# EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN TANZANIAN POLITICAL COMMUNICATION

BY

MULINDA, FESTO

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES, DEPARTMENT OF LITERATURE, LINGUISTICS, FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND FILM STUDIES IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE AWARD OF DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN LINGUISTICS, MEDIA AND COMMUNICATION

MOI UNIVERSITY

2021

## DECLARATION

**Declaration by Candidate**

This thesis is my original work and has not been submitted for the award of a degree in any University. No part of this thesis may be reproduced without the prior permission of the author and/or Moi University.

Sign: _____          Date: _____

**MULINDA, Festo**

**SASS/PGLMC/01/19**

**Declaration by the Supervisors**

This thesis has been submitted with our approval as University supervisors.

Sign: _____          Date: _____

**DR. STELLAH ONYIEGO**

Department of Literature, Linguistics, Foreign Languages and Film Studies,

School of Arts and Social Sciences

Moi University

Eldoret.

Sign: _____          Date: _____

**DR. EVERLYNN KISEMBE**

Department of Literature, Linguistics, Foreign Languages and Film Studies,

School of Arts and Social Sciences

Moi University

Eldoret.

# DEDICATION

To Professor Martha A. Qorro, (Ph.D.) of the University of Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania. She fought so hard to make this a reality; she gave it a go, she landed the Sponsorship. That I shall never forget. Despite loads of her scholarly achievements, her motherly instincts live on!

Bless You, Martha!

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Graduate studies can be heart-breaking if resourceful parties sit back and watch. Mine was a journey that depended on many distinguished people and forces.

First and foremost, I express my sincere gratitude to my Ancestral connection. The protection, goodwill, courage, motivation, desire to see their son through to the finishing line, and a close watch these fore-parents afforded me were the mightiest.

Secondly, my sincere gratitude goes to my Supervisors: Dr. Lynn Kisembe and Dr. Stellah Onyiego. They were unbelievable in this whole journey, sharing sleepless nights with me, texting, and writing mails all to shape my project. Such sacrifice will forever be remembered.

Lastly, my profound gratitude goes to family and friends who played a special part in my academic journey. The connection I felt shall forever be treasured!

# ABSTRACT

Emotional Intelligence (EI) is the ability to understand and manage one's own emotions and those of others. It caters for better relationships and connection, smoothens the human communication process, and remains one of the most sought-after skills in the contemporary World. However, this seems not to be the case in Tanzania. In recent years, there has been a public outcry about politicians' language use that ignores audiences' emotional dispositions. This study investigates EI awareness among politicians and its application in Political speeches in Tanzania. The study had three objectives; first, investigating EI awareness among politicians in Tanzania, second, examining the extent to which emotional intelligence is incorporated in political speeches, and third, the impact EI incorporation in speeches had on the audience. The study used the Language Expectancy Theory (LET) and Bar-On's model of Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI). The double-theory axis guided the analysis of communicative patterns and their interpretation into emotional intelligence cues in the selected speeches. LET was used to establish language patterns such as sentences, words or phrases that signalled audience expectations, while the ESI model interpreted such patterns into adhering or ignoring EI cues in a particular context. The study adopted a descriptive design to accurately profile EI in the political communication context by establishing EI awareness among politicians, incorporation in political speeches, and impact on the audience. The study used a questionnaire, sampling ten respondents, and document analysis, selecting ten online political speeches delivered in Tanzania between 2015 and 2019. In data analysis, a thematic approach was used. Themes such as connection, bond, and effective communication were established from both questionnaire feedback and speeches. Language patterns such as words, phrases, and sentences were extracted from speeches using the LET and translated into EI cues using the ESI model. Findings reveal that Tanzanian politicians are aware of the EI concept. However, through speeches, politicians appeared to have an inconsistent pattern in their care for EI, especially when they were emotionally pressed hard. It was also established that the impact of EI incorporation in speeches to the audience was represented through audience reaction to particular statements. The study concluded that EI is an important element in political communication and Tanzanian politicians have considerable awareness of EI and how important it is in political communication. It was also concluded that EI is less incorporated in speeches; even when politicians do engage it, the level of incorporation is inconsistent throughout the same speech, especially on emotionally demanding occasions. On the impact of EI incorporation, it was concluded that audience reaction can signal the impact a speech has on the audience. Incorporating EI in a speech can result in audience reactions such as applause, which signal positive impact such as connection, bonding, and relationship building, while negative impact such as poor relationships result from occasions where EI is ignored through the language used by the speaker. The study recommends training on EI for politicians, attention to EI skills in speech contexts, and a relatively larger scale research on EI and communication.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

## OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

**Emotional Intelligence in Communication** – The ability to use language to communicate messages that identify with audience emotional dispositions as well as expectations attached to speaker status, speaker-audience relationships setting, socio-cultural backgrounds, and speech occasion.

**Political Communication** – The process of sending and receiving contents/messages attached to political agenda(s) and which have a political impact.

**Politician** – A person who engages in politics through leadership, following and sharing political messages on a consistent basis, especially in a political leadership capacity.

# ABBREVIATIONS

EI      – Emotional Intelligence

IQ      – Intelligence Quotient

LET    – Language Expectancy Theory

ESI     – Emotional-Social Intelligence

SP      - Speech

<div align="center">**CHAPTER ONE**</div>

<div align="center">**INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY**</div>

## 1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents introductory elements of the study, namely, background to the study, statement of the problem, aim and objectives, research questions, research assumptions, the significance of the study, scope, and limitations. It offers the reasoning and grounds on why the study was conducted.

## 1.2 Background to the Study

Communication is vital in any field, and politics is no exception. It provides the link between people, organizations, and even governments. Politicians need to have numerous communicative skills such as emotional intelligence, which is realized through cues such as empathy, self-awareness, and self-management, among others, to positively assert themselves to the public. This skill, in particular, plays an important role in political communication effectiveness.

Emotional Intelligence (henceforth, EI) has been defined in different ways, all of which relate in one way or the other. It is the ability of an individual to monitor one's own and other's emotions, discriminate between positive and negative effects of emotions, and use emotional information to guide one's thinking and actions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). The definition is further extended by Goleman (1995) as the ability to rein in emotional impulses, to read another's innermost feelings, and to handle relationships smoothly. Both definitions have a touch on emotions and how to manage them in demanding situations. This implies the need to manage relationships in any interpersonal engagement(s). Communicating politics involves engaging the crowd, which requires a lot of reading into people's faces, emotions, and reactions. By

handling emotions, a speaker can easily establish a healthy connection that is very much a plus factor in human communication.

Since communication is a two-way process involving the sender and receiver of information, there must be glimpses of emotional effects in the process. However close communicators can be, failure to match the audience's emotions and expectations at some point can lead to communication breakdown. Findings by the Research Centre for Creative Leadership, cited in Sachim and Deepti (2007), show that the primary cause of communication derailment is a deficiency in emotional competency, most notably, inadequate capacity to understand the other person's point of view. Since emotional understanding affects one's decision-making (Salovey and Mayer, 1990), it is evident that in political contexts, politicians need to monitor their own and audience's emotional status before risking communication breakdown.

Political communication's demanding nature requires aspects of empathy, attachment to emotions, self-awareness, and self-control, among others, in order to build rapport and reputation among one's followers. Emotional knowledge can help guide political speeches in the sense that speakers know what to say, at the right time, to the right person, and in the right way to meet the desired expectations. In their study of EI and effective communication, Sachim and Deepti (2007) note that lack of empathy is chief among causes of interpersonal difficulties and the eventual derail of communication. This adds emphasis to the political domain, where the relationship between the communicator and the audience (receivers) happens to be relatively challenging. This is primarily because political leaders are bound to reflect many people's emotions and communication expectations at the same time, a demand that proves problematic to many.

Goleman's concept of empathy in EI, which, in his view, can be paraphrased as reading other people or having an understanding of other people's behaviour and expectations, is vital in political communication. Politicians need to reflect their understanding of audience feelings and expectations in the linguistic resources they use, which in this sense may be words, phrases, and sentences. Marcus (2000) asserts that in recent years, research shows that public opinion is shaped by citizens' moods, feelings, and emotions. This poses more proof that for politicians to capture any attention of their target people, they need to dig deep into the contemporary emotional disposition of the people with special attention to the socio-political context. As leaders think of their own emotional attachments, they ought to accommodate those of their interlocutors if they are to avoid any sense of misunderstanding and loss of public attraction.

Emotions attached to credibility, trust, authenticity, charisma, and human qualities are unavoidable in political communication because they are vital in obtaining political involvement (Jamtoy, 2012). When politicians communicate, they keep their emotions in mind, with the view of creating a credible image of themselves among their audience. However, this should go hand in hand with their audience's emotional attachment to realistically achieve a successful two-way communication. A clear warning to this is given by Barry's observation that there is an emotional deficit in contemporary political communication realized in the lack of crafted and sustained attention to the emotional needs of the audience (Barry, 2004). This, therefore, emphasizes the fact that these emotions can be accommodated in the appropriate use of language in political encounters.

Barry's concern of a wanting language in paying attention to the audience's emotional needs is one of the blocks to persuasion in Tanzanian politics. Relevant to this, in July 2019, the Tanzanian Foreign Minister caused public and media unrest through his speaking. While clarifying a case of a missing journalist, Azory Gwanda, he said the journalist had *'disappeared and died'* in front of a BBC camera (The East African, 2019). The statement sparked outrage among the public in Tanzania and beyond since the referred journalist had been reporting murders before his disappearance, and any signal of his death from a government official would never go unmarked. Following the statement, Reporters without Borders (RSF) accused the government of 'lack of consideration' by declaring what signals knowledge of the missing journalist's whereabouts after months of silence on the matter (Reporters Without Borders, 2019). Proper choice of words and sentences that are crafted with the audience in mind, expressions that meet expectations are the best ways to make someone credible as a politician, communicator, and as a person. The minister could have gotten away with it by just avoiding the use of the word *'died,'* which triggered reactions.

In his speech for black Americans' freedom, Martin Luther King Jr. chose the language that emotionally touched his audience and still was not provocative. He expressed balance between managing his own emotions and those of his audience by choosing a proper language. When foreseeing the future of his dreams, he said, "on the red hills of Georgia *sons of former slaves* and the *sons of former slave-owners* will be able to sit down together at the *table of brotherhood*" (Luther.,1963). His imagination that opposing parties would end up on the *'table of brotherhood'* depicted his skill for managing his emotions and balancing those of his audience. He chose words that gave hope to the black people and, at the same time, signalled fraternity

among all races come the end of the struggle for freedom. He could have been worse, given the circumstances and the emotional vulnerability of his oppressed audience.

Tanzanian political arena has seen a change of tides in recent years, experiencing more spotlight due to the increase in media outlets. Increasing scrutiny and analyses of political statements have seen some people's emotions tested to the limit, a situation that in turn has come to damage their reputation as they opt to launch verbal attacks to seek relief. In so doing, they have repeatedly found themselves in tougher circumstances, all because of their failure to monitor themselves in communication contexts.

Self-monitoring is one of the EI skills which is important in managing political engagements. It involves understanding environmental contexts, other's emotions, and behaviours and being able to transform one's own self-presentation in relation to these cues either to fit in or promote oneself (Lennox and Wolfe, 1984). It is a feature of self-expression that needs appropriate linguistic resources (words, sentences) for one to realize it. It is commonly left out by intolerant politicians, especially when their credibility is tested publicly or when they are in a position to respond to criticism or criticize others.

Various studies directly associate EI with effective communication (Goleman, 1998, Riggion & Reichard, 2008, Serrat, 2009, Chery et al., 2013). They assign EI with powers to regulate emotional fluctuations in communication encounters which makes it such a key aspect of human connections. It is important to find out how the connection in the communication effectiveness works in political encounters, where politicians seek strong bond and followership through their speeches.

Therefore, it is important to note that EI is very much a function of political communication in the sense that emotions cannot be separated from political messages. It is a function that looks to set standards in political encounters by enhancing clear, mutually respectful messages through the use of language that reflects empathy and self-monitoring, among other communicative cum emotional cues.

## 1.3 Statement of the Problem

Political communication encompasses the construction, sending, receiving, and processing of messages that potentially directly or indirectly impact politics (Graber and James, 2005: 479). Politicians, in particular, interact with people of all walks of life, and in all cases, the goal is to maintain rapport with their interlocutors for better followership. In their communications, politicians require necessary skills such as assertiveness, persuasiveness, self-confidence, and emotional intelligence (EI).

Emotional intelligence is the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships (Goleman, 1998:375). It entails skills such as self-management, empathy, context assessment, and the ability to anticipate the audience's emotional dispositions and accommodate them in speaking. In political communication, these features of EI can help guide the choice of expressions that avoid provoking, annoying, or devaluing the audience, a quality that defines good communicators. However, this has not been the case in Tanzania in recent years, where there have been complaints of politicians' use of language that ignores audiences' emotional dispositions, as recently addressed by Bashiru Ally, CCM General Secretary (reported on Jamii Forums: 9th, May 2019).

This study, therefore, investigates the extent to which politicians in Tanzania understand and exhibit EI in their respective political speeches.

## 1.4 Aim and Objectives

### 1.4.1 The Aim of the Study

The main aim of this study was to investigate Tanzanian politicians' understanding of EI, their incorporation of EI in speeches, the impact of their speeches on the public, and suggest ways in which politicians can build, improve and maintain EI in speech contexts.

### 1.4.2 Specific Objectives

Specific objectives of this study are: -

  i.  To examine the level of EI awareness among politicians in Tanzania.

  ii. To examine aspects of language that reflect the extent to which EI is incorporated in selected political speeches in Tanzania.

  iii. To assess the impact of political speeches that do or do not incorporate EI to the audience.

## 1.5 Research Questions

  i.  To what extent are politicians aware of EI in speaking?

  ii. What are the words, phrases, or sentences that reflect the presence or absence of EI in political speeches?

  iii. How does the existence or absence of EI in political speeches affect the public?

## 1.6 Assumptions of the Study

  i.  Awareness of EI among politicians is vital in successfully communicating their course.

ii. Political statements that do not consider audience emotions destroy rapport between leaders and their people.

iii. Statements or speeches that ignore audience emotional dispositions degrade the credibility of individual politician to the public

iv. Proper language use in politics reflects one's EI.

## 1.7 Justification of the Study

EI has not been studied widely in East Africa and more so in Tanzania, particularly in relation to communication. Existing studies, more of which were conducted outside Africa, have so far put emphasis on the fields of organizational leadership and psychology, and very few have the communication touch. With the ever-changing world that sees politicians and other significant public figures exposed in the ever-growing news media, studies need to be done to address issues that risk damaging people's and countries' reputations.

Development in communication technology has widely opened communication channels all over the world, giving way to freer and more fluid media than before. The imminent switch from institutionalized to individualized media, giving every individual access to information and dissemination rights, has put African politics under an increased spotlight; hence research is required in order to address issues that risk a meltdown in political communication, just like the case with other fields.

## 1.8 Significance of the Study

This study will benefit many in the fields of communication, linguistics, and politics. It will shed light on the benefits of proper language use in political endeavours, guide politicians in their speech preparations, and most importantly, guide their choice and use of linguistic resources in tight political exchanges. They will be able to design

their speeches in a way that does not negatively impact their credibility and reputation and meets the expectations of their audience.

Policy makers are also likely to benefit from this study as it will inform communication policies and reduce the risk of communication breakdown on sensitive occasions.

The study informs research in emotional intelligence and political communication. It widens the platform for engaging interdisciplinary studies in the communication arena. Studies in political communication have long been focusing on aspects such as election campaigns, electoral decisions, and media roles in politics. However, this study presents a new way of dealing with politics by directly addressing what politicians say in their speeches. Also, with the fact that many current studies in EI are based on psychology and management disciplines, this study provides EI researchers with a new way of looking at it by establishing its role in political speeches.

## 1.9 Scope and Limitations

This study is an examination of Emotional Intelligence (EI) in the context of political communication. Specifically, the study covered speeches by politicians in Tanzania with content touching on countrywide interests such as policies, security, and democracy. EI awareness level was also examined among politicians to help draw conclusions on the force behind some unacceptable statements among assumptions amounting to ignorance, human slip of the tongue, or deliberate move to hurt or confuse the audience. Part of the study which included questionnaires was conducted in Dar es Salaam where top political figures reside.

The study used the Language Expectancy Theory (LET) and Bar-On's model of Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI) to analyse speeches in the light of EI reflection,

thereby establishing contexts in which EI was/was not considered. LET determining factors such as communicator status, the relationship between interlocutors, and context were considered in establishing the line of thought seen in the subsequent analysis of data. On the other hand, the ESI model introduced aspects such as adaptability, interpersonal, general mood assessment, and stress management as necessary skills for human interactions.

The study experienced limitations in the form of time where some methods were narrowed to match time requirements. For instance, the sample for the questionnaire (covering objective one: EI awareness levels among politicians) could have been bigger for more diversity in interpretation. Studies with relatively more time are recommended for further investigation into the matter.

## 1.10 Conclusion

This chapter laid down the foundation for the study, discussing pertinent issues that justify the study. Among key aspects, the chapter puts forward include the introduction to the study, problem statement, objectives, and significance of the study. These establish the argument that the study seeks to answer and set the stage for subsequent chapters.

## CHAPTER TWO

## THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Introduction

This study made analysis of data based on theoretical provisions and other grounds made by other scholars. This chapter, therefore, discusses a theoretical framework used, as well as the reviewed literature in relation to the area of study. The study used two theoretical frameworks with the intention to cover both the communication aspect of the study and the EI part of it. The chapter has two sections: the first part covers the theoretical framework, and the second covers the literature review section, which brings in both theoretical and empirical studies done on political communication, emotional intelligence (EI), and EI in communication.

### 2.2 Literature Review

### 2.2.1 Political Communication

Studies in politics have been done in a variety of dimensions, such as linguistics, communication studies, sociology, political science itself, and many others. The relationship between politics and communication cannot be underestimated by any means, given the interdependence that exists between the two disciplines. This connection is what makes political communication a truly stable interdisciplinary area of study, with coverage in political science and communications. Kenterelidou (2005) dates studies in political communication back around the 1950s, where events like the first and second World Wars are said to have contributed to its rise, with various persuasive messages to influence public opinion. It is an interdisciplinary area of study that has its roots in political science and communication studies, which is what makes it a valuable discipline in its own right.

Scholars have described political communication from different perspectives. Norris (2004) defines political communication as an interactive process concerning the transmission of information among politicians, the news media, and the public. In this sense, he signals that communicating politics concerns virtually everyone, from political figures, media, and the general public. His definition is supported by Esser and Pfetsch (2020), who see the concept as the flow of information and exchange of messages among political actors, citizens, and media. They further argue that the three parties (political actors, citizens, and media) have a contribution to the creation of political public spheres.

However, the two definitions by Norris (2004) and Esser and Pfetsch (2020) do not touch the area that, on most occasions in communication, matters the most; message processing. In their own right, Graber and Smith (2005) appear to take into consideration the message process in their definition, where they paint political communication as encompassing the construction, sending, receiving, and processing of messages that potentially have a significant direct or indirect impact on politics. This brings out the sensitive part of communication with a clear touch on the message, and in this sense, the participants can still be politicians, media, interest groups, and citizens. The important thing here is that the message should carry political content or at least have any impact on politics.

However, Esser and Pfetsch (2020) offer an alternative definition that embraces the message processing idea in more ways. They conceptualize it as encompassing creating, shaping, disseminating, and processing information among actors from the political system, media, and the public. They further include 'impact of communication' as part of the wider political communication concept. This definition

is more inclusive as it covers the whole communication process, from the production of messages to their impact on listeners.

