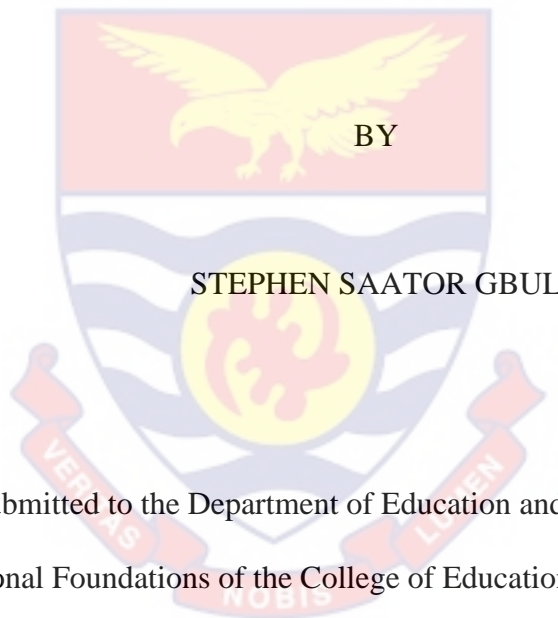


UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

TEACHERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND PROFESSIONAL
SELF-EFFICACY AS PREDICTORS OF STUDENTS' ACADEMIC
ACHIEVEMENT.



Thesis submitted to the Department of Education and Psychology, Faculty of
Educational Foundations of the College of Education Studies, University of
Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Master
of Philosophy degree in Educational Psychology

APRIL 2023

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date:

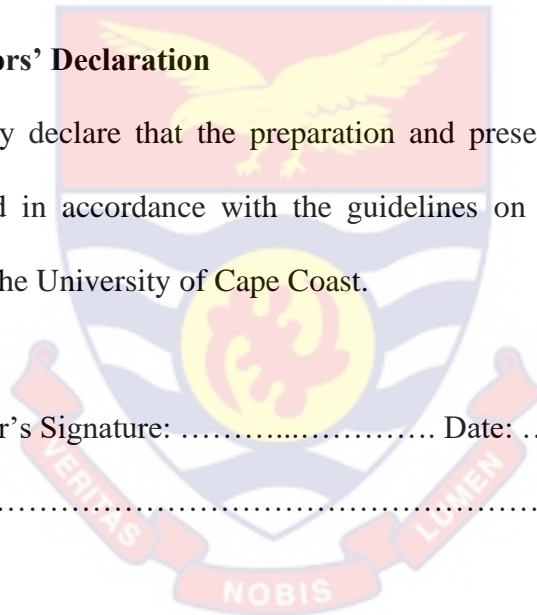
Name:

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name:



ABSTRACT

This study aimed to investigate the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy as predictors of students' academic achievement. An analytical cross-sectional design was used with a sample size of 550 teachers selected through probability sampling procedures. The data were collected using the Emotional Intelligence Scale and the Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale. The results of the study revealed that the teachers in the Wa West District had low emotional intelligence and low self-efficacy. However, emotional intelligence was found to predict self-efficacy positively. Furthermore, emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy were found to positively predict students' academic achievement. These findings suggest that teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy are important factors in predicting students' academic achievement. It is recommended that teachers in the Wa West District should be provided with training programs to improve their emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. This would enhance their ability to effectively manage their emotions, cope with stress, and engage in positive interactions with students. Additionally, teachers should be encouraged to collaborate with colleagues, participate in professional development activities, and receive feedback on their teaching practices to improve their professional self-efficacy.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I am very thankful to my supervisors, Dr. S. Baafi-Frimpong and Dr. Ivy Kesewaa Nkrumah for their useful suggestions, guidance and dedication throughout this work. You kept me going through the toughest time with your overwhelming confidence in my capability to finish this degree successfully. For this and more, I say God richly bless you for making this dream a reality. I owe much gratitude to my lovely family Mrs Soyiri Asana and Mrs Kuutor Joyce for your unflinching support and encouragement, which has helped me in reaching this far. I would also like to thank my children, Saator Pascalina, Saator Eugene, Saator Sandra, Saator Charlotte, Saator Sampson, my niece Badaa Esther and my brother Saator Samuel Muori for exercising patience toward my perpetual absence at home during my studies. I further express my sincere heartfelt gratitude to my friends, Paul Efretey and Dortuo Daniel who took their time and read through my work and always wish and dream for my success in life.

