was unexpected considering that review of literature implied that most of the service providers in these schools lack the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to effectively deal with the challenges that rehabilitating these children requires (Grobbel, 2002; Mugo, Musembi & Kangethe, 2006; Njuguna, 2003 & Wakanyua, 1995). It is possible that the high performance was due to the fact that a large percentage of the service providers were relatively newly recruited, with some being on casual basis, making it likely that they were still enthusiastic about their performance hence likely to register high performance.

On the other hand, considering that job performance was measured using only subjective methods, namely self-ratings and supervisor ratings, there could be a possibility of biases in the ratings. It may be possible that the supervisor ratings were influenced by the leniency error effect (Havenstein, 1992), where an appraiser tends to judge all workers leniently and routinely giving them very positive appraisals. Such a tendency may be justified by the possibility that in some situations, supervisors may not want to make their workers look very bad as it may also reflect on their own

supervision effectiveness. Similarly, the self-rating approach may have been influenced by leniency on the part of the service providers themselves, where self-raters rate themselves in a way that they appear better than they really are as far as performance is concerned. Such a phenomenon was observed by Wohlers, Hall & London (1993). It is possible that some workers in spite of being informed of the purposes of the research may still have harbored the fear that the results may be used to make decisions on their promotion or firing and hence may want to give ratings that reflect high performance. These possibilities point to the need for future studies on job performance assessment to use a combination of objective and subjective methods as well as the 360 – degree feedback approach recommended by London and Beatty (1993).

In terms of gender and job performance, there were slight differences between males and females with males tending to have a slightly higher performance than the females. The differences were however non-significant. These findings support those of Sinangil and Ones (2003) who found men and women expatriates working in Turkey to be rated quite similarly in terms of their job performance. The findings, however, differ from those of a study by Green, Jegadeesh and Tang (2007) that found gender differences in job performance among brokerage firm equity analysts, with men outdoing women in some job tasks and women doing better in other tasks such as client service. Considering that the current study looked at job performance in general, it is possible that if specific dimensions of job performance are examined, the results may indicate significant differences across sex. It is also possible that there may be performance differences across sex among specific categories of service providers since the current study looked at all service providers together. As such,

future studies addressing sex differences and job performance may need to focus on specific categories of service providers.

On age and job performance, there were some slight differences in the mean job performance across different age groups with the age group above 50 years having the lowest mean performance while the age group between 41 and 50 years had the highest performance. These differences were not significant. These findings do not support those of a related study by Higgs (2004) which found age to be strongly related to job performance in UK call centers. It would be expected that job performance should improve with age as one becomes more psychologically mature and stable. This would be up to some point after which the performance may actually begin to decline as one approaches retirement age due to age related decline in physical and cognitive capacities. The lack of significance in the differences observed in the current study may be accounted for by the small sample sizes of the various age groups since the study was not designed specifically to measure such differences. Such mixed findings indicate the need for more studies focusing on age and job performance for workers across different settings.

Regarding educational qualifications, slight differences were observed across service providers with different educational qualifications. Surprisingly, those with university education had the lowest mean performance while those with diploma education had the highest mean performance though the differences were not significant. It is possible that due to the unique nature of the setup of rehabilitation schools, those with degrees may feel misplaced since they work alongside many non-degree holders doing similar work and sometimes supervising them. This may make them feel less

motivated and result in lowered performance as was observed. The findings of the current study are however in line with those of Timmins (1989) that found no statistically significant difference in work performance between the Masters degree holders and the Bachelors degree holders in managerial performance. However, they do not support the findings of Abdullah and Mustafa (1999) who found that having a master's degree was positively related to performance among Department of Defense (DOD) civilian employees. Because the current study focused on a variety of service providers, it is possible that there may be different findings when specific categories of service providers are considered. These findings imply that there is a need for further studies to clarify the relationship between educational qualifications and performance for specific categories of workers.