Research on political communication has long covered various areas ranging from media, messages to individual actors. Norris' work in 2004 discusses political communication with an emphasis on the media. He notes that communicating politics through old media such as newspapers and TV is something that is experiencing fundamental change. He further notes the potential of the media to bring about alternative interpretations of the nature of various trends such as post-war trends, the rise of the internet, and the like. It makes so much sense to discuss media transitions, especially in the age where inventions in communication technology have opened ways for an unlimited flow of messages, including political messages. However, Norris is not alone in this case. Benson (2004) covers political communication in relation to media, with the assumption that there is a growing trend of what he calls 'media-phobism.' He insists on the need to research more on politics and media given the potential of media in shaping news discourse, and serious consideration of the airtime countries give to political programmes since they differ in various ways.

Politics, like many other areas of human experience, have culture. Therefore, political culture, being the shared beliefs that have political consequences, shapes how individuals and society act and react politically, power distribution, and type of government institutions (Paletz and Daniel, 1994). The role of media, in this case, cannot be underestimated at all. With the world fast changing, there are chances for interrelationships and interactions of political cultures and political communication to take place with many cases of media effect on political culture, especially in eastern and central Europe. A further claim is put forth that political communication can alter

the political culture and bring in new responsibilities and roles to the particular people (Paletz and Daniel, 1994). Therefore, it can be seen that political communication has a role in shaping the political culture, but they both depend on the media involved. Anything among the three has the potential to change or affect the other in one way or another.

Politics and communication depend on each other in every sense possible. Kenterelidou (2005) asserts that communication dynamics shape politics and governments' success depends on how well they communicate to the broader public. There is, therefore, a sense that a good communication approach is sure to win politicians a great deal of political dividends. In all these dynamics, media is essential and cannot be left out since, as per Kenterelidou's view, it links the public to political actors, including parties.

A need for more interconnected research between politics and communication has long been called for by scholars. Grabber and James (2005) claim that political science has side-lined political communication, unlike the case with studies in communications. To them, more emphasis is put on elections and public opinion, ignoring areas such as information processing that takes into account neurological and psychological properties of the human brain when looking at how people process political information. This, therefore, pushes for more research on political communication, with a specific emphasis on information processing and production, which is the basic point in this study.

Politics have been researched widely both as an individual area of study and in relation to other disciplines. However, research on political communication is relatively limited since more studies mostly care for areas such as culture and media.

Few studies appear to look at the level of message production and down to the actors themselves. Studies on these areas will so perfectly uncover pressing issues that, at some points, can lead to information breakdown. Coverage of areas such as designs of communication materials and political actors themselves could be useful in guiding what politicians say, not necessarily through which platform. The focus of this study, in particular, opens room for the narrower approach by looking at individual communicators of political messages, a lot of which is overlooked with so much attention diverted to media outlets.

### 2.2.2 Emotional Intelligence

Research on emotional intelligence has been on the rise in the past few decades. Fernández-Berrocal and Extremera (2006) posit that emotional intelligence first appeared in the scientific literature in 1990. Since then, it has substantially risen to prominence through various studies.

Daniel Goleman's breakthrough book *'Emotional Intelligence'* in 1995 painted a big picture of the new intelligence that was yet to be widely covered. He went on to define it as the ability to rein in emotional impulses, to read another's innermost feelings, and to handle relationships smoothly. However, he was not the first to define it, with Salovey and Mayer (1990) coming up with their definition earlier, saying it involves the ability of an individual to monitor one's own and other's emotions, to discriminate between positive and negative effects of emotions, and to use emotional information to guide one's thinking and actions. However, the two meanings present no significant difference, with both capturing the need for one to know their feelings, understand others' and accommodate the two interactions.

Various studies in EI place empathy high in the list of necessary skills in individuals. As put by Goleman et al. (2002), a person's ability to empathize includes "reading another person's face and voice for emotion and continually attune us to how someone else feels as we speak to them." They insist that for effective leadership, where emotions often require special attention, empathy must be a primary consideration, insisting, however that empathy should only lead to thoughtful consideration and intelligent decision making than adopting other people's emotions and look to please them.

Occasions in which emotions rein such as in politics, individuals in charge of affairs require a considerable amount of emotional knowledge of others to better meet their needs and demands. Leaders ought to be empathic and supportive in line with the demanding level of emotions in their settings (Goleman et al., (2002). However, the argument appears to address corporate leadership, whose pressure might be different from the one in political contexts mainly explored in this study.

Despite Goleman's exploits, EI is believed to have come a long way. Serrat (2009) traces EI back in Charles Darwin's work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation. It, however, does leave out relevant proof, especially with Darwin's works that extended to almost all beings, not necessarily human beings. Cherniss (2000) believes that the concept is based on a long history of research and theory in personality and psychology, and it started getting shape when psychologists began to write about intelligence focusing on cognitive aspects such as memory and problem solving.

Wechsler (1940) first referred to non-intellective and intellective elements meaning affective, personal, and social factors, and in 1943 he proposed that non-intellective

abilities are essential in predicting one's ability to succeed in life. The definition of intelligence by Wechler (1958) as the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, think rationally, and deal effectively with his environment further fuels the likelihood that EI was already on the rise, albeit under different names. Later on, Thorndike wrote about 'social intelligence' in the late thirties, but it was until Howard Gardner wrote about 'multiple intelligence' in 1983 that emotional intelligence began to take shape (Chernis, 2000). Howard's proposition that put intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence on the same footing as other intelligences measured by IQ tests is what can, until today, be seen as the clear signal of EI.

It was until 1990 that Salovey and Mayer coined the term, which is used until today, although contradicting studies suggest the term was first used by Wayne Leon Payne in 1985. It is believed that Salovey and Mayer coined it after learning from Murray's work in 1983, which included non-cognitive and cognitive abilities in intelligence evaluations. In testing this type of intelligence, dimensions such as communication, sensitivity, initiative, and interpersonal skills were included (Thornton and Byham, 1982). It is therefore clear that studies on 'intelligences' were there for decades, but a term that covered non intelligence quotient (IQ) abilities under one umbrella was yet to be established until the 1990s where the likes of Salovey and Mayer, and Goleman came up with multiple publications on "emotional intelligence."

Career success has for long been associated with an individual's IQ. This is, however, not necessarily the case since various studies show how IQ accounts for a minimum percent of individual success while elevating the role EI plays in various contexts. Rosenthal's study at Harvard University discovered that people who were best at identifying others' emotions were more successful in their work and social lives (Rosenthal, 1977). A 40-year longitudinal study on the limits of IQ as a predictor of

success discovered that among the children studied, the difference was made by childhood abilities such as the ability to handle frustration, control emotions, and get along with other people (Snarey and Vaillant, 1985). These findings, however, do not rule out IQ altogether since emotional intelligence cannot work on its own; they complement each other.

According to Goleman (1998), EI is the number one determinant of job performance. Among other things, it encompasses important effective communication elements that depend on emotional capacities, including the ability to gauge the audience's reactions, to fine-tune a pre-sensation to have a meaningful emotional impact. These elements shape how people communicate and determine the connections that people build among themselves. In daily engagements, Goleman claims that most of the convincing and powerful arguments speak to the heart as well as the head. This notion brings in the attachment to emotions for both communicators and audience/receivers of messages. Among other important elements suggested in this same study, empathy (reading the feelings of others) and Social skills (handling feelings artfully) are of great importance in various happenings in organizations. Daily activities in organizations force people to make decisions that at times can change the workplace atmosphere, which is why self-control is important as well.

Leadership skills have been associated with EI in various ways. Ayiro (2014) associates EI with good leadership. He sees a good leader as someone with transformational competencies, and according to him, these competencies require EI. This standpoint is supported by Riggio and Reichard (2008), who establish leadership skills such as emotional expressiveness, emotional sensitivity, and emotional control as vital to successful leaders. In their framework for social and emotional skills, they

argue that such skills in leaders produce behaviours such as understanding followers' needs, feelings and regulating inappropriate emotions.

Riggio and Reichard (2008) offer more EI skills they deem necessary for leaders. Among others, social expressiveness, social sensitivity, and social control are rated highly in successful leaders. This shows that various academic works have placed a considerable amount of faith in EI as a determinant of success in various fields. Facts from studies and tested frameworks and models prove that EI cuts across many fields, especially social sciences. This proof justifies the fact that political communication requires similar investigation to find out the extent to which EI is relevant in the field.

Studies in EI have mostly been covering psychology and workplace operations. Researchers were very much interested in areas such as conflict management, building relationships, and general organizational politics. Interesting as they are, they still cover less ground when it comes to communication which by any means remains a vital aspect of any successful engagement. However, few scholars touch it in some aspects of it (Goleman, 1988, Serrat, 2009, Taboh et al., 2016), especially when dealing with rapport and conflict management.

### 2.2.3 Emotional Intelligence in Communication

The importance attached to emotional intelligence (EI) cannot be ignored when it comes to communication contexts. Scholars have covered this in many a way and have come up with varied conclusions each. Founding fathers of EI had their say as well, with Goleman (1998) arguing that the ability to "gauge audience's reactions, to finetune pre-sensation to have meaningful emotional impact" is crucial for effective communication. He further commends that good performers with EI are expected to

be artful at sending emotional signals, which in turn says, makes them powerful communicators able to 'sway an audience.'

Goleman's touch of communication in emotional skills is also reflected by other EI scholars in very much a similar way. When describing what he calls emotional and social attributes of EI, Serrat (2009) mentions communication as a social skill necessary in successful individuals; it is seen as one that encompasses the ability to register emotional cues in attuning messages, deal with difficult issues straightforwardly, good listening that seeks mutual understanding, fostering of open communication, staying receptive to bad news as well as good and the ability to build bonds, rapport, and relationships, this skill, therefore, offers a route to success in various, daily engagements.

Riggio and Reichard (2008) associate EI with effective communication through their term "people skills." They argue that EI results in people mastering these skills, which they unpack as the ability to communicate effectively, to manage social interactions and social relationships. Therefore, effective communication is identified as part of an EI skill that is vital for various engagements.

There is not so much disagreement on how useful EI can be to communication. Sinha and Deepti (2006) attest to this notion as well, asserting that EI is key to effective communication and that the two are intertwined. Given the fact that EI balances the stimuli-response axis, they argue that it is very much responsible for the way people express their thoughts and interchange ideas. Therefore, communication is assumed to be a mental activity that makes thorough use of the brain, with so much attached to emotions, an idea they label as a brain-to-brain process. It is true that as people communicate, it is the mind that links with the other mind. It is in this link that

interlocutors need an understanding of each other's emotions and a perfect balance of both for a working communicative process.

Communication process being a transaction process as analysed under the transactional analysis model (Sinha and Deepti, 2006), a communicator-communicatee axis requires consideration of each other's emotional dispositions to better savour anything out of an interlocution. This idea, however, is so much into interpersonal communication than group communication, the focus of this study, where there is no complete one-on-one communicative exchange. However, it establishes the importance of the communicatee (message receiver), which is an important point to note. This knowledge can be adopted in group communication, such as public speaking, where the audience matters the most. Peterson (2018) argues that the crowd is always right, and speakers must avoid saying things that take everyone aback. According to him, "a listening person tests your talking and your thinking," much to the need for refined conversations.

Communicators' mood has also been mooted as a predictor for effective communication. Being an element of EI, Goleman (1995) asserts that individuals who happen to be happy and satisfied have the potential to communicate better with others. This is supported by Jorfi et al. (2014), who also claim that EI can impact effective communication. The relationship between EI and communication can also be fetched from other assumptions made by other scholars. Among others is Bar-on (2002), cited by Jorfi et al. (2014) as saying that being emotionally and socially intelligent involves understanding and expressing oneself, relating with others, and coping with daily demands, challenges, and pressures. Expression of oneself, therefore, can be linked to how well people communicate.

Most of the arguments outlined earlier lack clarity on the level of communication in which one can excel. Studies done on group communication, more specifically on political communication with a clue on emotions (not necessarily EI, though), have tried to capture the much-needed part of this study in particular.

Richards (2004) insists that political communications must carry emotional narratives for better outcomes. His concern is, however, short of the authenticity of the message itself that is to be communicated to the people. Just having emotions does not say a lot about EI and perhaps may not translate into it. However, he further points out that good management of emotions can lead to the development of supportive and creative relationships, which brings in a touch of emotional awareness, an element of EI. This notion can further be cemented by Petrovic and Pobrescu (2014), who state that all forms of interpersonal and personal awareness constitute the basis for EI. This line of thinking creates a good EI foundation since personal understanding can most likely trigger interpersonal understanding, which can motivate productive communication.

Jamtoy's study on emotion and cognition in political communication brings in a more or less the same narrative made by Richards by paying attention to emotions, arguing that all forms of communication involve feelings (Jamtoy, 2012). Given the fact that feelings can also be a deciding factor in one's EI development, the argument sheds light on the need for communicators to carefully consider their own emotions in line with their audience, which predicts success in communicative contexts, both interpersonal and group communications.

A study by Chery et al. (2013) on the relationship among attachment, EI, and communication better responds to the emotion-based line of argument in communication. It asserts that individuals with higher EI exhibit appropriate levels of

emotional reactions and interpretations. They further emphasize that EI levels of an individual influence the effectiveness of their communication. The study brings out a clear connection between emotions and EI in communication since the two should not be mistaken for the same thing. However, the study was specifically done in clinical communication where emotional attachment could be more intense than the case with politics, which is the focus of this study.

In line with the study by Chery et al. (2013) above, reactions can be disruptive when emotions are mismanaged. Self-management as an EI feature is essential in daily interactions. Drigas and Papoutsi (2018) argue that the ability to control one's reactions in the sense that they are not driven by emotional impulses is important. They further cite harmful consequences to both the individual and those around them as results of failure to interpret emotions and control outbursts while under pressure. They establish a clear line between emotions and human reactions, which applies in almost all human engagements. However, their thoughts do not go deeper into specific aspects of communication, especially in politics that are dependent on the emotional status of those involved, a key perspective in this study.

In relation to this study, scholars have shed light on the importance of EI to Leaders and their communicative interactions. It is necessary for Leaders to put in mind their people's emotional states for better output. Goleman et al. (2002) argue that leaders set emotional standards and can affect how the rest of the people react to various stimuli. However, they add that interpretation and reaction depend on the style and approach of their communications since the mood and tone with which they deliver their message is key in determining the emotional impact from message receivers. This study emphasizes the vital part of EI in communication; however, so much is discussed relying on organizational leadership, not a political one. Nevertheless, the

study makes a strong point in connection with empathy by asserting that empathetic individuals have the ability to see someone's face and voice for emotion and attune to how that person feels as they speak to them. This fact further reiterates the importance of understanding the self and the other.

Most studies that deal with EI in connection with communication do not clearly capture the direct connection between communicating politics and EI. They either deal with interpersonal communication, which is more of a one-on-one scenario, or emphasize so much on emotions in politics, which may not necessarily convey the EI touch that is more importantly discussed in this study. After all, being emotional is not a positive signal towards a display of EI in communication; balancing emotions, understanding them, and managing them both in the speaker and audience is what EI entails.

Political contexts discussed in this study present emotionally demanding situations whose handling goes beyond interpersonal levels since they are interactions between one speaker and many multi-layered people forming the audience. Such contexts present unique challenges from the ones addressed by the likes of Goleman in Corporate contexts.

## 2.3 Theoretical Framework

### 2.3.1 Language Expectancy Theory (LET)

This study used the Language Expectancy Theory (LET) propounded by Michael Burgoon and Gerald R. Miller. The main proposition of this theory is that *"language is a rule governed system and people develop expectations concerning the language or message strategies employed by others in persuasive attempts."* The expectations that people carry are a function of cultural and sociological norms and preferences

arising from cultural values and societal standards or ideals for competent communication. (Burgoon, M. 1995)

It further proposes that;

a) People hold socio-cultural expectations about the language behaviour of others,

b) A disconfirmation of expectations prompts an evaluation that results in a positive or negative balancing of the violation, and

c) Disconformity leads to more positive or negative outcomes than does conformity to expectations.

LET puts forward two main violations of expectations in communication: positive and negative violations. Positive violations are two-fold, firstly, it is when enacted social behaviour is better or more preferred than that which was expected in the situation, and secondly, it is realized when negatively evaluated sources conform more closely than expected to cultural values or situational norms. This can lead to positive evaluation of the source or communicator. On the other hand, negative violations result from language choices that lie outside socially acceptable behaviour in a negative direction, produce no attitude or behaviour change in receivers (Burgoon, M. 1995).

According to Burgoon (1993), Communication expectancies derive from three main factors: The communicator, which involves features such as source credibility, personality, appearance, social status, and gender. Then, the relationship between a receiver and a communicator which includes factors such as attraction, similarity, and status equality; and lastly, context, which implies privacy and formality constraints on interaction.

The theory addresses language patterns that affect expectations, focusing on how features such as word choices, among others, negatively or positively violate expectations in communication, which has ramifications for message effectiveness (Burgoon, 1995). This is further given validity by Averbeck (2010), who asserts that being unnecessarily aggressive, for instance, leads to negative appraisal of both the message and the source/sender/speaker.

Language Expectance Theory fits in well with this study as it outlines the need for communicators to have the audience in mind. It urges speakers/communicators to assess their position and status in the target group and predict what is expected of them before they get in the communication exchange. Since emotionally intelligent politicians are expected to consider their audience's emotional disposition and choose the language that reflects what is expected of them, they are, in that sense, obliged to adhere to LET or positively violate it for effective communication. All expectations depend on the credibility of the source/communicator, how they choose some expressions in their speeches, and how their choices connect or detach them from their audiences.

Positive violation of the LET translates to adherence to the emotional intelligence framework in the sense that listeners' emotional dispositions/expectations are met. Contrary to that, negative violations signal failure to meet audience expectations; failure to read one's audience, which implies a lack of EI.

The LET was essential in establishing language features that reflected emotional intelligence through audience expectations. It was vital in assessing aspects such as context, speaker status, and the relationship between the speaker and audience. With LET, the researcher was able to point out words, phrases, or sentences that had both

positive and negative effects on the audience and the communication process. However, LET was not able to translate expectations into EI cues, leading to the need for a model that would bring in the interpretation of language features into EI cues.

## 2.3.2 Bar-On's Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI)

In the need to balance things in this multidisciplinary study, it appeared almost impossible for one theory to adequately address EI and political communication. With LET more into communication than EI, Bar-on's model was necessary with the purpose of addressing EI patterns within the data under discussion in this study.

Bar-On's comprehensive model of emotional intelligence (henceforth ESI) includes social intelligence as a variable. According to him, *"emotional-social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them and cope with daily demands"*(Bar-on, 2006).

In his model, emotional and social intelligences comprise of five high-level factors, namely: -

*Intrapersonal Skills*; the ability of being aware and understanding emotions, feelings, and ideas in the self, and it is subdivided into the five sub-factors: self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization;

*Interpersonal Skills*; the ability of being aware and understanding emotions, feelings, and ideas in others, and it is subdivided into three sub-factors: empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship;

*Adaptability*; the ability of being open to change our feelings depending on the situations, and includes the three subfactors Reality-Testing, Flexibility, and Problem-Solving;

*Stress Management*; the ability to copy stress and control emotions, it comprises of two sub factors: stress tolerance and impulse control;

*General Mood*; the ability to feel and express positive emotions and be optimistic; it comprises two sub factors: Optimism and Happiness.

With important areas of EI touched and expanded, the ESI model adds insight into communication patterns in relation to emotions. Communicating politics, a skill that requires the creation of connections, bonds, and maintaining relationships, requires more of the skills named under this model. The aspects brought forth by Bar-on capture two major patterns which matter the most in EI; the 'self' and the 'other.' In one way or the other, the five EI aspects under the ESI model fall under these two realisations, which connect with the speaker (self) and audience (other) in communication.