I am equally grateful to Dr. Inuusah Mahama, Yiridomo Gorden, Hon. Sande Simon Saagyire and Bibila James for their countless support toward this success. Again, many thanks go to the Director and staff of Wa West District Directorate of Education, and participants from the selected schools for their unwavering support in making this effort a fruitful one. In all, I give the biggest thanks to the Almighty God for protecting and guiding me up to this far.

DEDICATION

To my wife, my children, my parents and siblings

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Content	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	
Background to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	11
Purpose of the Study	13
Research Questions	14
Research Hypotheses	14
Significance of the Study	15
Delimitations	15
Limitations	16
Organisation of the Study	17
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
Conceptual Review	23
Concept of Emotional Intelligence	23
Components of Emotional Intelligence	26
Teacher as a Leader and Emotional Intelligence	28
Concept of Self-efficacy	34

Academic Self-Efficacy	36
Teachers' Professional Self-efficacy	39
Empirical Review	42
Levels of Emotional Intelligence among Teachers	42
Levels of Teachers' Professional Self-efficacy	45
Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement	46
Teachers' Emotional Intelligence and Teachers' Professional Self-Efficacy	47
Teachers' Demographic Characteristics and Levels of Emotional Intelligence	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Levels of Professional Self-Efficacy among Teachers	50
Teachers' Emotional Intelligence and Students' Academic Achievement	52
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODS	
Introduction	59
Study Design	59
Population	60
Sample and Sampling Procedures	60
Data Collection Instruments	62
Pre-Testing of Instrument	62
Data Collection Procedure	64
Data Processing and Analysis Procedure	65
Ethical issues	65
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	
Introduction	67
Presentation of Bio-Data of the Respondents	68
Research Question One	69

Research Question Two	70
Research Question Three	71
Research Hypothesis One	72
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
Overview	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Summary of Key Findings	81
Conclusions	82
Recommendations	83
Suggestion for Further Studies	84
REFERENCES	85
APPENDICES	103
APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE	104
APPENDIX B: ETHICAL CLEARANCE	106
APPENDIX C: INTRODUCTORY LETTER	107

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1	Bio-Data of the Respondents	68
2	Level of Emotional Intelligence among Teachers	69
3	Level of Self-Efficacy among Teachers	70
4	Results of Descriptive Statistics	
	Error! Bookmark not defined.	
5	Results for prediction of teachers' emotional intelligence on teachers' professional self-efficacy	71
6	Multivariate Multiple Regression (MMR) Results for Psychological Constructs and Academic Achievement	73

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The emotional management of teachers is crucial. It prevents stress and enables them to handle complex educational circumstances without harming the kids. Teachers with a high level of emotional intelligence engage their students more effectively and have a deeper understanding of their behaviour and mental health. They can also be more attuned to the disruptive behaviours, academic performance, and relationship management of their students. The educational atmosphere has a significant impact on the growth and well-being of teenagers, which influences their academic achievement. Previous empirical investigations have demonstrated the importance of emotional intelligence for academic achievement of students. Despite the fact that, a number of studies have examined the relationship and underlying mechanisms between emotional intelligence and academic achievement, additional study, encompassing students' factors is required to better comprehend this relationship.

Background to the Study

Emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy of teachers have been shown to be important predictors of students' academic achievement in various contexts (Choi, Meisenbach, and Fiorini, 2016; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2007).

Globally, studies have shown that teachers with higher levels of emotional intelligence are better able to manage their own emotions and those of their students, leading to better academic outcomes. Jennings and Greenberg (2009) found that interventions aimed at improving teacher

emotional intelligence led to improvements in teacher-student relationships and academic performance. Klassen and Tze (2014) concluded in their research that teacher self-efficacy was positively associated with student achievement and engagement.