On length of service or work experience, there were slight differences in the job performance scores across different lengths of service, with higher performance being registered among those with medium length of service compared to those with shorter and longer lengths of service. The differences were however not significant. These findings support those of Ngah, Jussof and Rahman (2009) who found length of service not correlated to job performance among Malaysian academia. It is possible that the non-significance of the differences was due to the small sample sizes for the various sub-groups since this study was not designed specifically to test for such differences. As such, there is a possibility that there may be significant differences if specific categories of service providers are considered. The sample differences obtained may suggest that performance improves with increased length of service up to a peak after which it may begin to deteriorate. The lower performance in the early years could be due to the fact that the individual is still inexperienced and trying to

learn the demands of the job. As one becomes more conversant with the job, coupled with a desire to excel in his/her job and advance career-wise, one may strive to excel and this could result in improved performance for those with medium length of service. In later years, service providers may tend to feel that they have already achieved or not achieved what they set out to achieve, hence it is a time to relax and look forward to retirement. This may explain the lower mean performance for those with longer years of service. This lower performance may also reflect the impact of age related decline in capacities discussed earlier.

5.2.4 Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance

Analysis of data on the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance revealed a significant moderate and positive relationship at .05 level. Regression analysis showed that the two variables were moderately linearly related, such that, as emotional intelligence increased, job performance also increased. About 8% of the variance in job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools could be accounted for by its linear relationship with their emotional intelligence.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance was still positive and significant at the .05 level, when demographic variables assumed to be related to both emotional intelligence and job performance were controlled for. These were sex, age, educational qualifications, and length of service. These findings imply that for service providers in rehabilitation schools, those with higher emotional intelligence tend to have higher job performance while those with lower emotional intelligence tend to have lower job performance.

These findings are in line with those of related studies that emphasize the importance of emotional intelligence in job performance across a variety of settings. For instance, Rozell, Pettijohn and Parker (2006) found that sales performance was significantly related to EI while Coté & Miners (2006) found that EI became a stronger predictor of job performance and organizational citizenship behavior directed at the organization (OCBO) as CI decreased among managerial, administrative, and professional full-time employees of a large public university. Dulewicz, Young and Dulewicz (2005) had also found that EQ made a greater contribution to overall performance and leadership compared to IQ within the British Royal Navy. Findings similar to those of the current study were also obtained by Sy, Tram, and O'Hara (2006), who found that employees EI was positively associated with job performance and satisfaction among employees in the food service industry. Thus, the findings of the current study are largely consistent with those of most studies in the recent past as shown in this paragraph.

The findings discussed above are however not supported by all studies. For instance, a study by Brown, Bryant and Reilly (2006) found no support for hypothesized relationship between EI and organizational outcomes or between EI and transformational leadership. Such differences in findings may be due to the fact that this latter study used leaders while the current one focuses on all categories of service providers excluding top managers. The consistency between the findings of the current study and those of most other related studies suggest that emotional intelligence is valuable for job performance in rehabilitation schools and hence may

form an integral part of human resource selection and development in rehabilitation schools.

Results of the hypothesis test on the relationship between job performance and dimensions of emotional intelligence revealed that all the five dimensions of emotional intelligence were positively related to job performance. However, only 2 out of the 5 correlations were statistically significant at .05 level. These were motivation and social skills dimensions. These findings support existing literature that suggests that some aspects of EI are more critical than others in influencing job performance. An example is the study by Butler and Chinowsky (2006) who found a positive relationship between total EQ and transformational leadership among construction executives but identified interpersonal skills and empathy as key EI competencies that need additional attention during the development of construction industry executives.

Closely related findings were obtained by Barbuto and Burbach (2006) who found among other things, that the empathetic response of the EI subscales is the most consistent antecedent of transformational leadership behaviors. Similar findings regarding specific dimensions' importance were obtained by Ker, Garvin, Heaton, and Boyle (2006) who found that specific domains of EI such as the experiential domain, which includes perceiving and using emotions, was highly correlated with supervisor ratings, whereas the reasoning domain, which includes understanding and managing emotions, displayed no significant correlation. The findings of the current study differ slightly from these three earlier ones in that different dimensions have been identified as important for the service providers in rehabilitation schools.