The ESI model brings the EI touch to this multidisciplinary study, complementing LET, which basically interprets language/communicative aspects discussed in the findings of this study. It, however, signals communication aspects such as expressing oneself, controlling impulses, and managing interpersonal relationships, the likes of which play a vital role in effective communication, as evidenced in the study.

In data analysis, the two theories were equally important. The study used the expectancy theory (LET) to address political communication contexts that touch audience expectations. In expounding on the data, LET was instrumental in establishing language expressions that signalled conformity or disconformity to audience expectations through aspects such as communicator status, the relationship between receiver and communicator, and communication context, as put forth by Burgoon, J. (1993). Since the theory looks into how language patterns (words,

phrases, sentences) affect expectations of message receivers in communication, it made it possible to establish language choices speakers made in the analysed speeches and what they represented as far as communication effectiveness is concerned.

In order to establish a clear link between language expressions and EI in data analysis, the Emotional-Social Intelligence model (ESI) was used to interpret scenarios in speeches under analysis. Since ESI is grounded on skills of understanding and expressing oneself, understanding others, relating with others, and coping with daily demands, it enabled the researcher to interpret speakers' choice of language resources (words, phrases, sentences) into mastery or failure in such EI skills.

## 2.4 Conclusion

The chapter reviewed the available literature in the three predetermined categories: political communication, emotional intelligence, and emotional intelligence in communication. The chapter established and discussed the gap from the available literature that this study sought to address.

**CHAPTER THREE**

**METHODOLOGY**

**3.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the research approach, study population, research site, sampling procedures, field work procedures, and data analysis methods.

**3.2 Research Approach**

Research requires a clear approach upon which a particular task should be grounded. An approach encompasses plans and procedures for research that organize the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell, J. and David, J.C. (2017).  Creswell (2007) sees a clearly illustrated research approach as an effective strategy to increase the validity of social research. An appropriate research approach, therefore, makes the whole process smooth, clear, and reliable. Creswell, J. and David, J.C. (2017) identify three research approaches: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. This study adopted a qualitative research approach.

Corbeta (2003) characterizes qualitative studies as open, interactive, with soft, rich, and deep data. Wimmer, R. and Joseph, R.D. (2006) assert that qualitative studies use small samples, and results are not generalised to the population. These observations are strengthened by Northey et al. (2009), who argue that qualitative studies seek to understand the World by studying, exploring, and describing cases individually than statistically motivated conclusions. It is in this line of thinking that this particular study was organized. The study used an in-depth analysis of speeches made by politicians, as well as questionnaires administered to politicians. The data collected from questionnaires and document analysis was given meaning through a rich

description based on observations from the data patterns and interpretations. The description had its basis on the guiding theory and the line of thought signalled in the literature review.

## 3.3 Research Design

A research design is an important aspect of a study. Scholars have defined a research design in various ways, but they have always had an interconnected way of looking at it. Kumar (1999) sees a design as a procedural plan which leads researchers in answering questions with objectivity, accuracy, and validity. A similar approach is reflected in Thyer (1993), who views research design as a blueprint or detailed plan key in a researcher's quest to complete a study in question. However, Kothari (2004) offers a detailed approach to defining a design. To him, a research design encompasses the arrangement of conditions necessary for collecting and analyzing data, keeping in mind a style that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose while being economical in the procedure. All scholars appear to agree on one main key aspect: plan. The research design must be a plan that puts forth necessary procedures in answering research questions under study.

Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) argue that a qualitative study can only take two shapes: descriptive or experimental. In light of this view, this study adopted a descriptive research design. A descriptive research design focuses on uncovering the *who*, *what*, and *where* of events or experiences and brings to light experiences and insights from research informants on a poorly understood phenomenon (Kim et al., 2017). The sentiment is shared by Robson (1993), who asserts that a descriptive research design portrays an accurate profile of people, events, or situations.

A descriptive research design aims to describe a phenomenon and its characteristics (Nassaji, 2015) and become more familiar with a phenomenon and gain insights (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2003). It can be summed up as a style that seeks to understand certain events or phenomena and establish the insights or perceptions of the research subjects towards such phenomena.

The descriptive design was effective in guiding this study. It was key in establishing insights on emotional intelligence (a key variable of the study) by establishing its awareness levels among politicians, its incorporation in speeches, and the possible impact it might have on the speech audiences.

## 3.4 Study Population

Neuman (2014) defines population as a large group of many cases from which a researcher draws a sample and to which results from a sample are generalised. The population for this study was politicians and speeches delivered by politicians in Tanzania between 2015 and 2019. For purposes of this particular study, a politician is defined as a person who engages in politics through leadership, following and sharing political messages on a consistent basis, especially in a political leadership capacity. Individual politicians were reached through a questionnaire administered to cover objective one of the study, while speeches were extracted as per the research guide.

## 3.5 Research Site and Sampling Procedures

The study was conducted online and partly in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, where questionnaires were administered. Speeches were accessed online through specific media YouTube sites before transcription and later analysis. Online sites from which speeches were accessed were: Ikulu Tanzania, Tanzanite TV, Global TV, ICON TV-TZ, Gilly Bonny Online TV, Jamii Forums, Bongovevo, and MwanaHALISI TV. The

selection of Dar es Salaam for the questionnaire was grounded on the fact that many politicians reside in Dar es Salaam, which made it easier for the researcher to access them.

The study adopted a purposive sampling procedure. Wimmer, and Joseph (2006) characterize a purposive sample as subjects or elements selected for specific characteristics or qualities, eliminating those who fail to meet the criteria. Neuman (2014), on the other hand, associates this sampling technique with locating possible cases of a highly specific and difficult to reach population. These scholars agree at one point: the researcher has the power to identify qualities of the sample for the study. This viewpoint is better clarified by Tracy (2013), who asserts that purposeful sampling involves choosing data that fit the parameters of the project's research questions, goals, and purposes.

In this study, a total of ten (10) speeches were purposively sampled from speeches delivered by politicians in the last four years, between 2015 and 2019. Speeches under consideration had to be extemporaneous or impromptu (non-written). Written speeches (manuscript) were not suitable for this study since they may not have been able to elicit relevant emotional flexibility as they are prepared in advance and under no significant pressure.

The year 2015 marked the time in which Tanzania started a new phase of government with a push to revolutionize the country's politics and economy, prompting more discussions in the political space. Tanzania was chosen for this study because it had a unique political atmosphere in the aforementioned period, which prompted mixed reactions from the public. The four-year period (2015-2019) was dominated by events such as a deadly earthquake in the north-western region of Tanzania (Kagera),

discussions on reforms of sensitive policies such as education rights for pregnant school girls, and criticisms on individual politicians and political ideologies especially with opposition parties lamenting on the supposed shift in the rule of law and human rights. These contexts brought about a special interest in how politicians navigated through such difficult moments that required emotional skills.

The time space under study also marks substantial growth in information dissemination channels, especially with the growth of social media platforms in communicating politics. As Esser and Pfetsch (2020) observed, in the modern-day world, political communication is no longer characterized by just traditional mass media but also a mix of public and personalized communication, social media, and established and non-established communicators. In this period, politicians have had to respond to allegations, criticisms, and attacks than ever before since it is increasingly very hard to keep information from the reach of the public. It is a period that better captures real political struggles to maintain credibility amid verbal attacks from many unprecedented angles.

A questionnaire with open-ended questions was also used to identify the EI awareness among politicians. The purposive sampling technique was also used to get ten (10) respondents from the political domain based in Dar es Salaam to better capture the target objective. Criteria for selection of respondents were that they had to be leaders/holding political posts in government, with regular coverage of political content, including the time of the study. The researcher administered the questionnaire in person, which helped clarify some points where it was deemed necessary.

**3.6 Field Work Procedures**

The study used document analysis and questionnaires for data collection. Documents are any written or recorded materials. A document analysis method is a form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic. Documents include public records such as newspaper archives, local business records, Hansards, and speeches, among others (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The study used recorded speeches because impromptu or extemporaneous speeches are never written down prior to the occasion. Therefore, they could only be obtained from online media sites.

Speeches were accessed from official online media sites in Tanzania and written down for ease of analysis. In choosing appropriate speeches, the researcher stuck to the guide, where only speeches that met the requirement were considered. Requirements, as stated in 3.4, included the style of delivery (impromptu or extemporaneous) and the context of delivery (emotionally demanding situations). Collected speeches were translated into English since they were all in Kiswahili. However, specific elements of data that were analysed were in Kiswahili with a word-to-word translation in order to capture important language patterns. Complete English versions of speeches were made available for accessibility reasons.

A questionnaire was designed in line with the research target stipulated in objective one of the study. Questionnaires were administered to selected respondents who matched the profile of a respondent as per study requirements. Before administration, a pilot study was done to test the items' validity, clarity, and relevance. This was done in line with the assertion by Neuman (2014) that pilot tests improve the reliability of research work. Without a pilot study, the instrument in question may present data that

does not answer study objectives. During piloting, some respondents suggested a bit of fine-tuning in the questions to make them clear for respondents of all levels of education. The researcher was also advised to have two versions of items in the questionnaires, the English and Swahili version, and allow respondents to answer in any of the two languages. This proved very useful since all respondents answered all questions in Kiswahili contrary to initial expectations.

**3.7 Methods of Data Analysis**

The study took a thematic approach in data analysis, where the researcher identified themes from the available data, basically on the grounds of recurrence of key patterns of the desired study features in texts, and analysed them in line with appropriate theoretical and literature backing. According to Maguire and Delahunt (2017), a thematic analysis aims to identify themes or patterns in the data that are important or interesting and use them to address the research or say something about an issue. Therefore they help build up a discussion of data leading to a sensible conclusion. John Stuart Mill (1859), as quoted in Northey et al. (2009), said, *"very few facts are able to tell their own story, without comments to bring out their meaning."* This cements what was specifically done in analysing this data in line with the requirements of a qualitative study. A discussion was built around available information, time and again alluding to theory, literature, and responses based on the researcher's experience and observations.

The theoretical basis under which data was analysed was on the Language Expectancy Theory (LET) and Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI) Model. With LET, the researcher primarily used the main propositions of the theory that touch on social-cultural expectations about language behaviours of people, disconfirmation of

communication expectations leading to positive or negative violation of LET, and how disconformity is more negative or positive than conformity to expectations.

Expectation factors, the communicator, relationship between receiver and communicator, and context were key pillars establishing meeting grounds for communication expectations between audience and communicators. Burgoon (1993) rates them highly as determiners of communication expectations. They determine the type of language to be used by the speaker, each in its own context. Language elements were deemed relevant for the study by being measured against theory pillars which are main propositions and expectation factors.

In analysing data, LET was useful in explaining cases where statements by politicians met, missed, or surpassed the expectations of their audience. Expectation factors (communicator status, relationship between receiver and communicator, and communication context) which relate to individual or group status were used to determine language behaviours expected of speakers. Politicians' power positions trigger certain expectations from their subordinates, affecting the way their language is expected to behave. For instance, in selected speeches, theory simplified the process of labelling expressions, statements, words, or phrases as incorporating emotional intelligence or otherwise. Language behaviours that seem to devalue the audience were deemed less emotionally intelligent since they are inconsiderate and might have come up as a result of failure to properly react to particular stimuli; the notion advocated by Chery et al. (2013), who insist on the influence of EI in proper reactions and interpretations among individuals.

However, a language theory alone could not clearly mark EI in given expressions. A purely EI model was required to bring in the necessary link between expressions and

their emotional interpretation. The ESI Model aided data interpretation through a detailed EI explanation to information obtained in data. The five aspects outlined in the model: Intrapersonal Skills, Interpersonal Skills, Adaptability, Stress Management, and General Mood, all have a clear link with political communication data since they address necessary information about the self (necessary for the communicator) and the other (communicatee). A communication problem caused by misunderstandings between individuals can be interpreted as a deficiency in interpersonal skills, leading to undesired or unexpected language behaviour. The same problem can be linked with intrapersonal skills since it can also be seen as a failure to manage oneself.

The link between the two frameworks made it relatively simple to clearly paint the proper study picture from the data. Language Expectancy Theory (LET) offered an interpretation of language patterns and their behaviour in the communicative context, in line with audience expectations. On the other hand, the Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI) model addressed EI features in the identified language behaviours, establishing deficiency or mastery of emotional-social intelligences through intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, and adaptability skills.

### 3.8 Ethical Considerations

For research to be valid, researchers are required to be ethical, especially in data collection methods. Ethical considerations include aspects such as rights to dignity, autonomy protection, safety, minimization of harms, and maximization of benefits (Sugiura et al., 2017). Failure to protect such research subjects' rights may render the study in question illegitimate.

In this study, the researcher worked in line with relevant ethical guidelines in various ways. For the questionnaire, which was administered in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania, the research permit was sought for three districts that were involved, namely: Kinondoni, Temeke, and Ubungo. The permit covered the months of July and August 2019. (See research permit appendix)

For purposes of informed consent, respondents were given the freedom to take part in the study or leave at any point. The questionnaire contained a section on research consent at the beginning which introduced the study's objective and granted freedom of participation.

Anonymity was maintained in the questionnaire from data collection to analysis. Respondents were not asked to mention their names or any identifiable particulars in the questionnaire. In data analysis, respondents were coded as '**R**,' numbered from one to ten (R1 –R10).

Speeches analysed in the study were public since they were collected from YouTube. Ethical guidelines for online research are contradictory. Sugiura et al. (2017) argue that there is little consensus about appropriate ethical practices for online research. However, they contend with a guide by the Market Research Society that public data require no informed consent. Earlier studies on online research also agree that online data are public and do not fall under any national or international research rules (Eynon et al., 2008; Berger, 2012).

According to Berger (2012), YouTube videos are published materials and are not subject to research guidelines. However, for data verification in case videos are removed from specific sites, he suggests that researchers should keep record of pseudonymized transcripts, which are copyright the transcriber. In this study, the

researcher prepared pseudonymized transcripts of speeches for records should data verification demands arise at any point.

**3.9 Conclusion**

This chapter established ways in which the research question established in chapter one will be addressed. It discussed data collection methods, study population, and sampling procedures, among other things, clarifying how the eventual chapters were arrived at.

**CHAPTER FOUR**

**LEVEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AWARENESS AMONG**

**POLITICIANS**

**4.1 Introduction**

This chapter covers the first objective of the study, which examines the Emotional Intelligence (EI) awareness level among politicians. It discusses details of information gathered from respondents one to ten, hereafter referred to as R1 – R10, who filled in a questionnaire that was specifically designed to capture EI features in political communication. The questionnaire had four open-ended questions, where respondents were asked to give their opinion and briefly explain reasons for their decisions.

The first item asked respondents whether it is important to know the audience before someone speaks to them. Item two went deeper into specific EI elements that define 'knowing the other,' asking whether respondents would like to know their audience's history, cultural norms, likes and dislikes, contemporary emotional states, relationship to the speaker, and expectations about the speaker and/or the speech. Item three inquired about the importance of social skills such as self-awareness, self-management, empathy, and relationship management. The fourth item sought to understand the difference between addressing a familiar audience and the unfamiliar one. All items sought to uncover the two basic requirements of EI: knowing the self and knowing the other (Goleman et al., 2002, Salovey and Mayer, 1990, Bar-On, 2002), which the study finds relevant in the political encounters. These items are individually discussed in the following sections beginning with knowing the audience.

## 4.2 Knowing the Audience Prior to Speaking to Them

Politicians' need to understand one's audience was examined as part of political speaking prerequisites. This was captured in item one, which asked respondents to explain whether they would want to know their audience before they spoke to them. All ten respondents, first of all, agreed that it is important to know the audience better before one engaged them as a leader/politician. In their explanations for the answer, respondents had varied discussions, each touching on vital factors in successful political speeches associated with audience knowledge. A summary of the responses and themes derived from their responses is presented in the table below, followed by a discussion.

**Table 1. Responses and themes on questionnaire item 1.**

| Respondent | Response/Explanations | Themes/Interpretations |
|---|---|---|
| R1 | Yes. By knowing the audience, the speaker knows the audience's comprehension capacity, type of politics they practice, and how to choose words, which helps them avoid hurting people, emphasizing emotions, culture and expectations. | Connection, Bond |
| R2 | Yes. It motivates good listening from the audience and appropriate message delivery from the speaker | Good Listening – effective communication |
| R3 | Yes. Knowing the audience dictates language choice | Effective communication |
| R4 | Yes. It helps me prepare well for speeches | Preparation for productive communication |
| R5 | Yes. It helps the speaker to identify what to say, when, and why | Pursuit of connection with the audience |
| R6 | Yes. Helps in arranging and giving out persuasive arguments | Persuasion |
| R7 | Yes. Audience knowledge gives you what they want, why you speak, and the style. Without it, there is no communication. | Connection and Effective communication |
| R8 | Yes. It brings about better message delivery, more freedom. It helps me know their desires and their expectations of me. | Flexibility in communication, Effective communication, and connection with the audience |
| R9 | Yes. Audience knowledge offers room for self-assessment and preparation; it helps the speaker say things that positively touch the audience. | Self-assessment and connection/relationship maintenance |
| R10 | Yes. It gives the speaker freedom to prepare and arrange well what to say. In addition, it gives room for furnishing support details such as examples to fit the audience's requirements. | Persuasion and Effective communication |

From the summary presented in Table 1 above, it can be seen that each respondent had particular ways of showing how important audience knowledge is in political speaking. Claims made by R1 touched elements such as comprehension capacity of the audience, type of politics they practice, culture, and expectations as the things one needs to familiarize with before engaging a crowd. This respondent further claims that the knowledge about the audience gives the speaker the power of proper word choice, which helps speakers to avoid hurting other people or sounding inappropriate in the process.

R2 brings in a new way of looking at this important ritual in political speaking by asserting that it motivates good listening from the audience and leads to effective communication. The listening advantage is achieved by the bond that is created between the audience and the speaker who understands them better, someone who has their expectations and interests in mind. Among the pillars of EI that dictate communication and general human interaction, as clarified in Goleman (1995), is understanding others. By understanding others, the speaker befittingly positions his/her audience where they really belong, which can trigger good listening.

Lines of thought by R3, R4, R5, and R10 emphasized how audience knowledge helps prepare and plan for speeches. However, R3 adds more to speech planning by signalling the choice of language as part of the benefits. This assumes that when the speaker is preparing for a familiar audience, it becomes easy to make proper linguistic expressions to be used.

R7's argument was that audience knowledge gives the speaker what the people want, offers the reason for speaking, and dictates the style. All these elements determine the end product of the speech, where the speaker's choice of words and style can lead to

the speaker touching the right note for effective persuasion. R6 echoes this by asserting that audience knowledge helps in planning and producing persuasive arguments in the process. Being persuasive translates into meeting audience expectations in a sense, which is a feature of successful communication.

The discussion made by R8 touched on message delivery, speaker freedom, and matching expectations as primary benefits of knowing one's audience. R9 went further, bringing in self-assessment as a benefit of knowing the audience, the assumption being that if the speaker knows the audience, they can plan to meet certain expectations. From the feedback the speaker gets during or after a speech, it is easy to assess oneself and weigh the performance in different aspects as planned before.

From the discussion above, all respondents in this questionnaire item agreed that it is important to understand one's audience before engaging them in a speech. In terms of their reasoning, it can be argued that respondents did not go far apart in the reasons they gave for audience knowledge. They touched on speech preparation advantages, choice of the right linguistic expressions, adaptation of speech style and type in some occasions, self-assessment, and successful speech delivery. All respondents signalled the need for the common ground between speakers and audience, which most likely brings in the sense of matched expectations, connection, and rapport. All these bring about a successful communication process.