In Africa, Adebawale and Adeyemo (2017) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic performance among high school students and concluded that teachers with higher emotional intelligence may be better able to support students' academic success. In Ghana, there is a need for improving the quality of education and increasing student achievement (Amankwah and Adu, 2017). This has led to a growing interest in the role of teacher characteristics, such as emotional intelligence and self-efficacy, on student academic achievement. While Ghana has made progress in increasing access to education, particularly primary education, there are still challenges in ensuring quality education for all students, especially in rural areas like the Wa West district. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, the net enrolment rate in primary education in Ghana was 83.1% in 2019, but there are still disparities in enrolment rates between urban and rural areas. In addition, research suggests that teacher quality is an important factor in determining students' academic achievement. Teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy have been identified as important predictors of their effectiveness in the classroom. For example, a study by Jahan et al. (2021) found that teachers' emotional intelligence positively predicted their teaching effectiveness in a sample of Iranian high school teachers.

The Wa West District in Ghana is one of the areas where educational outcomes are particularly low, with a significant proportion of students failing

to achieve basic levels of proficiency in reading and mathematics (Ministry of Education, 2017). In the context of the Wa West District, there may be additional challenges related to teacher quality and students' academic achievement. As a result, there is a need for research to identify factors that may contribute to these poor outcomes and to develop interventions to improve them.

In recent years, the importance of teachers' emotional intelligence (EI) and professional self-efficacy (PSE) as predictors of students' academic achievement has gained significant attention in the field of education. In Ghana, the issue of students' academic achievement has been a major concern, particularly in the Wa West District. Despite efforts by policymakers and stakeholders to improve academic outcomes, the achievement gap between students from different socio-economic backgrounds remains a significant challenge. According to research by Brackett et al. (2012), emotional intelligence plays a crucial role in creating a positive learning environment, increasing student engagement, and improving academic outcomes. Moreover, professional self-efficacy, or a teacher's belief in their ability to impact student learning, has also been found to be positively associated with student academic achievement (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

In Ghana, studies have shown that teacher factors such as emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy significantly influence students' academic achievement (Adu-Gyamfi & Owusu-Boampong, 2018; Akyeampong & Stephens, 2002). However, little is known about the extent to which these factors predict academic achievement in the Wa West District, Ghana. Therefore, this study will contribute to the existing body of literature

by examining the extent to which teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy predict students' academic achievement in the Wa West District, Ghana, and how this compares to research findings outside Ghana.

Education is a process that allows a person to grow naturally and in harmony. The primary goal of education is to foster comprehensive student growth (Matthews, 2012). Education is a deliberate aim to prepare children to meet adult life's obligations. Since children have to join a dynamic society when grown as adult, education offers adult life preparation. Children with quality education are able to think and think to suit them as they are obliged to face the urging problems of their families, their societies and their worlds. A person needs training to use his own purpose to live ordinary life or moral life. True education involves teaching people to differentiate between 'good and bad,' both physical and mental reactions. Briefly, education is the creation of mind, spirit and body; education is cooperation, compassion, and sympathy (Narasimha & Reddy, 2017).

Teaching is one of the world's oldest and most respected professions. When the organized human community was formed systemically, the need to shape their children in the right direction was needed, which required people to serve that role, that is teachers. The debate that the future people are shaped is noble and hence the instructor has always been a guide in the Indian Community over the years. With the passage of time and shifts in society's standards, the training of teachers has changed (Eissa & El-Said-Khalifa, 2008). According to Eissa and El-Said-Khalifa, the teacher plays a key role in the education system with effective management and suitable teaching helps.

The productivity of the teacher can be increased, but motivated managers and their best spectrum cannot help if the teacher is ignorant, unqualified or indifferent. The progress of any education reform therefore depends largely on the quality of teaching and on the quality of the education of teachers. The quality, competence and character of teachers are undeniably the most important factors influencing the quality of education and their contribution to national development.