The finding that the motivation dimension of EI was significantly related to job performance could be explained by the fact that motivation drives behavior. In fact, people who are motivated are able to go an extra mile irrespective of the circumstances to achieve their goals. This would then translate into improvement in performance. In view of the fact that Government rehabilitation schools in Kenya have various challenges ranging from inadequate resources to inadequate personnel, it is possible that several of the service providers have had to rely on their own intrinsic motivation to drive their performance. This finding emphasizes the need to promote the motivational dimension of EI in order to promote job performance among these service providers in such government institutions.

Similarly, the findings that social skills were significantly correlated to job performance, suggest that social skills are key to job performance of service providers in rehabilitation schools. This could be due to the fact that much of the work for these service providers entails day-to-day interaction with the children and fellow workers. It would therefore make sense that social skills would be critical to their performance as was found in this study. These findings point to a need to lay emphasis on the importance of social skills for service providers in such institutions.

On the relationship between emotional intelligence and dimensions of job performance, results indicated that the six sub-areas of job performance were related to emotional intelligence. However, only 1 out of the 6 correlations was statistically significant at the .05 level. This was the teamwork dimension. These findings are in line with the findings of a study by Offermann, Bailey, Vasilopoulos, Seal and Sass (2004) who found that EI was more related to team performance than individual

performance among undergraduate business students. These findings therefore imply that EI is important for teamwork and group performance. Considering the fact that successful rehabilitation requires the collective effort of all service providers in different areas. Such findings have important implications for rehabilitation schools. It means that strengthening emotional intelligence would probably be linked with better teamwork and hence a likelihood of improved rehabilitation outcomes

The findings that the empathy dimension was not significantly correlated with job performance were unexpected, considering the results of previous studies. For instance, a study by Butler and Chinowsky (2006) had found a positive relationship between empathy and transformational leadership among construction executives. Similarly, Barbuto and Burbach (2006) had found among other things that the empathetic response of the EI subscales is the most consistent antecedent of transformational leadership behaviors. The discrepancies in findings could be due to the fact that the two studies focused on job performance in terms of leadership using management level workers which was not the case in the current study which actually excluded the top managers from the sample. It is possible that empathic dimension is important in job performance but for certain levels of service providers and not others. It is also likely that empathy is important for certain dimensions of job performance and not all. Indeed this study found empathy to be related to certain dimensions of job performance as is dismissed in the following paragraph.

Results of the hypothesis test on the relationships between dimensions of emotional intelligence and those of job performance revealed that four of the correlations were statistically significant at .05 levels. These were the correlations between motivation

and problem solving, motivation and creativity, empathy and teamwork, social skills and teamwork. The social skills dimension was negatively correlated with commitment to work though the correlation was weak and not statistically significant. The finding that the social skills dimension was negatively correlated with commitment to work raises an interesting dynamic of performance which may require further investigation. While social skills raise teamwork which improves performance, it is also possible that those very social skills may cause one to engage in longer and more frequent conversations not beneficial to work since one finds it easy to begin and sustain conversations with others. This would lead to loss of productive work time and failure to effectively fulfill job-related goals. This could explain why social skills may be negatively related to commitment to work as observed in this study, suggesting the need for a balance between overusing and under using social skills in the job setting. However, considering that the correlation was weak and not significant, these findings are far from conclusive and suggest the need for more research into the area.

The fact that problem solving and creativity require initiative, determination and persistence which are also aspects of motivation, it makes sense that the motivation dimension was significantly positively correlated with both problem solving and creativity. These findings differ from those of a study by Ivcevic, Brackett and Mayer (2007) who found that EI was uncorrelated with creative behaviour among undergraduate students at the University of New Hampshire. The differences could be due to the fact that Ivcevic et al's study looked at the general EI score rather than specific dimensions. In fact, even in the present study, when the general EI score was considered, it did not emerge as correlated to creativity. It may also be due to the fact

that the population under Ivcevic et al's study was different from that of the current study. The findings of the current study have implications for rehabilitation schools in that, service providers in these schools have to constantly think of ways to effectively deal with the problem behaviors of the children in these schools as part of the rehabilitation process. This means that the abilities to think creatively and solve problems are key to their performance. In light of the current findings, it seems that by promoting service providers' motivation, this would probably be linked to improvement in these core skills.