Successful understanding of the audience (the other) mirrors the speaker's EI credentials, indicating the need to know others. This, therefore, as identified by respondents, leads to effective communication, a fact further supported by Sinha and Depti (2006), who claim that EI is vital to effective communication and the two elements depend on each other. In connection to the language expectancy theory

(LET), pursuit for connection, bonds, relationships, and effective communication also depend on the speaker-audience links. When audience expectations are met or positively exceeded (positive violation of LET) by the speaker, then there is complete and effective communication. Failure to cope with expectations may translate into EI deficiency and negative violation of LET and ultimately derail the entire communication process.

The emotional-social intelligence model's emphasis on skills such as 'interpersonal skill' further alludes to study findings. The model rates highly knowledge of emotions, feelings, and ideas in the others, which goes deep into communication, as stipulated by respondents in this particular item.

## 4.3 Awareness of Basic Information about Audience.

Understanding the audience involves a number of specific elements that define the identity of the people at a given time and place. Questionnaire item two inquired respondents to pick among the given list of elements of audience information, namely, **history, cultural norms, likes**, **dislikes, contemporary emotional state, relationships, and expectations**. The selected items are basic in understanding the 'other' in human interactions, which is an important feature of emotional intelligence. Respondents were allowed to pick as many as they could as long as they deemed them relevant. The listed elements covered the ESI model's interpersonal skill requirement of digging deep into one's emotions and ideas prior to interaction. The following table shows choices that each respondent made, and the discussion follows thereafter.

**Table 2. Responses on Questionnaire item 2**

| Respondents | Items of audience identification | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | History | Cultural Norms | Likes | Dislikes | Contemporary emotional state | Relationships | Expectations |
| R1 | ✘ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| R2 | ✓ | ✘ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| R3 | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| R4 | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| R5 | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| R6 | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✘ | ✓ |
| R7 | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ / ✘ | ✓ |
| R8 | ✓ | ✓ | ✘ | ✘ | ✓ | ✓ | ✘ |
| R9 | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| R10 | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |

There were mixed responses from respondents on the necessity to understand the audience in factors such as history, cultural norms, likes and dislikes, contemporary emotional state, their relationship to the speaker, and expectations about the speaker or their speech. As presented in Table 2 above, half of the respondents (five) went for all elements while the other half kept some reservations on at least one of them each. These elements included in item two of the questionnaire are important because they help speakers to better explore their audience for better planning.

Verbal encounters can be tricky when not considered carefully and planned well. Political communicators/politicians require a lot of knowledge about their people since they speak to find connection and support in most cases. Successful audience engagement involves accommodating the audience on the grounds of what one (speaker) knows about them prior to engaging them in a talk, which is what the item in question addressed.

In responding to this item of the questionnaire, five respondents selected all elements as vital in their audience analysis plan. Five other respondents skipped some of the listed elements, deeming them less important. R1 left 'history' out of the necessary information about the audience, retaining the remaining six. The rationale behind this choice could be that history may not affect one's on-stage performance as a politician, which may not be the case since some societies are very sensitive with their historical connections, and there is so much attachment to it than other aspects. However, given the fact that successful communication can be related to attachment and emotions, as signalled by Chery et al. (2013), it is wise to think about the target audience's history for better output.

R2 overlooked 'cultural norms' in the selection. Like history, a particular group's culture could be vital in some political contexts. Understanding of a group's culture gives the leader a sense of connectedness and may dictate the choice of some language resources in the process. Since there are audience expectations in the communication process, one needs to understand their audience in terms of their culture and norms for better outcomes.

In their responses, R6 and R7 overlooked 'relationship' with the former ignoring it altogether while the latter gave it an average rating. The relationship between interlocutors in the communication exchange cannot be ignored since it builds the foundation of the process and largely determines success. For speakers, being able to relate well with their audience and establish a link to both themselves and the subject of discussion is a key step to effective communication.

The only notable exception was the response by R8. The respondent left out three elements: likes, dislikes, and expectations, rating them less important for politicians in

speech preparations. However, it is important to note that knowledge about one's audience determines expectations they might have on the speech, the speaker, or both. Therefore, understanding what the audience likes and dislikes can help shape the content of the speech to be delivered to them. Likewise, the ability to predict the expectations of one's audience is vital in shaping the speech and the eventual success in delivery.

Responses to this questionnaire item had minor variations from person to person. These variations, however, do not seem extreme in any way since those who opted against some elements only left one out (R6), except R8, who ignored three of the elements (likes, dislikes, and expectations) and R7 who just gave 'relationship' average importance to public speaking/communication. This output is not negative as far as EI awareness is concerned, and it could still be argued that these respondents value audience information for better planning and execution of their political speeches.

Elements that were left out in this section signal certain levels of EI deficiency. Respondents ignored important aspects such as history, cultural norms, relationships, likes, dislikes, and expectations, implying they are not important to note when preparing for political speaking. For speakers who care for the effectiveness of their communication, it is important to take all these features into account in order to establish a clear connection necessary in political contexts. These respondents still made the right choices with the other elements, on average leaving just one out of their choices, which is a positive indicator as far as EI is concerned.

The findings gave an indication that effective communication requires interlocutors to understand one another for better results. The aspect of monitoring others' emotions

brought forth by Salovey and Mayer (1990) connects with the idea of being aware of the audience's basic information such as culture, history, and emotional states. This touches communicators more than receivers since the LET points out that people always consider communicator status and credibility, among other factors in their gauging of expectations. So, it is mostly up to the speaker to seek knowledge of their audience in all the aspects pointed out in the item discussed under this subsection to position themselves properly before they engage their crowds.

## 4.4 Importance of Self-awareness, Self-management, Empathy and Relationship Management in Public Speaking

Emotional intelligence consists of various social skills which are vital for human interactions. Item three of the questionnaire covered such skills including self-awareness, self-management, and empathy, and relationship management. Respondents were asked to state whether the aforementioned skills matter in their speaking contexts and give an in-depth narrative on their thought. The results are summarized in the table below, followed by a discussion of each respondent's argument in relation to the study in question.

**Table 3. Summary of Responses on questionnaire item 3.**

| Respondents | Response/Explanations | Themes/Interpretations |
|---|---|---|
| R1 | Yes. *Self-management* helps the speaker to: know where to start from and the connection to the end, withstand annoyance, tolerate others' point of view, control anger, emotions, and inappropriate acts. *Self-awareness* brings confidence, and *Relationship management* brings in connection with the audience. | -Direct/guide the speech -Tolerance |
| R2 | Yes. They help the speaker to face and deal with challenges that come in the course of speech. | Confidence/skills to face challenges |
| R3 | Yes. Help in speech delivery | Effective delivery/communication |
| R4 | Yes. Bring in tolerance in hard times | Tolerance |
| R5 | Yes. Determine decision of what to say, how, and which words to be used. | Guide the speech |
| R6 | Yes. Help speaker to avoid annoying audience, enable the speaker to face challenging questions with negative reactions, and they offer a chance to learn and correct oneself. | Tolerance and confidence in tough contexts |
| R7 | Yes. Help speaker to prepare well for speeches | Proper preparations |
| R8 | Yes. Can help the speaker to drag the audience closer to them | Connection/bond |
| R9 | Yes. Help speaker to know what to do even when there is a problem | Problem-solving |
| R10 | Yes. They give the general picture of the speech, help the speaker tolerate many things especially tough questions, and avoid conflicts. | Tolerance |

All respondents were on common ground, all claiming the skills are important. Their explanation that produced themes such as tolerance, speech guide, effective delivery/communication, and connection/bond, among others, stressed on the

importance of EI elements in question. They, however, had a different way of looking at things as they explained their deeper understanding of the elements and how useful they can be in a public speaking context.

The discussion by R1 made a thorough assessment of these skills, in particular, arguing that self-management gives the speaker the correct direction; helps one to know where to start from and the connection to the end. The skill was given additional benefits such as helping the speaker to withstand annoyance, tolerate others' point of view, manage debates, control anger, emotions and dictate appropriate reaction. The respondent further gave an example of a politician who made the emotionally driven decision that, in the respondent's words, "backfired."

This line of thought makes sense in connection with EI since self-management starts with understanding oneself as a person and in the image of the position one occupies. R1 further extended the narrative asserting that self-awareness accounts for one's confidence, and relationship management brings in connection with the audience and controls the talk into what the audience expects.

On the same note, R2 claimed that all the mentioned social skills collectively help the speaker deal with challenges that come along the speaking context; generation of speaker's confidence. R3, R5, and R7 had a more similar way of looking at the elements, pointing out that knowledge of the skills gives the speaker a necessary edge in preparation, delivery of the target message. Message preparation and delivery involve the proper choice of words and other linguistic expressions to better match the contextual requirements.

R4 and R6 kind of allude more to R1's line of thought, with the former pointing out tolerance in challenging encounters as the sole benefit while the latter goes a little

deeper by bringing out aspects such as avoidance of irritable comments, ability to face challenging questions with negative reactions and further argues that these skills present a politician with the opportunity to learn and correct oneself. R9 was not off the mark as he/she brought in the aspect of handling problems. Uniquely, R8 brought in the attachment aspect, claiming that social skills can help the speaker drag the audience closer. This is more of relationship management, although there is no denying that the likes of self-management, self-awareness, and empathy, which brings in the aspect of feeling with others, put together, can bring relationship management into fruition.

On the other hand, R10 made a slightly different claim that the social skills in question paint the general picture of the speech to be delivered. This is to say, as the speaker prepares for a public event, these skills can help them design a speech that brings more answers than questions; a speech that, as par LET propositions, meets or exceeds expectations of the audience (conformity and positive violation respectively). The respondent further alludes to others with a  touch on tolerance and avoidance of conflicts.

Questionnaire item three basically sought to understand whether politicians, in any way, consider social skills in their verbal political encounters. Self-awareness, self-management, empathy, relationship management are among the determinants of EI. All respondents showed a good understanding of the skills and appeared to understand their importance in communication encounters. The reasons they offered to support their positions were sound and valid, and the difference that exists among them is only healthy and enriches the thinking around EI as a discipline, and a social phenomenon human beings require the most for them to get going in daily operations, not just communication. However, politicians' knowledge of EI skills does not

guarantee their usage when delivering political messages. Contextual demands sometimes push speakers to the limit, which brings out their true identity, an EI deficient reaction that deters the communication process.

Responses matched Bar-On's definition of EI in line with his ESI model's subsection of intrapersonal skills, where an individual is expected to have knowledge over the self in areas including self-regard and self-awareness, among others. Goleman (1998) connects EI to the ability to 'gauge audience's reactions' and what he calls 'fine-tuning pre-sensation' skills that are crucial if someone is to have a productive, communicative encounter. To achieve this, speakers need a thorough self-assessment to understand themselves for fruitful interactions.

**4.5 Difference between Addressing Familiar Audience and the unfamiliar one**

In the researcher's quest to assess politicians' understanding of one of EI's pillars, 'finding/knowing the other' an item was set asking respondents to explain the difference they find in speaking to a familiar audience as opposed to the unfamiliar one. Knowing the *other* comes after knowing the *self*. It is expected that for someone to successfully predict the audience's reactions, then they must first know oneself. The two skills bring about appropriate reactions from people and are vital in communication encounters people engage in every day.

The aim of this last item was to gauge the respondents' ability to navigate in the EI knowledge of awareness within both conversational patterns. The ability to differentiate the two signals, whether one has the necessary tools as a communicator, and failure to find out significant differences between the two types of audiences, casts doubts on the knowledge the respondent has on this important EI requirement. Findings are summarized in the table below, followed by a discussion.

**Table 4. Summary of Responses and themes on questionnaire item 4.**

| Respondents | Response/Explanations | | Themes/ Interpretations |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Familiar Audience | Unfamiliar Audience | |
| R1 | The speaker knows the importance of the topic to the audience, what the audience wants to learn, and avoid saying things that annoy them. Speaker also knows audience knowledge on the topic of discussion | -Hard to deliver -Difficult to appropriately match their Non-Verbal cues, religious and ideological backgrounds. | Connection/bond |
| R2 | Easy to be understood | Difficult to choose words in speaking. | Effective communication |
| R3 | Easy to deliver since there is mutual feeling and relationship | No confidence | -Confidence -Connection |
| R4 | Confidence | Difficult to be understood | -Confidence -Connection |
| R5 | -Easy to know what hurts and what makes the audience happy -Easy to make appropriate word choices -No room for self-assessment since the speaker says what the audience wants to hear. | -Tests one's ability to communicate -Difficult to know when one's words hurt or what can make them accept what is said. | -Connection -Self-assessment |
| R6 | -short time to prepare -easy to get feedback | -hard to know their expectations -difficult to get feedback -the talk is cautious | -Feedback -Preparations |
| R7 | It offers a good link, more of a personal connection | -good if the speaker is conversant with the subject -Requires reaction reading to cope -Difficult to go wrong since the talk is cautious -Less connection | -Connection -Cautious Talk |
| R8 | Freedom of expression, word choices, and better connections | -more cautious -Not clearly different for experienced speakers since the tricks are the same. | -Connection -Speech flexibility |
| R9 | Easy to plan speech, prepare yourself and achieve goals | -Requires thorough preparations -cautious talk -Some information can be obtained in the middle of the talk | Communication effectiveness |
| R10 | Easy to prepare. Speaker has audience knowledge | -Difficult. -Cautious talk to avoid conflict of ideas and other misunderstandings. | - Connection -Cautious talk |

The challenge that comes with audience familiarity is that someone cannot easily know the audience on a personal level, but it is not an excuse in any way since groups have identities. It is therefore vital to look into features that identify them as a group. However, knowledge of individual identities in the group can be useful too when availed to the speaker. Findings from item four of the questionnaire (presented in table 4) show that all respondents believed a familiar audience is easier to address than the unfamiliar one. Respondents varied among themselves, particularly in the points they gave to support their claims. However, it was clear that all of them had respect for what audience knowledge can do for effective communication, especially in politics.

Comments made by R1 show that addressing a familiar audience is easy since the speaker has the opportunity to know audience interests and their knowledge on what is to be addressed. The speaker can also successfully avoid giving statements that may end up annoying or turning them against the gathering crowd. For the unfamiliar one, R1 argued that it might be difficult to deliver, especially with zero knowledge of their ideological and religious background. The respondent further added that the speaker may miss out on important non-verbal cues among the audience, which could hamper his/her speech. This makes sense given the intercultural nature of communication, especially political communication, where a mere slip of the tongue can ruin the communicative purpose intended. Familiarizing with the audience, therefore, instigates connection which is vital in political speaking.

R2 introduced an impact-related point with the claim that a familiar audience makes it easy for the speakers to be understood. Here the assumption may be farfetched. The respondent may have assumed that being aware of the audience's identity gives the speaker an edge in designing the speech expected to be in the shape dictated by

predetermined requirements, giving it ease of comprehension. On an unfamiliar audience, the respondent pointed to difficulty with word choice as the main issue. Either way, the respondent seeks to address that communication effectiveness is likely than the unfamiliar one with a familiar audience.

From R3's observation, a familiar audience makes the speaking task easy since the speaker can connect with the audience in terms of feelings, language, and relationships. On the other hand, an unfamiliar audience can take away someone's confidence. Confidence is number one on R4's observation, who points to it as a benefit of addressing a familiar audience, while the unfamiliar one makes it difficult for the speaker to be understood.

Avoidance of verbal contradictions and knowing what makes the audience happy or angry is R5's advantage of engaging a familiar audience. However, the same respondent asserted that it is difficult to assess oneself with a familiar audience since speakers say what the people want to hear. This, however, looks offline since EI in communication is not about saying what everyone wants to hear but the way things are said in connection to the contextual and emotional landscape of the audience. It is about getting the right expressions to produce appropriate reactions (Cherry et al., 2013).

The language that incorporates empathy maintains relationships and connection among others, can smoothen communication even in delivering difficult messages. In condemning certain misconduct in the government systems, a leader can make use of inclusive expressions such as pronouns 'we,' 'us,' or 'our' to discuss a scenario. This inclusion can make it simple for the receivers/audience to accept the message despite remaining less favourable, less what they wanted to hear. This is because the audience

will feel less isolated since the speaker attracts connection by including him/herself in the matter by use of the inclusivity strategy in speaking.

On the unfamiliar audience, R5 argued that it is difficult to know where and when one might hurt the audience's feelings and what can make them accept what is said. However, an unfamiliar audience is taken as a positive challenge by the same respondent who claimed that it tests one's ability to communicate. The assumption here may be that since the speaker has limited knowledge about the target audience, they may be tested on how well they can forge a link and handle a mystery crowd, hungry for information but sensitive, depending on context and occasion. This looks like a valid observation since, at times, it is not easy to have full knowledge of the audience, so skills such as self-management need to be on a high level.

In the observation made by R6, with the familiar audience, it is easy to prepare oneself, and importantly, feedback can be easily obtained. With the unfamiliar one, the respondent argued that feedback is difficult to get, difficult to predict their expectations, and the talk is normally cautious, always careful not to provoke emotional reactions that can ruin the entire occasion. It, therefore, presents speakers with a challenge since knowing the audience offers a chance to predict their expectations and act upon them.

Another observation was made in R7's response, who brought up the idea of connection and personal link between speaker and audience. The respondent argued that a familiar audience helps the speaker to link well with the audience, giving the occasion a more personalised connection. This, however, brings up more of one-on-one interaction, a more interpersonal context than a group one which is mostly what political communication and public speaking refer to in this particular context. On the

unfamiliar one, the respondent uniquely labelled it as 'good' when the speaker is conversant with the subject matter but insists that it requires reaction reading for someone to cope well with the audience, and there is less connection.

Interestingly, R7 made another unique point that with this type of audience (unfamiliar), it is difficult to go wrong because the speaker happens to be extra careful with everything they make out of the occasion. This point can still give the respondent some credit as far as EI is concerned. Being 'careful,' as the respondent puts it, signals the idea of *reading someone's mind* made by Goleman (1998). It further alludes to the respondent's point of *reaction reading* made earlier. The insistence here is on the need to understand one's interlocutors for a better communicative outcome.

Similar comments appear in R8's observation, citing freedom, flexibility in word choices, and better connections as advantages of engaging a familiar audience. With the unfamiliar one, cautious talk is also cited; however, he/she brings up the argument that an unfamiliar audience is not any different when it comes to experienced public speakers since the tricks are normally the same. This assumption may not necessarily be worth it since public speaking, especially in political contexts, evolves from time to time and requires constant adaptations to match every twist.

Responses from R9 and R10 brought out similar comments with the familiar audience, pointing to ease of preparation and planning banking on underlying audience knowledge by the speaker. They also match on the other end, pointing to the difficulty associated with engaging an unfamiliar audience. They commented on the need for a cautious talk that shields the speaker from any conflicts. R9 brought up a progressive advantage with the unfamiliar audience, asserting that some important information/cues can be obtained in the middle of the speech. The arguments made by

these respondents emphasize the importance of understanding receivers of political messages, despite R9's extension of the idea to the unfamiliar audience.

All respondents in this particular item exhibited a considerable knowledge of EI with their comments in relation to the item. It can easily be seen that they (all) believe it is important to have a basic understanding of the people one is about to engage in a speech context. They presented ideas that translated into connection and bonding between speaker and audience, self-assessment, feedback, and effectiveness in the communication process as some of the identifying features of a familiar audience; the opposite signalled less successful communicative encounter.