Teaching requires by its essence that teachers express or convey feelings that they do not experience. Teachers should, for example, show their students uncommon affection and compassion. They should also be mentors and inspire students who are not yet ready to learn. A teacher is a central figure who can influence students' progress. For this purpose, teachers must have the skills, personality and attitudes needed to affect their students' motivation and desire to learn (Lenka & Kant, 2012). Given its effect on students, the teacher is one of the most stressful roles (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009). According to Ngidi and Sibaya (2002), lack of discipline in schools, high pupil ratios and the high crime rate are the key reasons for stress amongst teachers. Teachers also undergo regular encounters with other practitioners, with a high degree of emotional demand (Burke & Greenglass, 1995). Coetzee and Jansen (2007) support this view, explaining that teachers, parents, co-workers and students are frequently frustrated by the emotional demands of the education system. The stress and emotional requirements of the teaching profession can contribute to emotional and physical fatigue, pessimistic teaching attitudes, reduced personal achievement and reduced job satisfaction (Lenka & Kant, 2012).

These attributes of teachers are nothing but exhibition of emotional intelligence (EI). Emotional Intelligence (EI) is relatively a new psychological construct that has enjoyed unprecedented attention from scholars and corporate researchers (Adeyemo & Ogunyemi, 2005). The emotional intelligence (EI) construct is also used in the field of education and is commonly used for teaching psychology. In the current education scenario, a teacher's success depends not just on the intelligence score, but also the emotional intelligence (EI). Emotional intelligence (EI) means the ability to preserve emotional desires, to read the innermost emotions of another and to treat relationships properly. There have been findings that different professions require different EI levels to succeed, but the results suggest that teachers must extremely be emotionally smart to succeed (Rajeeve, 2017).

In the social scientist field, emotional intelligence (EI) plays a critical role and directly affects the actions of teachers in their organization and is crucial to their professional success. The key pillar of the educational system is considered as teachers. They are moderators to pass information to the students who constitute the base of the society. Teachers cannot be successful source of information unless they have the basic qualifications, knowledge and skills. In recent years, teachers have given great importance to the idea of emotional intelligence (EI) in educational facilities. In fact, emotional intelligence is a type of social intelligence that includes how to control our own and others' emotions; make a choice between them and the ability of using these emotions to set one's life. Therefore, this skill is really required to make the teacher's performance very effective. This skill can make the

teachers not only able to deal with their students but with their colleagues and parents (Hans, Mubeen, & Al-Rabani, 2013).

Developing an individual's self-efficacy creates a regulation of self-awareness that is important in developing emotions. According to Bandura (1997), self-awareness creates a strong link to self-efficacy, as self-efficacy stress self-awareness and self-regulation as factors inducing the development of self-efficacy beliefs. Emotional Intelligence (EI) and self-efficacy combine as an individual interprets organisational realities by the ability to recognise thoughts, feelings and behaviours through self-awareness, regulation and control (Bandura, 1997). According to Gundlach, Marinko, and Douglas (2003), the self-efficacy mental processes can be influenced by emotions because emotions left unrestrained can impede cognitive information processing, which is important for the success of tasks.

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) described the self-efficacy of teachers as the belief that a given educational objective can be accomplished by implementing a variety of techniques, such as organizing and preparing the lessons, and that they have consolidated themselves with relevant activities. Other researchers have described this as teacher trust in their own abilities and the ability to cope with the different teaching tasks (Fives, Hammana, & Olivarez, 2007; Moe, Pazzaglia & Ronconi, 2010). Bandura (1994) argued that teachers with a high degree of self-efficacy display growth in their motivation and improved cognitive development. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007) note that the self-efficacy of the teacher is critical to affecting important educating results, such as higher motivation of students and higher levels of achievement.

In addition, teachers are positively impacted by improved teaching results, including creative methods of teaching, enthusiasm and dedication which are increased (Mahasneh, 2016). It was also recorded that these high-ranking teachers are more resilient and persistent in confronting and overcoming setbacks, less dismissive of mistakes by students, and giving students in struggle more time and attention (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk, 2001). Schwarzer and Hallum (2008) proposed a relationship between the self-efficacy of a person and a tendency towards optimism or pessimism that could be an important factor in evaluating how long one could stay in the teaching profession. Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca and Malone (2006) concluded that high-grade teachers with a high degree of autonomy were competent teachers, who were thus extremely satisfied in the teaching profession.