The finding that empathy was positively correlated with teamwork could be due to the fact that if one is good at being empathic, he/she is able to accurately understand other people's worlds and effectively communicate such understanding to them. This is likely to result in better interpersonal relationships which would promote teamwork. These findings show the importance of empathy for specific aspects of job performance and are in line with the findings of earlier studies that had found empathy to be related to aspects of job performance such as leadership (Butler & Chinowsky, 2006; Barbuto & Burbach, 2006). Considering that teamwork is crucial for rehabilitation schools, such findings emphasize the need for emphasis on the development of the empathy dimension of EI as a way of promoting teamwork in such schools.

Having high social skills means one is able to relate effectively with others and this would promote team work. This explains why the social skills dimension of EI would be significantly and positively correlated with teamwork as in the case of the present study's findings. Such findings are related in some way to those of Butler and

Chinowsky (2006) who found that interpersonal skills are key EI competencies in performance. Such findings imply that there is a need to integrate social skills dimension of EI into training programs for service providers in rehabilitation schools as this is likely to promote the much needed teamwork in these schools.

The finding that EI was not significantly correlated with the stress management dimension of job performance was unexpected. It was expected that EI would be correlated to the stress management dimension of job performance in line with the ideas of Nelson and Low (2005) who argue that emotionally intelligent teachers are more resilient and proactive in responding to stressors and less likely to react to stress. Similar ideas are advanced by Goad (2005) and Justice (2005) who argue that pre-service, new, and novice teachers could benefit from emotional intelligence training, as emotional intelligence skills are key to managing stress and the daily pressures of life and work.

Though the current study found some correlation between general EI as well as specific EI dimensions and stress dimension of job performance, the correlations were not significant. Considering that the current study's sample comprised service providers in all categories, it may be possible that if the sample was made up of teachers alone, the findings may have supported the ideas of Nelson and Low (2005), as well as those of Goad (2005) and Justice (2005). The implication here is that future studies should examine specific categories of service providers when looking out for the relationship between EI and stress management.

5.2.5 Support for the Theoretical Framework

In the current study, emotional intelligence was conceptualized using the model of EI advocated by Wood and Tolley (2003). In this model, EI is defined as a set of competencies namely, self awareness, self regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills which enable an individual to function effectively in a variety of settings. The findings of the study showed that the five dimensions of EI were significantly correlated to the general EI score, suggesting that they are measuring the same construct and lending credibility to the dimensions of EI proposed by Wood and Tolley (2003).

In terms of Rogers (1951) theory, the findings of the study showed that empathy was strongly and significantly related to emotional intelligence $r = .63$ ($p < .01$). This means that service providers who are high on empathy are also likely to be high on emotional intelligence. These findings are in line with Rogers' (1951) idea that empathy is key in promoting the development of healing relationships. It implies that those service providers who exhibit high empathy and consequently high emotional intelligence are likely to engage in relationships that promote healing of the children they serve and hence contribute to successful rehabilitation of these children.

Similarly, if service providers are high in empathy and emotional intelligence, it means that they are likely to model appropriate behaviour which the children may imitate as suggested by Bandura's theory (1977) and consequently develop healthy ways of managing their own emotions and relationships.

5.3 Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from this study:

For service providers in rehabilitation schools, some differences were obtained in both emotional intelligence and job performance across various demographic variables namely, sex, age, educational qualifications and length of service. However, these differences were not significant. Considering that the samples for the various sub-groups were relatively small, it is possible that the significance of obtained differences may have been affected by the sample sizes. As such, one may not rule out the possibility of significant differences if larger samples of these various categories are used, especially considering that several previous studies had reported such differences. Therefore, the findings that there were no significant differences in emotional intelligence as well as in job performance across the various demographic variables may not be conclusive.

There was evidence to show that there exists a relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools and that indeed some variance in their job performance may be accounted for by its linear relationship with emotional intelligence. This means that there is need to give emotional intelligence due consideration during recruitment of staff for rehabilitation schools as well as in-servicing of such service providers. It would also be sensible to incorporate emotional intelligence development into pre- service training so that those who graduate from various trainings are high on emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence was found to be correlated with certain dimensions of job performance such as teamwork. The fact that successful rehabilitation requires the

collective effort of all service providers in different areas, this means that strengthening emotional intelligence would probably be linked to better teamwork and hence a likelihood of improved rehabilitation outcomes.