The arguments made by respondents had variations. However, the notable variations are not as critical as it might seem since observations made by some, particularly on the positives of having an unfamiliar audience, end with the need to be careful and cautious. This makes an important point that good speakers, when tasked with addressing unfamiliar audience, must read their audience right in the midst of the process to compensate for their audience knowledge deficiency.

All comments made and the extracted themes link to EI requirements, with the underlying purpose being proper reaction and interpretation of the audience, features identified by Cherry et al. (2013) as one of EI determinants. Understanding one's audience can eventually lead to positive violation of the expectations proposed in the L.E.T., which Burgoon, J. (1995) puts it, leads to a positive evaluation of the communicator and the eventual effectiveness in communication.

**4.6 Conclusion**

The four questionnaire items discussed in this chapter sought to explore the level of EI awareness among Tanzanian politicians. The assumption was that the researcher would draw a relevant conclusion reflecting their EI awareness through the positions they pick for each question and explanations they offer to support their positions. Each questionnaire item was designed to signal elements/determinants of EI as proposed by the likes of Goleman (1995, 1998), Bar-on (2002), and Salovey and Mayer (1990) in their painting of the idea. Reflections of empathy, intra (the self), and interpersonal relations, knowledge of others, and contextual connections were implied to better capture respondents' understanding of EI.

Given what their responses were in each item as discussed in-depth under this chapter, it can be concluded that the respondents exhibited a high level of EI awareness. All respondents offered answers that reflect a considerable level of EI awareness. Having responded to questions alone, free of the researcher's intervention, their uniformity was strikingly interesting. They were able to show that they have the basic/underlying knowledge of EI or elements that constitute EI; however, it remains puzzling whether they had an extrinsic understanding of EI and constantly alert themselves in emotionally demanding contexts.

Being emotionally intelligent is not an overnight skill. EI is developed overtime, with age as put by Mayer et al. (2002) cited in Cherry et al. (2013), and requires extra effort to consistently reflect it in communicative contexts, what Petrovici and Tatiana (2014) mark as transferring a unipersonal perspective to bi-personal one through interaction. Failure to consider EI credentials in political speaking will most likely

ruin the communication process, leading to total failure or underperformance, an unfortunate situation in politics.

**CHAPTER FIVE**

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE INCORPORATION IN POLITICAL**

**SPEECHES AND THE IMPACT ON THE AUDIENCE**

**5.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses data covering objectives two and three of the study, where the former was set out to examine the extent to which emotional intelligence (EI) is incorporated in political speeches, and the latter assessed the impact of EI incorporation on the audience. The discussion is based on realizations of EI in political speeches, with the analysis of aspects that reflect the extent to which political speeches do or do not incorporate EI in any given conversation and the possible impact on the respective audience.

The analysis is based on establishments by Language Expectancy Theory (LET) and the Emotional-Social Intelligence model (ESI). LET brought forth audience expectations in speech contexts, as interpreted through language patterns such as word choices in line with expectation factors such as speaker status, speaker-audience relationship, and context. The ESI model offered an EI dimension to language/communication patterns as interpreted through EI skills such as empathy, interpersonal relationship, and self-management.

Analysis of the impacts of EI incorporation to the audience is based on the guide by Goleman (2002), who identifies that audience reactions reflect the impact of the message on them (receiver). In his account, he asserts when an EI is considered in a communication context, it can trigger reactions such as laughter, smiles, applause, which can be interpreted as confirmation of alliances/friendliness, connection, and a shared sense of the world. The opposite (negative impact such as disconnection, loss

of bond, or alliance) can be expected when EI is ignored. Since the study uses speeches to analyse EI features, this basis provides a firm ground for reflecting the positive or negative impact of EI incorporation in speeches.

The chapter covers two major subsections where the first part covers language aspects that incorporate EI and the other covers the ones that do not incorporate EI, both of which discuss the impact of their respective language use on the audience. In the discussion below, speeches under consideration are labelled as SP1 to 10 for ease of reference.

## 5.2 Aspects of Language Incorporating EI

In communicating politics, speakers can choose to sound anyhow (positive or negative) through their choice of language resources such as words, phrases, and sentences. In the selected speeches, results show that the language used exhibited a considerable level of EI. As per Bar-on's observation (in Jorfi et al., 2014), an emotionally intelligent person exhibits abilities to understand and express oneself, relate with others, and cope with daily demands, challenges, and pressures. Linguistic expressions selected for discussion were used to reflect connection, emotional consideration, empathy, and knowledge of audience expectations. Selected speeches were delivered in various settings under varied pressure and demands, which required speakers to show their emotional flexibility and coping skills in speaking.

As of impact to the audience, speeches that incorporated EI resulted in particular reactions, feedback that implies the level to which a particular statement has touched the audience. In these speeches, those in attendance had positive reactions reflecting what Goleman (2002) associates with confirmation of alliances/friendliness and, mostly, shared sense of the World. These impacts, according to him, are presented by

reactions such as laughter, smiles, cheering immediately after a particular statement by the speaker. A detailed discussion of findings is done in the following subsections.

### 5.2.1 Establishing Connection and Relationship with Audience

Public speakers may ask themselves how connection and relationships with audiences are established; what would then be the best approach? This can be achieved through skills such as the use of group-specific greetings, inclusive expressions/pronouns such as 'we/us,' and maintaining respect even when addressing rivals. Study findings show that in the quest to establish connection and relationships, two speakers, Mr. Magufuli (addressing the public when unveiling the new road) and Mr. Musiba (speaking about the attacked MP, Mr. Lisu) in SP1, SP2, and SP10 respectively, out of the sampled ten, began their speeches with religious greetings which captured major religions and denominations in the country.

The two speakers used ***Asalaam Aleykum*** *{As-Salaam-Alaikum}/Peace be unto you* (Islam), ***Tumsifu Yesu Kristu****/Praise Jesus Christ* (Catholic), and ***Bwana Yesu Asifiwe****/Praise Lord Jesus* (Other Christian denominations). By so doing, it can be argued that they had a good start, bringing everybody on the same page before they even said anything. With the majority of the people feeling recognised through their religions, speakers captured the attention and relationships they wanted for the rest of their message.

Further beyond religion, politicians appeared to appeal to fraternity/brotherhood as they addressed their audience with close attachment. In SP1, Mr. Magufuli, in his speech, addresses his audience in Bagamoyo district as '**Ndugu zangu**' while in SP2, Mr. Musiba refers to his audience as '**ndugu watanzania wenzangu:**

| SP1: | **Ndugu** | | **zangu** | *"Brothers and Sisters."* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Brothers/sisters/comrades | | mine | |

| SP2: | **Ndugu** | **watanzania** | **wenzangu** | *"Fellow Tanzanians."* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Brothers/sisters/comrades | Tanzanians | fellows | |

The implication made in the expressions above (greetings and appeal to fraternity) signals that speakers were creating relationships, bridging the obvious gaps between them (leaders) and the people who are, in this case, their audience. By so doing, they were adhering to Bar-on's idea of relationship building with others (Jorfi et al., 2014) and adaptation skills put forth in the ESI model, which demands flexibility in interpersonal engagements. The feeling of the common people sharing fraternity with top leaders such as the President draws them to further listen and co-operate in the communication process since they start seeing themselves as equals with their leader(s).

Further speaker-audience relationships are signalled in SP5, in which Mr. Freeman Mbowe speaks about the attack on Hon. Tundu Lisu, emotionally associating the rest of the people with it and attracting attachment in the process.

**Shambulio lile halikuwa dhidi ya mheshimiwa Lisu, lilikuwa ni shambulio**
Attack      that was not against of   honourable Lisu,     it was (is/be)   attack

**la chama, lilikuwa shambulio la kauli    ya haki, lilikuwa ni   shambulio**
of party it was    attack     of statement of justice/rights it was is/be attack

**dhidi ya ubinadamu na ni   shambulio dhidi ya watanzania   kupitia**
against of humanity   and is/be attack     against of Tanzanians      through

**kwa   mwili  wa   mheshimiwa  Lisu.**
To/on body   of   honourable    Lisu.

> *"That attack was not against honourable Lisu, it was an attack on the Party, it was an attack on the statement of rights, it was an attack on humanity, and attack on Tanzanians through honourable Lisu's body."*

The statement captures emotions by just how the speaker manipulated language resources. Literary, the attack was on one person, but the fact that Mr. Mbowe wanted to attract his audience prompts him into making the rest of the people feel affected by declaring that they were also attacked in a way. It also shows that Mr. Mbowe knew his audience, knew their emotional state, understood himself and his position then used all these factors to establish connection and relationship for effective communication. He displayed the ability to read audience's innermost feelings, as Goleman (1995) puts it, and perfectly used them to connect with his audience by directly associating them with the attack, indirectly insisting that any attack on an innocent person is an attack on the general public. This choice of language puts the speaker and their audience on one level, a bond that simplifies the communication process.

Connections and relationships can also be established by speakers through various other ways, including the use of inclusive expressions such as the use of pronouns *'we/us'* and *'our.'* These kinds of expressions group the speaker together with the audience. In SP1, Mr. Magufuli appeared to side with his audience when addressing the move in which education was made free in Tanzania, saying:

**Watoto wetu, Watoto wa masikini walikuwa wanapata**
Children our children of poor(people) (they)were(be/past) (they)getting

**shida… tukasema lazima wasome bure.**
problems We said must (they)study free

> *"Our children, poor people's children were suffering…then we said they must get free education".*

In the above statement, the speaker (Mr. Magufuli) sought connection and bond with his audience, assuming their position economically. By addressing children of the poor Tanzanians as '**Watoto wetu/***our children***',** he declared himself part of the poor

population, thereby putting himself on the same level as the audience. He further uses the pronoun '**tu**/*we*' in '**tu**kasema/*we said*,**'** which signals collective effort in devising a free education plan for the poor population. This also brings the majority on the same side as their president, assuming decision-making roles in the government. By using such words and sentences, Mr. Magufuli made it easy for him to address his audience and indirectly solicited the reaction he wanted as a speaker and leader.

Findings show that for communication effectiveness, speakers appeal to the audience's support by bringing them closer through their use of language that bridges the speaker-audience gaps. Serrat (2009) regards this as an inevitable skill that successful people cannot do without in communication. By engaging the audience through connections and relationship building through sending emotional signals such as attachment and association (Mr. mbowe in SP5) and use of collective expressions such as 'we/*us*' (Mr. Magufuli in SP1), one has the advantage of what Goleman (1998) terms as "swaying an audience" and being a powerful communicator.

The discussion also reveals matching features between the skills exhibited by speakers and the expectancy theory. The theory asserts that speakers are expected to meet certain communicative standards set by their audience through profiles and cultural orientations. Speakers who manage to connect and bond with their people are likely to effectively communicate their message since they use appropriate strategies of persuasion, something Burgoon (1995) associates with competent communicators. The study findings on connection and relationships further expound on aspects of understanding and relating to others addressed in Bar-on's Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI) model. Audience expectations established in LET were also met through speakers' careful choice of words/expressions in their speeches, relating with the audience well through strategies such as religion-specific greetings, appeal to

fraternity, and use of inclusive pronouns, all of which are among the determinants of one's EI level and communication effectiveness.

## 5.2.2 Empathy and Consideration

Being empathetic and considerate may not be the easiest of skills in political speaking. However, given the political nature and atmosphere, speakers are more likely to be compelled to step into the minds and hearts of their audience by seeking to understand them, their attitudes, and feelings and trying as much to match their basic emotional expectations. Expressions of consideration and empathetic cues were identified in selected speeches as politicians used language to show that they cared for what their audience felt by carefully selecting appropriate linguistic resources. When unveiling the newly constructed road in Bagamoyo in 2017, in SP1, Mr. John Magufuli, President of the United Republic of Tanzania, said:

**"…kulikuwa na   kasoro   kasoro kidogo…lakini kwa  dhati  kabisa napenda**
There were    with  problems  problems  minor   but   with  honesty  truly   (I)like

**kuwapongeza          kwa kazi  nzuri"**
(to) (you) congratulate        for   job  good

> *There were minor problems/shortcomings…but honestly and truly, I*
> *like to congratulate you for a good job.*

In the statement above, Mr. Magufuli uses repetition of the word '**kasoro**' followed by '**kidogo**' to downplay the shortcomings of the project, which gives credit to the people involved in the project. This shows a sense of empathy and consideration since reading into the minds of those involved in the project, they would not want the emphasis to be attached to shortcomings.

After pointing to the shortcomings of the project (sparingly, though), he shifts attention using the transitional word '**lakini/but**' to point to the good work the contractors and supervisors did to the completion of the project. The shift of focus in

the word above is expected to have brought the audience back to positives than negatives. There is a slight connection to the word '**kidogo**/*minor*' as used above since they both want to show that there is more good than bad in the project, which is what the audience and the team behind the project should have wanted to hear or focus on.

In SP2 (a speech by Mr. Musiba on the attacked MP, Mr. Lisu, who appears to be his political rival), there also appeared to be a touch of empathy as the speaker spoke critically about his opponent. First of all, he started off his talk addressing his rival as *'Mheshimiwa/Honourable,'* which shows respect and a sense of consideration to the human side of the opponent irrespective of their political differences. This kind of consideration was also echoed by Mr. Mbowe in SP5, where he labelled his opponents and critics as:

| wenzetu | wa | upande | wa | pili | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| fellows(our) | of | side | of | second/other | |

*Our fellows on the other side*

Given the political differences between him and his foes, he could have sounded rude or inconsiderate. His decision to label them as '**wenzetu**/*fellows*' made it easy for his audience to follow what he wanted to say and further proved he had the ability to manage his emotions and navigate through tight political talk.

Further into his speech, Mr. Musiba accuses his opponent of staining the image of the country and the president, emotionally calling for respect and empathy for the President since he is also human. Part of the speech says:

| Rais | ni | binadamu | kama | binadamu | wengine. | Rais | ana | damu, |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| President | is | human | like | human(s) | others | president | (he)has | blood |

| Rais | ana | mke, | Rais | ana | mama, | Rais | ana | baba, | ana | kaka, |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| President | (he)has | wife | president | has | mother | president | has | father | has | brother |

| **ana** | **watoto,** | **ana** | **wajukuu,** | **lazima** | **aheshimiwe.** |
|---------|-------------|---------|--------------|------------|------------------|
| Has | children | has | grandchildren | must | (he) (be) respected |

> *"The President is human like other humans. The President has blood, The President has a wife, The President has a mother, The President has a father, has brother(s), has children, has grandchildren, he must be respected."*

The speaker makes an attempt to convince his audience to step into the president's position, feel with him and therefore respect him. By associating members of the President's family with the potential harm from verbal attacks, the speaker shows that he knows the president, assumes his position, and feels with him and his family in times of character assassination believed to be done to him. It is an expression of the speaker's ability to read into the president's feelings and the whole of his family and feel with them (empathy).

On a different occasion, Bashiru Ally, as seen in SP8, appeared to criticize his fellow Leader who they share party, but quickly shifted into positivity by commenting:

| **"…bado** | **ni** | **kijana** | **mzuri,** | **shupavu…"** | *He is still a good, tough guy* |
|-------------|--------|------------|------------|----------------|----------------------------------|
| Still | is | guy/young man | good | tough | |

This shift was necessary for the restoration of dignity. His use of the word "**bado**/*still*" reflects a shift in focus, showing that whatever he said before does not deny some qualities his target possesses. Mr. Bashiru appeared to have gained conscience in the process and decided to empathise with him and show a considerate heart, given they are both leaders. Since emotional intelligence is a skill that depends on personal and interpersonal awareness (Petrovic and Pobrescu, 2014), Mr. Bashiru displayed the skill of being aware of himself and the relationship he has with his fellow leader and the general audience, leading to his choice of diversion and application of alternative statement that cleared the hostile atmosphere.

A similar technique (as used by Mr. Bashiru) is also seen in SP7, where Mr. Zitto (MP) addresses legal mistakes made by the Attorney General in relation to cash crops tax regulations. He labels the Attorney general's submissions to the parliament as 'misleading' but quickly tries to establish empathic grounds, showing the kind of a person the Attorney General is and how such a mistake was never to be expected. He says:

**Mi   namuheshimu sana   nimesoma   naye   chuo kikuu, nilikuwa naye**
I(me) I-him-respect  very much I-studied  with-him  university   I-was    with him

**human resource session ya    Chuo kikuu, nimeshangaa   sana…**
human  resource  session  of     university   i-am-surprised   very

> *"I have deep respect for him, we went to the same university, we were together in the human resource session of the university, I'm surprised…"*

Having signalled the flaws of his counterpart (the Attorney General), the speaker finds his way around to establish connection and restore the dignity of the person he criticized. He decides to show how he respects him and how they share a long history to establish connection and protect his message (to avoid any negative reaction). The word "**nimeshangaa**/*I'm surprised*" after such a bonding explanation shows whatever the speaker accuses his counterpart of should not be related to his personality and character. It is not to be expected of him; he is better than that. Such a twist of language (establishing historical attachments and connection) signals Mr. Zitto's intention to maintain interpersonal relationship and keep the communication process smooth.

Evidence from the study shows that politicians were linguistically flexible when addressing topics that emotionally touched their audience. Mr. Magufuli's style of skillfully playing down problems that would potentially appear damaging and using transitional markers such as *'lakini/but'* to shift attention into positivity (speech on

deficiencies in the road project, SP1) highlights a sense of consideration to those involved.. The Similar shift into positivity as exhibited by Mr. Bashiru (in SP8, criticising his political ally) further emphasizes the importance some politicians attach to empathy and consideration in sensitive verbal engagements.

Being empathetic and considerate accounts for a big part of what EI entails. It covers Goleman's (1998) idea of 'reading other people's mind and feelings' and the careful discrimination of emotions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990) and taking proper actions. A combination of these skills, as reflected in some speakers above, contributes to communication effectiveness. Empathy is also identified by Bar-on (2006) in his ESI model as an important aspect of interpersonal skills, further adding 'ideas' among the things one is supposed to understand in others. The importance of empathy is emphasized as a necessary skill in communication through language choices made by some of the speakers in the selected speeches under discussion who appealed to skills such as demeaning of underperformances/problems, transitions from negative to positive comments, and social/family attachments.

### 5.2.3 Audience Expectations

Effective communication mostly stems from conformity to audience expectations or even exceeding them. The anticipation of what one's audience expects from a conversation adds to EI credentials, but how can one be able to note that the speaker has conformed to expectations? The results of this ability by the speaker are revealed through their choice of language in message packaging as put in the LET, which asserts that language patterns affect communication expectations. Burgoon (1993) points to aspects such as communicator (credibility, personality, appearance, social status, and gender), receiver-communicator relationship, and context as determinants of audience expectations in a communication context. A communication context that

adheres to expectation requirements is therefore likely to be effective. Meeting or even exceeding expectations (positively) depends on the speaker's ability to understand his/her audience and click into their thoughts and expectations, a skill that translates into EI, bringing up the brain-to-brain concept advocated by Sinha and Deepti (2006).

Findings show that on some occasions, politicians managed to exhibit considerable conformity to audience expectations by their use of certain linguistic resources. When speaking to the public in SP4, months after his election as President, Mr. Magufuli exhibited his desire to unite the people by collectively thanking them for voting for him. He said:

**"Wawe      wa CCM,   wawe       wa    CHADEMA,   wawe        wa  CUF,**
be it those    of ccm,    be it those   of    chadema       be it those      of   cuf

**wawe       wa ACT,    wawe      ambao    hawana       chama…nawashukuru"**
be it those   of  ACT    be it those   who     (they)do not have  party     (I)thank them

> *"Be it those from CCM, be it CHADEMA, be it CUF, be it ACT, be it those   without a party…I thank you."*

The Speaker's decision to name parties and even acknowledge those who do not belong to any party implied his call for unity in the country. Being a Leader and speaker's social status being one of the determinants of expectations, this kind of reaction was expected since the public expects him to bring people together as President. His language choice in the statement suggests he knew his audience and planned to meet their expectations. Words such as *'wawe/be it'* here imply that identity and affiliations do not matter to him; he is everyone's leader.