Academic achievement means academic accomplishment. There were several academic research achievement studies (Yahaya et al., 2012; Sittayehu, 2014). There were many research ventures. The aims of achievement have been embedded in personal arrangements and contextual characteristics where people adjust for changing environments (Waiswa, Baguma, & Oonyu, 2020). There are numerous factors that are expected to influence student achievement, including classroom factors (Hanushek, 1995), student characteristics (Kudayja, 2006), management-related factors (Santibanez et al., 2014), school characteristics (Alam & Ahmad, 2018), family characteristics (Aijaz, 2001), teacher characteristics (Alam & Ahmad, 2018), and leadership (Louis et al., 2010), among others that have been identified.

It can be deduced that a person with low EI and low self-efficacy would probably struggle to keep order in their daily tasks (Gundlach, Marinko, & Douglas, 2003). It is likely that raising the EI of teachers could have a beneficial impact on their sense of self-efficacy according to Penrose, Perry and Ball (2007). This, in turn, could lead to better students' achievement, because self-efficacy is associated with important outcomes such as student learning and the effectiveness of teachers (Mathews, 2012). Emotional intelligence has recently been getting more attention in the literature, and Adeoye and Emeke (2010) think that it will also have an effect on how well students do in school.

Research into understanding the parameters and mastery of teacher emotional intelligence may lead to important findings about how emotional intelligence may be used by teachers to connect with and motivate students on a daily basis, potentially increasing student academic achievement (Rust, 2014). In the educational terrain, extant scholarly literature showed the relationship between EI and successful outcomes. For instance, Palomera et al. (2008) found that high levels of emotional intelligence among teachers play an important role in their teaching.

Studies on teachers' professional self-efficacy and student learning have confirmed that perceived self-efficacy impacts on students' aspiration, level of interest in academic pursuit, academic accomplishment and how well they prepare themselves for different occupational careers (Bandura as cited in Adeyemo, 2007). The emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of teachers may influence their effectiveness and students' achievement. Similarly, Pacheco and Fernández-Berrocal (2013) study found that students with a high level of

emotional intelligence are more likely to have better academic improvement, psychological adjustment, social relationships, and social behaviour. If an examination of emotional intelligence will help to evaluate which workers have affective abilities that are capable of linking and inspiring other individuals in the business world, then emotional intelligence will contribute to the formation of teachers in connection with students and inspire them to succeed at school. Based on Frenzel's (2014) reciprocal model of the antecedents and consequences of teachers' emotions, the researcher wished to investigate if teachers' high emotional intelligence was somehow beneficial to their students.

Emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy of teachers have been shown to be important predictors of students' academic achievement in various contexts (Choi, Meisenbach, and Fiorini, 2016; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). In Ghana, there is a need for improving the quality of education and increasing student achievement (Amankwah and Adu, 2017). This has led to a growing interest in the role of teacher characteristics, such as emotional intelligence and self-efficacy, on student academic achievement. While Ghana has made progress in increasing access to education, particularly primary education, there are still challenges in ensuring quality education for all students, especially in rural areas like the Wa West district. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, the net enrollment rate in primary education in Ghana was 83.1% in 2019, but there are still disparities in enrolment rates between urban and rural areas. In addition, research suggests that teacher quality is an important factor in determining students' academic achievement. Teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy

have been identified as important predictors of their effectiveness in the classroom. For example, a study by Jahan et al. (2021) found that teachers' emotional intelligence positively predicted their teaching effectiveness in a sample of Iranian high school teachers.

The WA West District in Ghana is one of the areas where educational outcomes are particularly low, with a significant proportion of students failing to achieve basic levels of proficiency in reading and mathematics (Ministry of Education, 2017). In the context of the Wa West District, there may be additional challenges related to teacher quality and students' academic achievement. As a result, there is a need for research to identify factors that may contribute to these poor outcomes and to develop interventions to improve them.