In addition, specific dimensions of EI, namely empathy and social skills were found to be correlated to teamwork. This suggests that in developing EI programs for service providers in rehabilitation schools, special emphasis needs to be placed on the dimensions of empathy and social skills, as they are correlated to a component that is core to the rehabilitation process, that is, teamwork.

The motivational dimension of emotional intelligence was found to be correlated with problem solving and creativity. These are key aspects in the process of rehabilitation as service providers have to constantly think creatively of ways to effectively deal with the problematic behaviors of the children in these schools. As such, it is likely that promoting the development of the motivational component of EI among these service providers may contribute to the promotion of successful rehabilitation of the affected children.

The findings that several service providers were providing guidance and counseling yet they were not designated as counselors, suggests that the importance of counseling for these institutions is recognized. Therefore there is an urgent need for the setting up of the necessary framework for provision of counseling including designation of qualified counselors to do the counseling work.

Similarly, the finding that majority of service providers were designated as teachers and yet the primary goal of rehabilitation is not teaching but successful behavior reformation, suggests that there is need for a paradigm shift in the approach being currently applied in the rehabilitation schools to focus more on rehabilitative programs.

The finding that a substantial number of the service providers are not posted by the mother Ministry, and that some were either recruited by the schools, or were working as volunteers suggests a lack of application of a consistent human resource recruitment strategy. This has implications for quality control in service provision for these schools.

5.4 Recommendations

In the light of the findings of this study, there are several recommendations for researchers, stakeholders and policy makers charged with the responsibility of ensuring that these schools successfully and effectively achieve their core mission of rehabilitating and integrating children with behavior problems into society.

5.4.1 Recommendations for policy makers (Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Development Services and Line Ministries)

1. There is need to incorporate EI assessment in recruitment of service providers for rehabilitation schools, with a particular emphasis on dimensions such as motivation, empathy and social skills.

2. Pre-service training of service providers for rehabilitation schools should incorporate programs to develop EI with an emphasis on dimensions such as motivation, empathy and social skills.
3. There is need for in-servicing of service providers currently working in the rehabilitation schools with an emphasis on programs that promote the development of EI and particularly dimensions such as motivation, empathy and social skills which were found to be key to their job performance. Such programs should also focus on promoting teamwork, creativity and problem solving.
4. Need to explicitly define the process of rehabilitation and generate a model detailing the key components of the process, its approaches, its core programs as well as the core human and other resources that are key to successful rehabilitation. This needs to be done in consultation with experts in related areas such as psychologists, counselors, psychiatrists, educationists and social workers.
5. Need to identify and clearly define the key educational, professional and personal qualifications of service providers necessary for successful performance of rehabilitation work in different capacities.
6. Need to carry out regular audits of rehabilitation schools to compare the actual human resource situation on the ground and the ideal in order to harmonize the two for effective service.
7. Need to ensure adequate and timely recruiting of service providers in these institutions to prevent understaffing which affects smooth service provision.

8. Need to devise a human resource strategy that ensures balance in staffing to prevent a situation where the workforce is aging and likely to retire at the same time leaving behind a gap in terms of transition.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Managers of Rehabilitation Schools

1. Need to organize for training programs aimed at promoting motivational, social skills and empathic dimensions of emotional intelligence among staff.
2. Need to ensure that EI testing, especially of key dimensions such as motivational, social skills and empathic dimensions is integrated into recruitment of service providers that may be done at the school level.

5.4.3 Recommendations for Further Research

Considering that the current study was a pioneer one in the investigation of emotional intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya, several recommendations arose from it.

1. Need for replication of this study to find out if similar findings would be obtained
2. Need for similar studies using different approaches to EI assessment and job performance assessment in order to find out if similar results are obtained.
3. Need for similar study employing an experimental design where some service providers are exposed to EI development training programs while others are not, and their job performances before and after the trainings are compared.
4. Need for further studies focusing on specific components of emotional intelligence and job performance since this study has suggested that different dimensions of job performance seem to be related differently to different

dimensions of emotional intelligence. This will help add clarity in terms of which aspects of EI need strengthening for service providers in rehabilitation schools.