Further into his speech, he discussed a policy conflict and unexpectedly credited the opposition leader for coming up with a policy plan on education that the government

turned down. Interestingly he takes part of the responsibility for the government's failure to take the advice by saying:

**'hatukumsikiliza**     *We did not listen to him*
  not/we/him/listen

The use of pronoun **'tu/we'** reflects collective responsibility as the President joins those who ignored a policy change. Given the hostility that exists between political parties and the fact that he had just won the election, the acknowledgment to the opposition leader was not expected. This then brings up the idea of positive violation of expectancies or exceeding the set standards.

Mr. Mbowe, in SP5, displayed a high level of speaker audience relationship when addressing the public on the attack attempted on his fellow party leader. Given the nature of the event and the emotional concern among the audience, context suggested there was no room for inflammatory statements. He politely expressed his grudge on the media for reporting fake news on the attack and patient progress, branding the news *'maneno yenye ukakasi'* translated below:

**"Yamekuwepo          maneno yaku…      yenye     ukakasi     kidogo"**
There have be/been      words   of(nature)    with      sourness    a little

> *"There have been reports of…a little upsetting/ (unauthentic)."*

The use of words like '**ukakasi/**sourness**'** to mean 'unauthentic reports' and '**kidogo** /*a little'* to belittle whatever has been said shows context mastery and the appeal to politeness. Given the context, Mr. Mbowe was expected to calm his followers down and lower the temper; his choice of words/expressions helped him match the level expected of him as a Leader addressing people in a difficult emotional state.

From the statements above, it can be argued that meeting expectations or even surpassing them as asserted in the expectancy theory depends on the speaker's knowledge of the audience. In some contexts, speakers appeared to use euphemistic

expressions (like Mr. Mbowe in SP5 above) to tactically address touching issues. Attachment skills were also used, as reflected in Mr. Magufuli's use of the inclusive pronoun '**tu**' /*we*' in SP4 to imply he was part of the misinformed decisions made on certain policies. Both speakers appear to have read their audience's minds, a quality associated with EI and used the knowledge to act properly, meeting and/or exceeding expectations in the process.

Expressing knowledge of audience expectations in speeches requires the ability to twist linguistic resources at the speaker's disposal for effective communication. As revealed in study findings, speakers appeared to realise their positions and what is expected of them, which helped them coin proper statements for particular occasions. For example, in his plea for the media to end fake reports on the attacked MP, Mr. Mbowe's choice of phrases like *'ukakasi kidogo/little sourness'* in fake reports (in SP5) meant he avoided declaring media as totally flawed, making him look more of a considerate leader that understands the vital role the media plays in daily engagements in the country, which is what the audience might have been expecting from him.

 In his discussion of expectancies (in LET), Burgoon (1995) argues that positive conformity or disconformity to expectations of the audience leads to more positive outcomes in a communication context. What Mr. Magufuli does in SP4, acknowledging his opponent and blaming himself and his fellow party-led government publicly for not heeding the suggestions made by the opposition, surpasses the norm (political rivalry). According to the LET, such happenings are likely to lead to more positive outcomes than normal conformity (doing the expected).

### 5.2.4 Impact on the Audience

Judging from the reactions of the audience, findings reflect a positive impact on the audience. The incorporation of EI proved effective to politicians. They responded with paralanguage indicators which were interpreted as signalling alliances/bonds, connections, friendliness, and bringing people on the same page as the leader/speaker. On numerous occasions, the audience burst into laughter, clapping, and other forms of applause after statements that related and/or empathised with them. These paralinguistic features determine the impact of the speech by signalling aspects such as friendliness, connection, and a shared sense of the world (Goleman, 2002), all of which are signs of an EI-inspired engagement.

Mr. Magufuli in SP3 (addressing victims of the earthquake) receives *applause* in voice and *clapping* after expressing unity by stating that *'development knows no party'* in his quest to restore the damaged infrastructure. This signalled connection and met the expectations of the audience since, by status, the president was expected to serve all the people equally.

Laughter was another feature of the positive impact of speeches on the public. On various occasions, the audience burst into laughter after statements that positively touched them and signalled their connection with the speaker. In SP3, the speaker receives *laughter* accompanied by *hand claps* when he curiously questions how the money meant for earthquake victims was spent and ends up ordering auditors to look into the matter. By so doing, the speaker appears to have realised what his audience wanted to know. He basically matched expectations and sided with them in demanding justice, especially on how the resources meant to help them were managed.

Therefore, the findings suggest that a well-prepared speech with a proper representation of emotions and expectations can positively impact the audience. When the right message touches the appropriate target, it triggers a reaction which is what informs the speaker how the audience has been impacted. By knowing his audience's political feelings, Mr. Magufuli chooses to play down party differences, aiming to bring everyone on level terms when it comes to development plans (SP3, addressing the earthquake victims).

Bar-on (2006), in his ESI model, reflects on the importance of interpersonal relationships and taking one's general mood (which includes optimism and happiness) into consideration in successful human interactions. Having these two aspects in mind, a speaker, especially in political contexts, is expected to read into his/her audience (Goleman, 1998) and extract possible expectations depending on his/her status, the context, and contemporary relationships as stipulated in the LET. The combination of all these aspects in communication shapes the speech by dictating the choice of words, phrases, or sentences to be used and trigger positive impacts in the audience, who then exhibit them through their reactions.

## 5.3 Aspects of Language that do not Incorporate EI.

Since objective two of this study addressed the extent of EI incorporation in speeches, the analysis of data covered both cases where politicians put EI into consideration and occasions where they did not. Politicians at some point in their speeches exhibited a lack of EI in various ways by their choice of inappropriate language in particular settings. Some statements appeared not to carry EI as they used linguistic resources that ignore vital elements such as empathy/consideration, self-management, and relationship building/management. Given the contexts in which the selected speeches were delivered, speakers were under considerable pressure, which might have caused

them to react differently contrary to what was expected of them. The discussion below breaks down language aspects in question into specific indicators of EI that were overlooked in speeches.

## 5.3.1 Lack of Empathy and Consideration

Lacking empathy and consideration in communication can be realised through language choices speakers make. Various statements made by politicians appeared to lack empathetic connection and did not seem to be considerate in the way they were crafted. Speakers used words and sentences that appeared to forget the multi-layered nature of their audience and their supposedly varied emotional states. This affected the way their message was received and the interpretations thereafter given their statuses as leaders and representatives of the public. Being empathetic and considerate is vital in communication since it involves an emotional assessment of the audience. When the emotional assessment is ignored, Drigas and Papoutsi (2018) predict harmful consequences to both the speaker and audience, a bad sign to the effectiveness of the communication process.

In a statement made in SP1 by Mr. Magufuli, the president had a considerable touch of favouritism to the advantaged class. As he thanked the crowd for voting him in and voting for his party representatives, he concluded by adding that he decided to appoint another person from their community, wife to the former president, as a way to acknowledge the people's position in his party's politics. He said:

**"…na mimi nikaona kwa sababu ya upendo huo niwaongeze mkwe wenu"**
and me I-saw for reason of love that I-you-add in-law your

> *"...and I saw it fit that because of that love I add (appoint) your in-law."*

The statement may have been fine with the minority of the community around the home to the mentioned appointees. Still, it cannot be ignored that the president carries a nationwide image, and whatever he says can directly impact the wider society. Given his status (seen as one of the determinants of audience expectancies in the communication), he is prone to public multiple interpretations given the audience's preconceived image of him as president and what he is expected of, and in this case, nepotism could be one of the interpretations; a likely factor in derailing the communication focus.

Expectations of the disadvantaged people might have been negatively violated, leading to varied interpretations. Communities that do not have ruling dynasties might have felt isolated and underrepresented if at all it is the ruling families that win appointments in the government, from the President's own words. This, therefore, translates into the speaker's failure to consider and empathise with the common, disadvantaged people because the feeling of isolation they might have had from his statement was ignored through his language choice.

Speaking on early pregnancy to schoolgirls and the movement to help girls return to school after giving birth, Mr. Magufuli in SP1 branded the movement "**mzaha**/*joke*" which might have embarrassed the activists by making them look like jokers too. He even added a statement that further brought controversy, saying:

**"na    hao  wanaozungumza sijui wao  walipata mimba    wakiwa shuleni"**
 and   those   who-talk        not-i- know   they (they)get/past pregnancy while   at school

> *"...and those talking (advocating this), I don't know, did/they get pregnant at school."*

The statement exhibited a lack of empathy as it appears the speaker did not consider the feelings and personalities of the people in charge of the campaign to send teenage

mothers back to school. The respective parents and girls alike might have felt hard done by the statement given the age and the innocence and vulnerability their immaturity comes with. Given the benefits to both parents and the girls, the head of state could have stood his ground but with better words, given his position and the expectations and the hype around him. It can be argued that he did not read into the mind of his entire audience before making his criticism.

The same speaker, on a different occasion, in SP3, addressing the victims of the fatal earthquake, he talked about the notion that the government should build houses demolished by the disaster and rubbished it in an unpleasant way. He said:

**"…ikibomoka          nyumba lazima serikali      ijenge,      kwani**
It-when-demolished     house     must  government  it-build      since/like

**tetemeko lililetwa              na  serikali?      Nilipokuwa    nikiomba**
quake      it-brought(past)  by  government   I-when-was     i-was-request

 **kura   nilisema  nitaleta          tetemeko?"**
votes   i-said     i-will-bring     (earth)quake?

> *"...when the house is demolished, the government must build it, was the      earthquake brought by the government? When I was asking for votes, did I say I    will bring an earthquake?"*

Given the context, the speaker's position (head of state speaking to his people), and the audience's contemporary emotional state having come from a devastating earthquake, the statement above can be judged as inconsiderate and less empathetic. Had the speaker read his audience's mind and familiarized well with their emotional dispositions through thorough audience analysis, and kept that in mind, he could have said the same thing and kept his stance on building houses in a different way with appropriate expressions. Having been affected by the earthquake and the expectations that are vested on a head of state in such circumstances (as per LET's speaker status criterion for expectations), the victims must have been hard done by Mr. Magufuli's

statement that showed he did not think of them in the same regard they expected him to. This goes against the notion of emotional awareness in communication brought forth by Richards (2004), which according to him, leads to the "development of supportive and creative relationships" vital for productive communication in political contexts.

Speaking of the claims of ghost killings and disappearances in Tanzania, Mr. Musiba, a media mogul and opinion Leader, gave a pro-government statement that appears to have emotionally hurt the public and raised questions. His use of language implied that killings and disappearances are commonplace in the country and are not something that should be associated with the government at the helm. In his speech, he said:

**"Wakati wa Mwalimu Nyerere kuna watu walipotea,**
Time of teacher Nyerere there are people they-(past) disappear

**hata wakati wa Mwinyi kuna watu walipotea,**
even time of Mwinyi there are people they-(past) disappear

**hata wakati wa Mkapa kuna watu walipotea,**
even time of Mkapa there are people they-(past) disappear

**hata wakati wa Kikwete kuna watu walipotea na kuuawa,**
even time of Kikwete there are people they-(past) disappear and to-get killed

**siyo utawala wa Magufuli pekee."**
Not administration of Magufuli alone."

> *During Mwalimu Nyerere's time, there are people who disappeared, even in Mwinyi's time there are people who disappeared, even Mkapa's time, there are people who disappeared, even in Kikwete's time, there are people who disappeared and were murdered, it is not the Magufuli administration alone.*

The excerpt above provides features of language that signal insensitivity to the disadvantaged. He begins with listing regimes of former presidents and how there were killings and disappearances, concluding with the current regime with the use of

words **'siyo/*not*'** and **'pekee/alone'** to indicate normality in the happenings. Also, the use of a word **'hata/*even*'** repeatedly signals continuity in what he is addressing. These language patterns (**siyo/*not,* pekee/*alone*, hata/*even***) are used to make reference to former regimes and therefore indicating that there should not be questions on the current one. Repeated use of the affirmative structure **'kuna** watu/*there are people*' makes the problem a certainty than probability, unlike saying 'there might have been' to show some percentages of being otherwise.

Such a statement has features that bring out a sense of insensitivity and inconsideration. Bar-on (2006), in his ESIs model, ponders on issues of understanding the self, understanding others, and effectively expressing oneself. In the speaker's use of language, he appears to have ignored both his audience's emotions and expectations. Those at the receiving end of killings and disappearances might have felt ignored by showing that what was happening to them is historically backed and should not bother people. Had the speaker adhered to Bar-on's observation of understanding the self and others and effectively expressing oneself, he would have most likely come up with a different way of saying things.

The same speaker in SP10, addressing the attack of an opposition leader, referred to the attack as **"mchezo/*game*"** repeatedly as he posed his accusations on the leaders in the opposition cycle, as cited from one of the statements:

**"mchezo huu umetengenezwa na Mbowe, John Mrema…"**
 Game    this   it-pres.participle-made    by   mbowe, John Mrema

     *"…This game was devised by Mbowe, John Mrema."*

Branding a life-threatening attack as a 'game' indicates a lack of empathy. Provisions in the expectancy theory (LET) assume that word choices are key in affecting audience expectations. In the same line, the victim of the aforementioned attack and

his close people might have felt disrespected and ignored by the way Mr. Musiba addressed their tragedy. Such feelings in the audience might extend to followers and eventually lead to communication breakdown.

Therefore as evidenced in the findings, politicians sounded inconsiderate and less empathetic where they were expected to feel with their audience. Their choice of terms to refer to particular situations, for instance, reflected a distance, an emotional distance they created between them and their audience. What Mr. Musiba does in SP10 by branding a life-threatening attack as "mchezo/*game*" most likely put off those who had a human face on the victim irrespective of affiliations.

In the LET expectation violations (Burgoon, 1995), negative violation of expectations (performing way below standards socially set for a particular person) leads to more negative outcomes. The speakers discussed in this subsection appear to have negatively violated the expectations of their audience by giving inconsiderate statements to the public. Among other important aspects, the status of the communicator is paramount and determines part of expectations. In connection to empathy, the violations above can directly be related to the failure to understand and feel with others in the communication process. In the emotional-social competence model, Ba-on brings out the intra-personal skill (understanding the self) before the interpersonal one (understanding others) (Bar-on, 2006) to mean EI begins with the 'self' and extends to the 'other.' Failure to adapt to other peoples' emotional dispositions (as seen through the discussed cases) threatens the effectiveness of the communication process.

### 5.3.2 Mismanagement of Relationships and Poor Self-Control.

Drigas and Papoutsi. (2018:3) quote Aristotle as saying,

> "Anyone can become angry - that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way-this is not easy*".*

This proves that for one to manage their own emotions, there is a lot that needs to be carefully monitored within the self. Self-management allows the ability to control one's reactions so that they are not driven by impulsive behaviours and feelings. Self-control is an important skill for individuals to maintain interpersonal relationships and navigate through communication engagements smoothly.

In the selected speeches, there were more evidence of poor self-control than other aspects of EI. Speakers appeared to struggle to manage their emotions or 'rein in emotional impulses,' as Goleman (1995) puts it. They ended up making contradictory claims, and at times insulting their targets in various public spaces.

Addressing the issue of the opposition leader travelling across Europe and America, delivering his political message, Mr. Musiba in SP2, expresses his disgust by saying:

**"Tundu Lisu   ni   kichaa,   hana        akili"**   *Tundu Lisu is insane, has no brains*
 Tundu Lisu    is    insane,   (he)has no   brains

The speaker appears to have lost his self-control in the speech as a result of emotional pressure resulting from differences in political stance with his counterpart. Salovey and Mayer (1990) argue that the "ability to differentiate between positive and negative effects of emotions and to use emotional information to guide one's thinking and actions" is a component of EI. However, the ability depends on the speaker's knowledge of his/her audience, which informs the emotional positioning amongst them. Mr. Musiba, in this regard, appeared to lose it as he went all out on his rival. Declaring him as '**kichaa**/*insane'* complemented by '**hana akili**/ *(he) has no brains'*

shows he was out of his control and could not use his audience's information to take proper actions. The speaker uses the two expressions repeatedly in his speech to further emphasize his anger.

Similar expressions continue to flow throughout the speech, calling his opponent names and making offensive statements about him. In other contexts, in the same speech, he makes claims such as:

**Tundu Lisu   ana      laana**
Tundu  Lisu  (he)has   curse      — *Tundu Lisu is cursed*

**Tundu Lisu   ni  Shetani**
Tundu  Lisu    is    devil        — *Tundu Lisu is a devil*

In a speech where one needs to control the audience, get on well with them and pass the message accurately, there is a need for a composed approach to problems, challenges, and other emotionally pressing contextual aspects. A statement can affect the emotional effects afterward, which is why distinguishing the effects matters the most in speaking contexts.

In SP4, the speaker (Mr. Magufuli) showed signs of losing his self-control when addressing the public on the education policy that had allowed low performers to join Universities. He first and foremost branded the students **"vilaza"** which translates into *"dumb/useless people"* and went on to verbally attack politicians responsible for the misguided policy decision, saying:

**"…wanasiasa   wana    maneno,   wanataka    tuchukue    mafailure…,**
  Politicians   have    words    (them)want  (us) to-take   failures

**sijui         ni    kwa    sababu   wanasiasa   hawa   ni        mafailure?"**
(I)don't know  is    for    reason   politicians  these  is/are(be)   failures

> *"Politicians talk too much, they want us to take failures…is it maybe because these politicians are also failures?"*

By rhetorically questioning whether the politicians behind the unwanted policy were also failures, the speaker appears to have lost his emotional control. Given his political status (head of state), in relation to the audience he was addressing, his words were going to be taken seriously. This is because audience expectations depend on the speaker's status and speaker-listener relationship as proposed by LET. The statement above could have turned him against the public, especially those touched by the policy and the ruling class who took part in decision-making.

In the same speech, (SP4) Mr. Magufuli loses control when addressing the behaviour of some drivers using restricted lanes in the new bus rapid transit lanes in Dar Es Salaam. He goes on to express his disgust by appearing to allow Police officers to make money out of people's vehicles (the ones that go against set regulations). Part of his statement says:

**"…hii ni barabara kwa ajili ya magari yaendayo kasi. Mtu anapeleka**
…this is road for purpose of vehicles that/move rapid someone he/she takes

**gari lake humo, anatoka kule anampita trafiki**
vehicle his/her there(inside) He/she comes(from) there he/she passes by traffic police

**wala hamshiki na kwenda kulizuia**
not He/she doesn't arrest (him/she) and (to)go (put on) hold

**gari lake likakae**
vehicle his/her (it) remain

**polisi halafu siku akija kulichukua liwe na matairi hamna,**
police then day (he/she)come (to)take it (it)be with tyres no

**na wewe si utakuwa ushapata biashara kidogo…"**
and you (you)will (be) (you/already)get business little

> *"this road is for bus rapid transit. Someone takes his/her car in that road/lane, comes, passes traffic police, and they don't arrest them and keep the vehicle at the police station so that when they come for their car they find they no longer have tires, and you (police) make some money…"*

The statement appears to blame traffic police officers for letting people drive through the restricted lanes without consequences. With the good intention of the President, he misses part of his emotions to the matter, implying that police officers should take tires of the vehicles that break the lane regulation. Such a statement triggers a corrupt action, something that cannot be expected of a top government leader. With the communication missing out on audience expectations as established in the LET, its effectiveness is risked.

Another speaker, Mr. Makonda in SP6, appeared to lose control of his emotions and made a statement that attacked a certain group of his audience. Addressing people at the funeral of a public figure, he implied that the deceased was the only 'good' man in his entire ethnic group. He said:

**Sikuwahi      kutegemea      hata  siku  moja  kumuona  mchaga**
(I)have never  hope/expect      even  day   one   (to) see    (chaga) of this ethnic group

**anampa      pesa    mlemavu,  mchaga  anatoa      pesa    kwa    mlemavu,**
give(ing)   money   disabled   Chaga   give(ing)    money   to     disabled

**ni  jambo    gumu      sana,  mchaga  anampa       yatima  pesa,**
is  issue    difficult   very   Chaga   give(ing)    orphan(s)  money

**ni  jambo  haliwezi    kuelezeka.**
is  issue    cannot     (to) (be) explicable

> *"I never expected, even for one day to see a chaga offering money to the disabled person, Chaga offering money to the disabled, it's difficult, Chaga offering money to orphan(s), it's inexplicable."*

By addressing common assumptions about a particular ethnic group, openly implying that they rarely help people, he was risking his relationship with the audience, the majority of which were the Chaga. The repetition of the idea *'...Chaga offering money'* to various disadvantaged people, Mr. Makonda implies that it is never possible for these people to help and that their deceased fellow was the only exception. As a Leader, he had the role to mend any damaged relationships amongst

audiences, rather than divide them further in such a difficult moment. This could have matched with what those in attendance might have been expecting, as par the expectancy theory.

More about empathy can also be said in regard with the above statement, since the speaker appeared less concerned about the occasional emotional status of the audience, given it was a funeral of their own and national important figure. By failing to read their minds, Mr. Makonda might have lost a large section of the audience, hence hurting the entire communication process. Sinha and Deepti (2006) assert that EI and communication are intertwined, meaning that a speaker needs both for effective communication. This implies that the speaker above in SP6 should have interrogated his emotions, those of his audience, and the context as stipulated in LET to come up with a clear and productive link with his audience for better communicative outcomes.

Mr. Mbowe, in SP5, while addressing the press on the attacked member of his party, he took a swipe at his critics who had claimed his party was misusing the money collected to help the attacked member of parliament. He replied in a way that reflected he was losing his emotional control, accusing them of stealing the contributions meant to help victims of the Kagera earthquake; he said:

**Kama wao        wamezoea            kutapeli na  kula    fedha  za  michango**
if  them/they (they)(pres.tense) used (to) rob  and  (to)eat   money  of  contributions

**ya  wahanga  wa  Kagera,  sisi    CHADEMA  hatuna         utamaduni  huo**
of  victims    of  Kagera,  we/us  CHADEMA  no(we)have         culture       that

> *If they are used to robbing and consuming money contributed for*
> *Kagera victims, we in CHADEMA have no such culture.*

The speaker uses words like '**wamezoea**/*they are used to*' and '**utamaduni**/*culture*' to imply that those on his opposing side are known for feeding on other people's

misery. This statement further mentions specific victims (Kagera earthquake victims), which might further trigger more questions to authorities by bringing to light allegations on the matter completely different from the one at hand. Having been criticized on how he handled his own case, Mr. Mbowe appears to overreact and risk more problems and turn others against the public. A better way could have been used to reply to criticisms and address the matter at hand than going into other attacks. Misuse of funds may still not mean 'robbing' as the speaker addresses his concern on the Kagera issue; proper word choices help control emotional impulses and end up handling and maintaining relationships properly, both of which are key EI skills stipulated in the ESI model.

Another realization of EI deficiency appears in SP10, as the speaker, Mr. Tundu Lisu (MP), appears to be taken by his emotional impulses aboard when criticizing the President. He uses confirmatory structures to accuse, which kind of confirms to the public that what he says is authentic. In one of his statements, he accused the president of nepotism, saying:

**"Nani anayeweza kubisha kwamba Rais Magufuli anaendesha nchi kwa**
Who (he/she) can disagree that President Magufuli (he)runs country for/by

**misingi ya upendeleo wa kifamilia, kikabila, na kikanda…"**
basis of preference of (of)family (of)tribe and (of)region/zone

> *"Who can disagree with the fact that President Magufuli runs the*
> *country on the basis of family, tribal and regional preference"*

The speaker's style directly attacks than signalling that whatever is said has reservations about its authenticity. By affirmingly accusing the president of nepotism, the speaker risks his counterpart's reputation, risks his own relationship with the public since not everyone must buy into his submission on the spot. Use of a structure like '**nani anaweza kubisha**/*who can disagree'* gives the statement power to

conclude that it is true regardless of other factors. To maintain unity among both their followers, Mr. Lisu could have been more composed and avoid direct accusations in making his point.

Further into his speech, Mr. Lisu gives more statements which are more of personal attacks to his political foe, saying:

**"Kwa  sababu  Magufuli  anafikiria     kwamba   yeye     ndiye  sheria…"**
 For    reason   Magufuli  (he) think(s)    that      him      is       law

> *"Because president Magufuli thinks that he is the law."*

**"Magufuli    anafikiria      yeye   ndiye    dola"**
 Magufuli    (he) think(s)    him    is        state

> *Magufuli thinks he is the state*

The use of a word '**Anafikiria**/*he thinks*' on both statements is direct and shows that it is exactly how the president thinks, which might bring out misconceptions and subsequent loss of public connection. In the second statement, the speaker drops the word **'Rais/president'** and just addresses his target by name. This shift can be interpreted as taking the target person out of their cover into a 'personal attack.' Mr. Lisu appeared to shift more into less controlled statements and more personalized expressions than position-based ones, as shown in statement one. Given his position (opposition Leader), he is expected to criticise whatever 'offices' do the wrong way but not personalities.

Mr. Lisu continues to lose himself in his speech as he inflicts emotional pain to rulers and their followers by issuing a call to his followers and the general public, saying:

**"Tuwambie          hao    wanaoleta  ujinga       huu,**
(we/us)(them)tell    those  (who)bring  ignorance    this

**tuwambie          kaeni     na       huo  huo  ujinga…"**
(we/us)(them)tell    stay      and/with   that that  ignorance

> *"Let us tell those who bring this ignorance, let us tell them stay with that ignorance."*

Mr. Lisu's repeated use of the word **'ujinga**/*ignorance* in addressing conflicting opinions from his opposite side of politics signals a deficit in emotional control. He could have better explained his thoughts against which his opponents operate and end up maintaining relationships with his varied demographics in his audience. His reaction towards political disagreements with others may mean he did not thoroughly investigate his emotional status and that of his audience or recipients of his message before speaking. Salovey and Mayer's idea of understanding emotional information and using that in managing emotions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990) counts for Mr. Lisu's communicative deficiency in the above extract.

Deficiency in self-management can be disruptive in political communication contexts. It should be noted that among the audience, it is not easy to identify individual positions on the topic or person discussed, even among Leader's own followers. Failure to control one's temper risks losing the audience, which is simply a communication breakdown. In such a scenario, it is difficult to bring the audience back on board in the same speech context, given the mixed identities and interests at play.

Therefore it is important to note that, for politicians to have full control of their audience in various speech contexts, they ought to deal with their own emotional control. A composed speaker is likely to have a better time speaking to his/her target people than the other way round. Findings on poor self-control and mismanagement of relationships reveal how language decisions made by speakers can communicate negativity than positivity. To manage relationships and to control oneself signals

success in managing interpersonal relationships emphasized in the ESI model and the eventual process involved, in this case, the communication process.

### 5.3.3 Impact on the Audience

Political speeches can negatively affect the target audience when the language chosen ignores necessary emotional considerations. According to Goleman (2002), Leaders' emotions affect the general public. Drigas and Papoutsi (2018) support the claim by insisting on emotional assessment prior to any communication context. They assert that failure to assess emotions can lead to harmful consequences which befall both the speaker and audience. This is proof that whenever political leaders are engaged in public speaking, addressing various issues, some complicated, they must consider their audience before they make emotionally uncontrolled statements.

Certain expressions in speech contexts can trigger negative reactions affecting both the speaker (in the sense that they lose their audience and the communication purpose) and the audience. In the same breath, Averbeck (2010) argues that being unnecessarily aggressive results in a negative appraisal of both the message and the source/sender/speaker. This notion was largely proven in the selected speeches where some politicians made statements that triggered reactions which implied there were negative impacts to the public. Some reactions were paralinguistic, while others were statements responding to the earlier ones.

Paralinguistic reactions signalling a negative impact in the audience included *murmurs* and *grunts* after certain statements. In a scenario discussed in SP4, after making a statement that gave power to Police officers to destroy and make money out of vehicles that illegally use the Bus Rapid Transit lanes in highways, Mr. Magufuli receives an unlikely reaction from his audience. The statement partly reads:

**"…hii ni barabara kwa ajili ya magari yaendayo kasi. Mtu anapeleka**
…this is road for purpose of vehicles that/move rapid someone he/she takes

**gari lake humo, anatoka kule anampita trafiki**
vehicle his/her there(inside) He/she comes(from) there he/she passes by traffic police

**wala hamshiki na kwenda kulizuia**
not He/she doesn't arrest (him/she) and (to)go (put on) hold

**gari lake likakae**
vehicle his/her (it) remain

**polisi halafu siku akija kulichukua liwe na matairi hamna,**
police then day (he/she)come (to)take it (it)be with tyres no

**na wewe si utakuwa ushapata biashara kidogo…"**
and you (you)will (be) (you/already)get business little

> *"this road is for bus rapid transit. Someone takes his/her car in that road/lane, comes, passes traffic police, and they don't arrest them and keep the car at the police station so that when they come for their car they find they no longer have tires, and you (police) make some money…"*

Immediately after the statement, response from the audience was only ***grunts*** of disapproval. Such a reaction reflects disconnection with the audience having said something that they did not expect from the speaker given his status as President who is under the rule of law.

There were similar feature(s) in SP6, as Mr. Makonda, who had just given a statement viewed as tribal (and therefore inconsiderate to the attacked tribe), by many of his audience, was recalled to the stage to apologise. His initial statement reads:

**Sikuwahi kutegemea hata siku moja kumuona mchaga**
(I)have never hope/expect even day one (to) see (chaga)of this ethnic group

**anampa pesa mlemavu, mchaga anatoa pesa kwa mlemavu,**
give(ing) money disabled Chaga give(ing) money to disabled

**ni jambo gumu sana, mchaga anampa yatima pesa,**
is issue difficult very chaga give(ing) orphan(s) money

**ni jambo haliwezi kuelezeka.**
is issue cannot (to) (be) explicable

> *"I never expected, even for one day to see a chaga offering money to the disabled person, Chaga offering money to the disabled, it's difficult, Chaga offering money to orphan(s), it's inexplicable."*

Upon arrival to the stage, his greetings and initial engagements were met with ***murmurs*** from the audience. It can be argued that his statement had derailed the rapport that could have helped cater for the effectiveness of the communication process, allowing negative reaction from the crowd he was supposed to address for the second time. The interaction goes:

***Makonda:*** Muheshimiwa   Mbowe  ebu njoo bwana (*Honourable Mbowe please come)*
Hadhira (wimbo na minong'ono)    (*Audience: Song and Murmurs)*

***Makonda:*** Tumsifu Yesu Kristo    *(praise Jesus Christ)*
Hadhira: Minong'ono       (*Audience: Murmurs)*

***Makonda:*** Mwanakondoo  (*The Lamb…..)*
Hadhira: minong'ono      (*Audience: Murmurs)*

Such reactions meant that the audience might have not been in the mood to listen to him, which means the bond between the two sides was gone, and Mr. Makonda did not have a 'shared sense of the World' with his audience, a notion put forth by Goleman (2002) in his interpretation of the connection required for effective communication. This negativity between the audience and the speaker cannot bring about a healthy communication, a reminder that emotional self-control is crucial in effective communication in the political world.

In other cases, negative impacts of speeches lacking in EI were signalled verbally as various people responded to the seemingly inappropriate statements made by other leaders. On the same statement by Mr. Makonda assumed to be tribal, his party leader, Mr. Bashiru Ally, made a public apology and openly blamed his junior, as seen in SP8:

**"…tunaanza kuvuna matunda ya kutowaandaa vijana wetu"**
(we)start (to)reap fruits of to-not-them-prepare youth our

**"Naomba nitumie fursa hii kumuombea msamaha**
I-(pres.tense) request I-use opportunity this (to)ask(for him) forgiveness

**kijana wangu Makonda (makofi), mimi namfahamu**
young man my Makonda (clapping) I/me I- him-know

**na hii ni mara yangu ya pili nimemsema hadharani"**
and this is time my of second I-pres.partic.-speak(about)him publicly

> *"We are beginning to reap the fruits of failing to prepare our youth…"*
> *"…May I use this opportunity to apologize for my boy Makonda (applause) I know him, and this is the second time I speak of him publicly".*

A statement such as the one by Mr. Bashiru shows disapproval of whatever the other person (Mr. Makonda) said. Makonda's statement looks like it damaged the relationship between him and the public, but more so, between the party he belongs to and the general public, prompting the Secretary General, Mr. Bashiru, to condemn and make a public apology on his behalf. Bashiru might have anticipated public fallout following the inconsiderate statement and decided it was right to empathise with the public and apologise to restore the faith and bond parties should have with their people.

Based on study findings, it can be argued that the audience's verbal and paralinguistic reactions to inconsiderate statements reflected a negative impact. The implication made out of audience reaction or feedback, both in words (such as Mr. Bashiru's complaints in SP8, on Mr. Makonda's arguably tribal statement) and paralinguistic aspects (such as murmurs seen in SP8) show a considerable level of the impact which can be viewed as negative. In line with these findings, the communication expectancies stipulated in the Language Expectancy Theory adopted for this study further support this line of thinking, since a reaction such as *murmurs* where the speaker expects a verbal response implies the mismatch between what the audience

hoped for and what the speaker produced. This mismatch touches on the lack of empathy (for the speaker) which is failure to understand the inner circle of the audience.

## 5.4 Conclusion

Political messages can be prone to misinterpretation if they do not go through the right communicative conventions. They require a careful selection of linguistic resources such as words, phrases, and sentences that match the occasion and the target audience. Both the speaker and audience depend on each other for effective communication, and any attempt for the speaker to disregard aspects such as audience emotions and expectations may lead to a negative impact or a total communication breakdown.

Findings from the study show occasions where politicians managed well their audience by selecting language and styles that empathised with the audience, considerately addressed their concerns, established connection/bond, and signalled a match between what they expected of the speakers in the first place and what was delivered. Speakers used language to match EI elements such as connection/maintaining relationships, empathy, and consideration to deliver their intended messages effectively. They also used linguistic skills such as transitions to shift the attention from statements that risked relationships between them and their audience. On occasions where speakers ignored EI in some statements, it was in their use of language, most notably choice of words, that was problematic. Non incorporation of EI aspects such as empathy and self-control was evident in some speeches, a reflection of some people's failure to reign in challenging verbal political engagements.

From the discussion of findings as presented, it can be argued that the selected political speeches had less EI incorporation. There were more occasions where speakers sounded less empathic, inconsiderate, lost control of their emotions, and acted completely out of expectations than occasions of relationship management, establishment of connections, and balance between expectations and output in speaking.

On the impact of EI incorporation in speeches, it can be argued that addressing them on the audience by gauging their reaction or feedback is difficult since reactions can be a subject of multiple interpretations. However, it is not totally impossible to extract reflections of positivity or negativity in audience reactions in a speech context. Findings show that particular statements are directly related to the reaction that comes after, which helps interpret the possible impact. Statements that ignored EI, for instance, were met with features such as murmurs which can be interpreted as disapproval to what was said. The opposite (positive impact) is also implied in considerate and empathic speeches, for instance, that triggered positive reaction. With paralinguistic features, it is safe to argue the Goleman way that they reflect connection or disconnection in communication engagements (Goleman, 2002). This, however, leaves more room for other interpretations, such as sarcasm, which are contextual and subject to interpretation.

Bar-on's model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI) introduces the idea of "coping with daily demands" as an EI aspect, where 'demands' link up well with 'expectations' addressed in the expectancy theory (LET) where communicators are expected to meet or positively exceed some standards set by the audience or their interlocutors. In the first part of this chapter, speakers whose expressions reflected EI incorporation were discussed, evidence that they paid attention to their emotions and

blended well with their audience's emotions. Moreover, they exhibited empathy by appearing to have read their audience's emotions, as emphasised by Goleman (1998), through which relationships can be managed, hence delivering well in their communicative encounters.

On the other hand, there were signs of failure to adhere to EI demands in some speeches. Various speakers delivering their speeches in emotionally demanding contexts appeared to get carried away by their emotions and ended up making statements that might have affected their speeches. Some even insulted their targets, which shows a failure to manage their own emotions, a feature that disqualifies their EI credentials.

# CHAPTER SIX

# SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

## 6.1 Introduction

This study examined emotional intelligence (EI) in relation to political communication in Tanzania. The investigation aimed at finding out how EI is understood among politicians, the extent of its incorporation, and the impact likely to be felt in the public who are the recipients/audience of political messages. Here, a summary of findings as per study objectives is done, with major conclusions of the study given. Finally, recommendations are made in line with what was discussed in the study.

## 6.2 Summary of Findings

The study achieved all the set objectives, with various findings objectively analysed in each of chapters four and five. It was found out that Tanzanian politicians have a substantial level of EI awareness. All of the ten politicians who formed the sample of this study for objective one showed a good understanding of E.I, expressing the need for knowing the *'self'* and the *'other'* and the accommodation of the two in communicative contexts. There was a unanimous agreement that it is important to know the audience better before engaging them, where factors resulting in aspects such as connection, relationships, and persuasion were cited. It was also revealed that a familiar audience is easier to engage in communication, unlike the unfamiliar one, since connections and relationships are more possible with the former than the latter. Further, into audience knowledge, politicians exhibited the importance of aspects such as history, cultural norms, likes and dislikes, contemporary emotional state, relationships, and expectations in communication effectiveness, with very few exceptions, as seen in Table 2(pg. 40) and the discussion that follows.

Findings also show that politicians understood the importance of knowing and understanding oneself, unanimously showing their acceptance of how important skills such as self-awareness, self-management, empathy, and relationship management are in public speaking.

The study also analysed selected speeches, examining the extent to which EI was incorporated in political speeches. Findings show that politicians, on some occasions, ignored EI in speaking, allowing themselves to be consumed by anger, and sometimes, pain of criticism. Lack of self-control/management and empathy were majorly identified in some politicians' statements, where provocative statements were made. At some points, inappropriate words were used to counter political perspectives, accusations, and show of differences.

There were occasions where politicians expressed a considerable level of EI in speeches, navigating through difficult contexts, and using language to show empathy, self-control, self-awareness, relationship building, and management. In addition, on certain occasions, some political leaders expressed courtesy in addressing the faults of others, showing the need to maintain existing relationships for communication effectiveness. This shows that, as evidenced in the study, politicians have the necessary skills to craft their speeches into what the audience expects of them, a quality considered vital in human communication.

On the impact of EI incorporation in speeches, it was found out that in any circumstance, speeches have implications to the public. Findings show that speeches with EI triggered a positive reaction among the audience, which was translated into bonding and relationship strengthening between politicians and their audience. This interpretation was mainly grounded on the audience reaction as a signal of the

possible impact of EI incorporation in speaking, a thought propounded by Goleman (2002). It was also seen that some politicians triggered negative reactions through their statements whose implicature was disconnection, poor relationships, and reading from different pages as their audience, features that determine speaker-audience proximity and understanding, all of which define EI in communication contexts.