5. Need for further studies investigating the relationship between EI and job performance for specific categories of service providers, such as teachers, social workers, or health workers. This is because the current study examined all the service providers as one group.
6. Need for studies designed specifically to investigate variables that may be related to EI of service providers in rehabilitation schools such as gender, age, educational qualifications, length of service, rural-urban differences as well as regional and cultural differences.
7. Need for a similar study investigating the relationship between the rehabilitation of school managers' EI and that of the other service providers, as well as its relationship to their leadership effectiveness. This will help shed light on the role of EI in leadership of rehabilitation schools.

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Appendix 1: Instrument for Service Providers**Section A: Demographic Information**

1. Indicate your assigned code.....

2. Indicate your age by ticking appropriately

30 years and below

31-40

41-50

Above 50

3. Sex Male

Female

4. Indicate your designation in the institution (e.g teacher, cook,
etc)_____

5. Number of years worked in this capacity_____

6. Current job group /grade_____

7. State your responsibilities in the
institution_____

8. (a) Were you posted into this school by the Ministry of Gender and Children's
Services?

YES

NO

(b) If NO, specify who posted

you.....

9. Tick the highest educational qualification attained

- (a) Completed primary school ()
- (b) Completed high school ()
- (c) Completed diploma ()
- (d) Completed bachelors degree ()
- (e) Completed post graduate studies ()
- (f) Other (specify)_____

Section B: Emotional Intelligence Scale**Instructions:**

Kindly respond to the following set of questions by circling the statement that BEST describes how you would react if faced with the situation described. Please note that there is no right or wrong answers. Only honesty is required in giving your responses. You are also assured that your answers will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

1. You are kept waiting in a bus for another passenger who is late. How do you respond?

- A. Ask the driver repeatedly how long he or she will wait before leaving.
- B. Sit back and do something you enjoy.
- C. Make pointed remarks to the passengers when the late comer arrives.

2. Some one you work alongside is underperforming and needs to be told. What do you do?

- A. Leave it to someone else, like your boss to have a word with him/her.
- B. Tell the person in no uncertain terms to improve and say that you are not there to carry him or her.
- C. Speak to the person, pointing out what the problem is and how it needs to be addressed.

3. You are served the wrong food in a restaurant. Part of the food consists of something you never eat. How do you respond?

- A. Push the offending food to one side of the plate and eat the rest, telling the waiter when he asks that the food was fine.
- B. Draw the waiter to one side and explain quietly what has happened.
- C. Voice your displeasure so that everyone around hears.

4. You believe that a superior treated you unfairly in front of your colleagues. What do you do?

- A. Make appoint of snubbing the superior the next time you are together.
- B. Let it go, believing that it won't happen again.

- C. Explain to the superior the source of your grievance and say that you hope it won't happen again.

5. Something you badly wanted fails to materialize. How do you respond?

- A. Say to yourself that there'll be other opportunities in the future.
- B. Say to yourself that it wasn't meant to happen on this occasion.
- C. Say to yourself that you shouldn't have set your heart on the thing in the first place.

6. Someone fails to turn up at a meeting with you for the second time. How do you respond?

- A. Find a way of getting back at them – rearrange the meeting but don't turn up.
- B. Give the person one more chance- rearrange the meeting.
- C. Drop that person from your life – don't rearrange the meeting.

7. Someone offers an opinion that is contrary to something you feel strongly about.

How do you respond?

- A. Hear the other person out and then respond.
- B. Listen for awhile, and then reject it.
- C. Reject the opposing view outright.

8. You participate significantly in some kind of event – it might be at work or out of work. After it is over, what do you do?

- A. Tell anyone who will listen what it was like for you.
- B. Don't speak to anyone about it.
- C. Ask people whose opinions you value what they thought.

9. You feel frustrated and irritated by a difficult task that you have been asked to do. How do you respond?

- A. Take a short break from it to clear your mind and to devise a plan for tackling the job effectively.