## 6.3 Study Conclusions

With the available evidence, conclusions were made based on different levels of the study. The final conclusions were made in line with the discussion that was done basing on what was in the data collected, theoretical provisions, and various findings and stances made in the reviewed literature.

The General conclusion from the study was that EI is an essential aspect of political speeches. Judging from the response from politicians that took part in a questionnaire and discussions from speeches, EI plays a vital role in effective communication in political speech contexts.

On the EI awareness levels among politicians under study objective one, the study concluded that Tanzanian politicians have a sizable level of EI awareness. Through their response to questions aimed at understanding how well their EI knowledge was, it was clearly demonstrated that they have knowledge of EI, and they acknowledge its usefulness in political communication.

On the aspects of language that reflects the extent to which EI is incorporated in political speeches in Tanzania, the study concluded that politicians in Tanzania use various linguistic resources such as words, phrases, and sentences to incorporate EI at a relatively lower rate as when they do not. At times, as expounded in the data, the same person could show high EI credentials at one point and then use

words/expressions that trigger a meltdown in their speech at another. This trend, however, was inconsistent and less balanced in more sensitive topics where speakers, for instance, appeared to lose it more than on occasions where they kept their cool. Some had these variations in different speech occasions, which again adds doubt to the stability of their emotional knowledge and consistency in word choices in all circumstances. Therefore, language can be used to either establish and maintain relationships and empathise or break bonds and express inconsideration to audiences. However, it is important to conclude and emphasize that incorporation of EI in speeches is the most important aspect for effective communication and persuasion purposes, and language use determines the success of communication interactions in politics.

On how political speeches with and without EI impact the public, the study concludes that speeches that incorporate EI lead to bonding, connections, and relationship building between politicians and their audience, while those that ignore EI lead to damages such as poor relationships, which affect the communication process. EI empowered speeches, on the other hand, smoothen communication, bringing people closer to the speaker, establishing a sense of connection.

Emotional Intelligence remains one of the most sought-after skills in the contemporary World, the new kind of intelligence that looks to complement Intelligence Quotient (I.Q). Various studies in psychology and management show that EI accounts for more human connections and success, which is a plus factor in the ever-competitive atmosphere of the world. However, it should be noted that a good chunk of emotional reactions in human beings is realised through verbal communication, which is why an EI-Communication research is and remains important.

Adding the EI aspect in political communication research was a commendable attempt to address the need to give life to speeches for productive communications. This study has contributed a significant knowledge to the political class in Tanzania as well as the general public. From the discussions and conclusions reached, politicians can learn how to plan speeches with emotional factors in mind, especially analysing relationships, bearing in mind their statuses as leaders and thorough context analysis for better outcomes. A clear understanding of the audience and possible expectations from both speeches and speakers can bring about the best out of potentially difficult political occasions.

Researchers in EI can also benefit from this study. Having seen many scientific studies on EI focus on areas such as psychology and management, this study presents a different approach to the EI, giving it relevance in political communication. By addressing aspects of human relationships and skills in political speeches and showing the effectiveness of an EI-inspired speech occasion, this study introduces a new way of solving political problems through speeches. If politicians consider EI as a key factor in their speeches, they will achieve better relationships and become even better communicators. This opens room for further research, increasing the interdisciplinary potential of research in EI.

## 6.4 Recommendations

In line with the findings of this study, some recommendations were made addressing the Tanzanian and global political class, experts in speech writing, and human communication. Recommendations for further research were also made for the future of the political communication discipline.

### 6.4.1 Recommendations for Politicians

The study recommended EI awareness initiatives that would help politicians master EI skills and be able to apply them in all speech contexts. Although they appeared to be aware of EI, the application exhibited in speeches shows major inconsistencies.

As evidenced from the findings of the study, politicians also need specific training on emotional intelligence (EI) and how it can be integrated into their speeches whenever they are engaged. Trainings could go hand in hand with development of manuals on EI and its incorporation in political communication.

However, Trainings and hand-outs alone may never solve the problem. Politicians, therefore, on their own should consider making it a habit to think about the power they have, how it influences and determines the quality of their speeches, and balance that in their choice of words and other linguistic resources. They should balance that power with contextual and emotional knowledge of the speech occasion on a consistent basis for better outcomes. By so doing, political communication can experience an upturn in speeches that build more relationships than divisions among the demographically diverse public. This will develop more connections and followership, which is what should be sought after in the political world.

### 6.4.2 Recommendations for Future Research

This study was restricted mainly to senders (speakers) of political messages in Tanzania; it is recommended that more studies be carried out on the same in different regions to find out how Tanzanian politicians compare with the rest of the world in this regard. Studies on EI in different communicative contexts, outside politics, such as intra organizational communication and interpersonal communication both in and out of Tanzania, are recommended. Studies on EI basing on audience/message

receivers are also recommended to help expound more on this other side of the communication transaction, which determines the effectiveness of the communication process. The study also recommended research that would establish a connection between the speakers and their EI application in speech contexts. Given the fact that this study administered questionnaire to politicians whose speeches were not analysed, a comprehensive study would establish the much-needed link for more relevance.

## 6.5 Conclusion

The findings discussed and conclusions made in this chapter were based on the data collected specifically for this study. They drew a line that is only relevant to the study as per set objectives. They can be expounded for more academic validity given the wide nature of political communication as an interdisciplinary area of study.

Recommendations made give light to practitioners in the fields of politics and communication by introducing the relevance of EI and more attention to the audience in speech designs. Furthermore, researchers are called up on to expound more on this area and give it more room for discussion in terms of study areas and dimensions alike.

# REFERENCES

Averbeck, J. (2010). Irony and Language Expectancy Theory: Evaluations of Expectancy Violation Outcomes. *Communication Studies* (Vol. 61, No. 3), pp. 356–372: Routledge.

Ayiro, L.P. (2014). Transformational Leadership and School Outcomes in Kenya: Does Emotional Intelligence Matter? *FIRE: Forum for International Research in Education*. Vol.1, Iss.1, Article 4.

Bar-on, R. (2006). Bar-on's Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence. *Psicothema, 18(13-25).*

Barry, R. (2004). The Emotional Deficit in Political Communication. *Political Communication. 21 (3)*

Benson, R. (2004). Bringing the Sociology of Media back In. *Political Communication, 21:3, (275-292)*

Berger, I. (2012). YouTube as a Source of Data. *Research Gate*.

Burgoon, J.K. (1993). Interpersonal Expectations, Expectancy Violations, and Emotional Communication. *Journal of Language and Psychology. (12) 13-21.*

Burgoon, M. (1995). Language expectancy theory: Elaboration, explication, and extension, In Averbeck, J., and Claude, M. (2014) Expanding Language Expectancy Theory: The Suasory Effects of Lexical Complexity and Syntactic Complexity on Effective Message Design, *Communication Studies*, 65:1, 72-95

Chernis, C. (2000). Emotional Intelligence: What it is and Why it Matters. Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations.

Cherry, M.G., Ian, F. & Hellen, O. (2013). Exploring the Relationships among Attachment, Emotional Intelligence and Communication. *Medical Education*, 47: 317-325. Blackwell Publishing Limited.

Corbetta, P. (2003). Social Research: Theory, Methods and Techniques. SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J.W. (2007). Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches. (2nd Edn.). SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J.W. & David, C.J. (2017). Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches. (5th Edn.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.

Drigas, A.S. & C. Papoutsi. (2018). A New Layered Model on Emotional Intelligence. *Behavioural Sciences*. 8(5).

Esser, F., & Pfetsch, B. (2020). Political Communication. In D. Caramani (Ed.), Comparative Politics. Fifth edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 336-358.

Eynon, R., Fry, J., & Schroeder, R. (2008). Ethics of Internet Research. In Fielding, N., Blank, G., Lee, R.M. (Eds) (2008). The Sage Handbook of Online Research methods. London: SAGE Publications.

Fernàndez-Berrocal, P., and Extremera, N. (2006) Emotional Intelligence: A Theoretical and Empirical Review of its First 15 Years of History. *Psicothema (18) 7-12.*

Fraenkel, J.K., & Wallen, N.E. (Eds.) (2003). How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education. New York: The McGraw-Hill Company, Inc.

Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional Intelligence, London: Bloomsbury.

Goleman, D. (1998). Working with Emotional Intelligence. New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (2000). An EI-based theory of performance. In D. Goleman, & C. Cherniss (eds.), *The Emotionally Intelligent Workplace: How to Select for, Measure, and Improve Emotional Intelligence in Individuals, Groups, and Organizations*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. & McKee, A. (2002). Primal Leadership: Learning to Lead with Emotional Intelligence. Harvard Business School Press: Boston.

Graber, D. & James, S.M. (2005) Political Communication Faces the 21st Century. Journal of Communication, 55(3), 479-507.

Jamtoy, A.I. (2012). Emotion and Cognition in Political Communication. (Paper presented in the 3rd International Conference on Democracy as Idea and Practice, Oslo, 12-13th, January 2012)

Jorfi, H., Saeid, J., Hashim, F.Y., & Khalil, M.N. (2014). The Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Communication Effectiveness: Focus on Strategic Alignment. *African Journal of Marketing Management*. 6(5), 82-87.

Kenterelidou, C. (2005). Public Political Communication and Media: The Case of Contemporary Greece. Symposium on Modern Greece.

Kim, H., Justine, S.S., & Christine, B. (2017). Characteristics of Qualitative Descriptive Studies: A Systematic Review. Res Nurs Health, 40(1): 23-42.

Kumar, R. (1999). Research Methodology, A Step-by-Step Guide for Beginners. London: Sage Publications.

Lennox, R.D., & Wolfe, R.N. (1984). Revision of the Self-Monitoring Scale, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. 46 (6).*

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E.G. (1985). Naturalistic Inquiry. Beverly Hills, C, A: SAGE

Luther, M. (1963). "I have a Dream." (Retrieved from https://www.archives.gov/nyc/exhibit/mlk)

Maguire, M. & B. Delahunt (2017). Doing a Thematic Analysis: A Practical, Step-by-Step Guide for Learning and Teaching Scholars. AISHE-J, vol. 3.

Marcus, G.E. (2000). Emotions in Politics. *Annual Review of Political Science. (3)*

Nassaji, H. (2015). Qualitative and Descriptive Research: Data Type versus Data Analysis. *Language Teaching Research*. Vol. 19(2) 129-132.

Neuman, W.L. (2014). Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches. (7th Edn.). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Norris, P. (2004). Political Communications. *Encyclopedia of Social Sciences*.

Northey, M., Lorne, T., & Patrizia, A. (2009). Making Sense: A Student's Guide to Research and Writing in the Social Sciences. Ontario: Oxford University Press.

Paletz, D. & Daniel, L. (1994). Political Culture and Political Communication. Working paper n.92, Barcelona.

Peterson, J.B. (2018). Twelve Rules for Life: An Antidote to Chaos. Random House Canada.

Petrovic, A., & Tatiana, P. (2014). The Role of Emotional Intelligence in building Interpersonal Communication Skills. *Procedia- Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 116 (1405-1410).

Reporters Without Borders (2019). Retrieved from www.rsf.org/en/news on 19th, September 2019.

Riggio, R.E. & Reichard, R.J. (2008). The Emotional and Social Intelligencies of Effective Leadership: An Emotional and Social Skill Approach. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. Vol. Issue 23, (169-185).

Robson, C. (1993). Real World Research. A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner Researchers. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Inc.

Rosenthal, R. (1977). The PONS test: Measuring Sensitivity to nonverbal cues. In P. McReynolds (Ed.), Advances in psychological assessment. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence. *Imagination. Cognition and personality,* 9(3), 185-211.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition and personality*, *9*(3), 185-211.

Serrat, O. (2009). Understanding and Developing Emotional Intelligence. Knowledge Solutions, Asian Development Bank.

Sinha, S., & Deepti, S. (2007) Emotional Intelligence and Effective Communication. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/315836247_EMOTIONAL_INTELLIGENCE_AND_EFFECTIVE_COMMUNICATION

Snarey, J.R., & Vaillant, G.E. (1985) How lower and working class youth become middle class adults: The association between ego defence mechanisms and upward social mobility. Child development, 55(4), 899-910.

Sugiura, L., Wiles, R., & Pope, C. (2017). Ethical Challenges in Online Research: Public/Private Perceptions. Research Ethics, Vol. 13 (184-199).

Taboh, H., Vahid, Z.A., Alma, F., & Mahdi, M. (2016). The Relationship Between

Emotional Intelligence of Managers and Conflict Management with Mediating Role of Political Intelligence: Case Study of Bandar Abbas Oil Refining Company. *IIOAB Journal*, 7(3), 484-490.

The East African online (2019) retrieved from www.theeastafrican.co.ke/news/ea on 19th, September, 2019.

Thornton, G.C.I., & Byaham, W.C. (1982). Assessment centres and managerial performance. New York: Academic Press.

Thyer, B.A. (1993). Single-System Research Designs. *Social Work Research and Evaluation*. Vol. 4.

Tracy, S.J. (2013). Qualitative Research Methods: Collecting Evidence, Crafting Analysis, Communicating Impact. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Wechsler, D. (1958). The Measurement and Appraisal of Adult Intelligence. (4th ed.). Baltimore, MD: The Williams & Wilkins Company.

Wimmer, R.D. & Joseph, R.D. (2006). Mass Media Research: An Introduction. (8thEdn). Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth.

**YouTube Sites from which speeches were accessed**

- Ikulu Tanzania - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rZ-OPa6sJJQ
- Ikulu Tanzania - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GSiDrHTIH7U
- Tanzanite TV - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sOFMFz4ASzA
- Global TV - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6lDz2Ht-qX0
- ICON TV - TZ - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qVVndCuoqb4
- Gilly Bonny Online TV- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=71q1K2qVgnO
- Bongovevo - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rZ-OPa6sJJQ
- Bongo Sihami - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aVc00wizRVQ
- Jamii Forums - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2c-l7LYQay4
- MwanaHALISI TV - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xfMrZKWOYDE

# APPENDICES

**Appendix I : Questionnaire/*Dodoso***

**RESEARCH CONSENT / *RIDHAA YA UTAFITI***

My name is Festo Mulinda, an M.A Student at Moi University (Kenya). I am currently collecting data on the research titled **"Emotional Intelligence in Tanzanian Political Communication."** In account of that, you are cordially requested to take part in this research by objectively filling in this short questionnaire. Any information gathered from this questionnaire will be strictly used for the aforementioned purpose and not otherwise. Participation in this research is completely voluntary, and you are free to participate or not, and withdraw from it at any point/time you wish so. / *Naitwa Festo Mulinda, mwanafunzi wa shahada ya uzamili katika Chuo Kikuu cha Moi (Kenya). Hivi sasa nakusanya data kwa ajili ya utafiti **"Emotional Intelligence in Tanzanian Political Communication".** Hivyo basi unaombwa kuhusika katika utafiti huu kwa kujibu dodoso hili. Taarifa yoyote itakayopatikana kutokana na dodoso, itatumika kwa lengo la utafiti tu na si vinginevyo. Ushiriki wako katika utafiti huu ni wa hiari, na uko huru kushiriki au kujiondoa pale utakapohisi kufanya hivyo.*

**DEMOGRAPHIC DATA/TAARIFA BINAFSI:**

**Gender/*Jinsia*:**      Male/*Mme* [   ] Female/*Mke* [   ]

**Age/*Umri* (Years/*Miaka*):**  18-35 [   ], 36-55 [   ],  56-Above/*kuendelea* [   ]

**Career Experience/*Uzoefu* (Years/*Miaka*):**      0-10 [   ], 11-20 [   ], 21-30 [   ],

31- Above/*kuendelea* [   ]

1. Would you want to know your audience better before you speak to them? Explain your position./*Je ungependa kuifahamu vizuri hadhira yako kabla ya kuzungumza nao? Fananua msimamo wako.*

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………

2. Would you want to know any of the following about your audience? Select by putting a tick against the item. (Choices are unlimited, you can have more than one) *Je, ungependa kufahamu lolote kati ya mambo yafuatayo kuhusu hadhira yako? Chagua kwa kuweka alama ya vema kwa kila chaguo. (Unaweza kuwa na machaguo Zaidi ya moja)*
   a) Their history/*Historia yao* ……………………………………… (    )
   b) Cultural norms/*Tamaduni*……………………………… …………..(    )
   c) Likes*/Wanachopenda*…………………………………………... (    )
   d) Dislikes/*wasichopenda*………………………………………….(    )
   e) Current emotional state/*Hali yao ya sasa ya kihisia*…………………..(    )
   f) Their relationship to you(e.g., voters, workers, etc.)/*uhusiano wao kwako (mfano: wapiga kura, watumishi, n.k.)*…………………………..(    )
   g) Their expectations about you/your speech/*matarajio yao kwako/kwa hotuba yako*…………………………………………………..(    )

3. Are social skills such as self-awareness, self-management, empathy and relationship management important in public speaking? Explain your position in the space below. /*Je, ujuzi kama vile kujitambua, kujimudu kihisia, kutambua maumivu ya wengine, na uwezo wa kutunza mahusiano ni muhimu katika kuhutubia? Fafanua msimamo wako katika nafasi iliyoachwa wazi hapo chini.*

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

4. What is the difference between speaking to the audience you are familiar to and those you are not? / *Kuna tofauti gani kati ya kuzungumza na hadhira unayouifahamu na ile usiyoifahamu?*

a) Familiar Audience / *Hadhira unayoifahamu*

..........................................................................................................................

..........................................................................................................................

..........................................................................................................................

..........................................................................................................................

..........................................................................................................................

..........................................................................................................................

..........................................................................................................................

b) Unfamiliar audience / *Hadhira usiyoifahamu*

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

…………………………………

**Appendix II:  Research Permit**

# UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM
## OFFICE OF THE VICE CHANCELLOR
### P.O. BOX 35091 ♦ DAR ES SALAAM ♦ TANZANIA

General: +255 22 2410500-8 ext. 2001
Direct: +255 22 2410700
Telefax: +255 22 2410078

Telegraphic Address:  UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM
E-mail: vc@admin.udsm.ac.tz
Website address: www.udsm.ac.tz

Ref. No:  AB3/12(B)

Date: 22nd July 2019

Executive Director
Ubungo Municipality Council
**Dar es Salaam Region**

**RE: REQUEST FOR RESEARCH CLEARANCE**

The purpose of this letter is to introduce to you **Mr. Festo Mulinda** who is a bonafide staff member of the University of Dar es Salaam and  MA student at    Moi University. Mr. Mulinda is required to conduct research as part of his MA studies in Kenya.

In accordance with government circular letter Ref. No. MPEC/R/10/1 dated 4th July 1980, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Dar es Salaam is empowered to issue research clearances to staff members and students of the University of Dar es Salaam on behalf of the government and the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology (COSTECH). I am pleased to inform you that I have granted a research clearance to **Mr. Mulinda**.

I therefore, kindly request you to grant him any help that may enable him achieve his research objectives.  Specifically we request your permission for him to meet and talk to the leaders and other relevant stakeholders in your municipality in connection with his research.

The title of his research is **'Emotional Intelligence in Tanzanian Political Communication'.**

The  period  of  his research is from **July to September 2019** and the research  will cover **Ubungo Municipality.**

Should there be any restrictions, you are kindly requested to advise us accordingly.  In case you require further information, please do not hesitate to contact us through the Directorate of Research and Publication, Tel. 2410500-8 Ext. 2084 or 2410727 and E-mail: research@udsm.ac.tz.

Yours sincerely,

VICE CHANCELLOR
UNIVERSITY OF DAR-ES-SALAAM
P.O. Box 35091
DAR-ES-SALAAM

Prof. William A. L. Anangisye
**VICE CHANCELLOR**

QUOTATION OF REF. NO. IS ESSENTIAL