- B. Keep your frustration to yourself, and get on with it as best you can.
- C. Grumble about it to anyone who will listen and get it over with as quickly as you can.

10. You have come up with some ideas for solving a problem but have been told by others that your ideas have little chance of success. How do you respond?

- A. Think about what others have said, modify your ideas, and then take a calculated risk of putting them into practice.
- B. Bow to others' superior judgment and forget all about it.
- C. Ignore their advice, trust your own judgment and get on with it.

11. You are working on an important task and your colleagues ask you to break off early. How do you respond?

- A. Thank them for asking and explain why you can't go with them on this occasion.
- B. Turn down their invitation flat without thanks.
- C. Say that you will join them later if you can, even though you have no intention of doing so.

12. You have been asked to take an extra responsibility that you know it is important to your team, but you think that you will find the new role difficult. How do you respond?

- A. Agree to take it on, but with no intention of giving it priority over your existing commitments.
- B. Turn down the request on the grounds that you have more than enough to do already.
- C. Say that despite the hard work that the extra responsibility entails, you are ready to face up to the new challenge.

13. You notice that a member of your group who is usually bright and cheerful has become quiet and withdrawn. How do you respond?

- A. Reason that the change in mood has nothing to do with you and that the person will probably revert to normal behaviour without any interference from you.

- B. Ask other members of the group if someone will have a word with them.
- C. Find an occasion to talk to the person one-to-one; voice your concerns about his or her well being and ask if there is anything you can do to help.

14. You are at a function. A close friend who has been quiet all evening suddenly breaks down in tears. How do you respond ?

- A. Go the friend and offer them some assistance away from the gaze of other people.
- B. Tell the friend to stop making such a fuss as his or her behaviour is embarrassing you in front of other people.
- C. Ignore the friend; move to another part of the room.

15 . Although nothing has been said exactly, you sense that for some reason you have offended a small group of your friends or colleagues. How do you respond?

- A. Think back carefully over your actions to see if you can put your finger on what it might be that you have done to upset them.
- B. Say to them that you sense that something is affecting your relationship with them and that you are sorry if it proves to be you fault. Ask if you can talk about it.
- C. Shrug the whole thing off reasoning that it's too late to do anything about it and it's their problem anyway.

16. You observe a colleague handling a situation badly and you are worried about the consequences. How do you respond?

- A. Intervene and take immediate responsibility for the situation, while saying little by way of explanation to the person concerned.
- B. Do nothing at the time, but resolve to do your best to pick up the pieces as soon as possible.
- C. Make your presence known to all concerned and ask if you can assist your colleague in any way. Discuss the lessons that can be learnt from the way you both handled the situation.

17. You suspect that someone close to you is unhappy about something you have done, but when you ask how he or she felt about it, the person simply said 'OK'.

How do you respond?

- A. Take what was said at face value –that everything really is ok.
- B. Wait until you think the time is right and then encourage the person to open up and talk about how he or she truly feels.
- C. Assume that the person would rather not talk to you about it –respect the right to silence’ on this matter

18. You arrive at a function and contrary to your expectations you find that you know very few people. How do you respond?

- A. Head straight for the few people you know in the hope that they’ll introduce you to some of the other guests.
- B. Let your host and your friends know that you have arrived, and then ‘take the plunge’ by introducing yourself to some of the other guest.
- C. Stay for a little while, making sure that you at least talk to your host.

19. You are introduced to someone who seems to be nervous and hesitant about engaging in conversation. How do you respond?

- A. Pretend to listen and take an interest in what the person is trying to say before moving off to talk to somebody else.
- B. Listen carefully to what the person is saying, don’t interrupt and when you do speak, try to respond positively to what the person has said.
- C. Take advantage of the first pause in the conversation to start talking yourself.

20. You are in a conversation with someone who is trying to explain to you but is taking a long time about it and you have important things to do. How do you respond?

- A. Make any excuse you can think of to bring the conversation to an end.
- B. Explain to the person that you have pressing things to do and ask him or her to sum up the main points in the argument.
- C. Say nothing, but make appoint of looking at your watch.

END-----KINDLY PROCEED TO THE NEXT INSTRUMENT

Section C: Job Performance Scale: Self –Ratings

This scale consists of 20 items describing work related behaviors. You are requested to rate your job performance under each of the statements below by **ticking the most appropriate rating of your self** from the levels (a) to (e). Please note that there are no right or wrong answers, just give your most honest rating of yourself. You are also assured that the information you give will be treated with **utmost confidentiality** and will be used for the intended research purposes only. Please note that you are not required to indicate your name

NB: For the purposes of this rating scale:

- (a) **“Almost always”**- means you exhibit the behavior nearly all the time (about 90-100 % of the time)
- (b) **“Most times”**- means you exhibit the behavior most times but not all the time (about 75% of the time)
- (c) **“Regularly”**- means you exhibit the behavior a satisfactory number of times (about 50 % of the time)
- (d) **“Rarely”**- means you exhibit the behavior few times (about 25 % of the time)
- (e) **“Very rarely”**- means you almost never exhibit the behavior (below 10% of the time)

Appendix 2: Instrument for Supervisors

Job performance scale: supervisor ratings

Instructions

This scale is to be used to rate the job performance of individual workers working in your institution under your supervision. Kindly indicate the extent to which this worker exhibits the work related behaviours listed below by ticking against the most appropriate rating from the list (a) to (e).

Please note that for purposes of this rating scale:

(a) “Almost always”- means the worker exhibits the behaviour nearly all the time (90-100 % of the time)

(b) “Most times”- means the worker exhibits the behaviour most times but not all the time(about 75% of the time)

(c) “Regularly”- means the worker exhibits the behaviour a satisfactory number of times (about 50 % of the time)

(d) “Rarely”- means the worker exhibits the behaviour few times (about 25 % of the time)

(e) “Very rarely”- means the worker almost never exhibits the behaviour (below 10% of the time)

Name of the Institution:

Staff Assigned Code:

Designation:

This worker ;

	Almost always	Most times	Regularl y	Rarely	Very rarely
1. Observes punctuality in attending to his/her duties					
2. Is trusted with key responsibilities in the workplace					
3. Achieves set goals or standards of the job					
4. Promptly identifies potential problems in the institution					
5. Contributes to solving problems arising at work					
6. Promptly acts on problems arising at work before they get out of hand					
7. Identifies needs in his/her specific area of responsibility					
8. Suggests new ideas that can improve achievement of work related goals					
9. Demonstrates ability to come up with creative ways of solving problems					
10. Clearly demonstrates understanding of the responsibilities his/her job entails					
11. Receives complaints on his/her work performance					
12. Receives compliments on his/her work performance					
13. Cooperates with fellow staff to achieve work related tasks.					
14. Relates poorly with the children in the school					
15. Relates poorly with fellow workers					
16. Works well under pressure					
17. Is easily overwhelmed by the demands of work					
18. Can handle work related stress effectively					

-END-

-THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION -

Appendix 3: Introduction Letter and Consent Form for Service Providers

Good morning/afternoon,

My name is Mrs. Beatrice Mwathi Kathungu , I am a Ph.D student at Kenyatta University.

I am carrying out a research to determine the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya.

I have identified you as my potential respondent in this research and humbly request you to take a few minutes to respond to the instrument attached.

The instrument comprises three sections A, B and C. Kindly respond to each as honestly as possible. Please note that you are not required to put down your name.

I assure you that all your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will only be used for the intended research purpose.

Please note that taking part in this research is voluntary and sign below if you consent to participate in this research as a respondent.

Signature.....

Date

Appendix 4: Introduction Letter and Consent Form for Supervisors

Good morning/afternoon,

My name is Mrs. Beatrice Mwathi Kathungu. I am a Ph.D student at Kenyatta University. I am carrying out a research to determine the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and job performance among service providers in rehabilitation schools in Kenya.

I have identified service providers in your institution as my potential respondents in this research and identified you as the most suitable supervisor to give a rating of their performance.

I humbly request you to spare your time to rate the performance of the service providers under your supervision to facilitate my study

I assure you that all your ratings will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will only be used for the intended research purposes.

Please sign below if you consent to participate in this research.

Signature.....

Date