Statement of the Problem

It is noted that emotional intelligence (EI) and self-efficacy contribute about 80% of the success in people's lives (Pawlow, 2009). Given the importance of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of teachers, teacher training programmes in Ghana seem not to state succinctly the value of these psychological constructs in the professional protocols in the training curriculum. Teaching is considered a highly emotional process and different emotional abilities seem to be of significance for the efficiency of education (Dolev & Leshem, 2016). Perry and Ball (2007) concluded that emotionally intelligent teachers are more likely to become self-efficient, detect personal emotional issues, and use a reflective approach to stressful circumstances affecting students and other peers. The training of teachers in EI and self-efficacy could influence students' emotional development, their ability to

relate and make responsible decisions and their achievement in academia (Daghayesh & Zabihi, 2016). Many educational institutions work anxiously to find, hold and professionally developed teachers who could meet the demands of high stakes academic achievement of students (McNulty & Quaglia, 2007) but it seems not successful.

While a large body of research examining the relationship between teacher EI and their educational work, or between student EI and their various outcomes, empirical evidence on how teacher emotions affect student outcomes and performance is rare (Wang, 2022). Current studies only take the EIs of individual students or teachers into account but neglect the involvement of teachers' self-efficacy and students' academic achievement (Kotomina, & Sazhina, 2018). Furthermore, studies in business settings, indicate that emotional intelligence can help to identify employers and employees with affective skills capable of relating with and motivating others (Othman, Abdullah, & Ahmad, 2008; Rozell, Pettijohn, & Parker, 2006) but such studies did not capture self-efficacy. Comparatively, Agustiani, Cahyad, and Musa (2016) and Ngoma, Ntale, and Abaho (2017), investigated the interaction among self-efficacy, self-regulation and achievement but these studies did not consider EI. These findings raise questions as to whether or not the emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of teachers could be applied in the educational environment and help explain which of the psychological constructs might be the most successful impacting students' academic achievement, hence the study among teachers and students in Junior High Schools in the Wa West District.

In recent years, the importance of teachers' emotional intelligence (EI) and professional self-efficacy (PSE) as predictors of students' academic achievement has gained significant attention in the field of education. In Ghana, the issue of students' academic achievement has been a major concern, particularly in the Wa West District. Despite efforts by policymakers and stakeholders to improve academic outcomes, the achievement gap between students from different socio-economic backgrounds remains a significant challenge. According to research by Brackett et al. (2012), emotional intelligence plays a crucial role in creating a positive learning environment, increasing student engagement, and improving academic outcomes. Moreover, professional self-efficacy, or a teacher's belief in their ability to impact student learning, has also been found to be positively associated with student academic achievement (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

In Ghana, studies have shown that teacher factors such as emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy significantly influence students' academic achievement (Adu-Gyamfi & Owusu-Boampong, 2018; Akyeampong & Stephens, 2002). However, little is known about the extent to which these factors predict academic achievement in the Wa West District, Ghana. Therefore, this study will contribute to the existing body of literature by examining the extent to which teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy predict students' academic achievement in the Wa West District of Ghana, and how this compares to research findings outside Ghana.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among teachers' emotional intelligence, professional self-efficacy and the academic achievement of students. The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Examine the levels of teachers' emotional intelligence in the Wa West District.
2. Investigate the levels of teachers' professional self-efficacy in the Wa West District.
3. Establish the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy.
4. To determine the influence of (a) teachers' emotional intelligence and (b) teachers' professional self-efficacy on students' academic achievement in the Wa West District.

Research Questions

1. What are the levels of teachers' emotional intelligence in the Wa West District?
2. What are the levels of teachers' professional self-efficacy in the Wa West District?
3. What is the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy?

Research Hypotheses

1. H₁: Teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy will predict students' academic achievement in Wa West District.

H₀: Teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy will not predict students' academic achievement in Wa West District.

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the link between emotional intelligence (EI) and professional self-efficacy (PSE), particularly within the educational context. It will help to expand theoretical understanding of the relationship between teachers' emotional competencies and their beliefs about their professional abilities. It will also validate or challenge existing theories on emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy in educational settings, potentially offering new directions for further research, especially in under-researched regions like the Wa West District. It will also enhance the theoretical framework for studying teacher performance and motivation within the West African educational system.

This study will be highly relevant to educational policymakers in the Wa West District and beyond. The outcomes of this research will guide policy development in areas related to teacher professional development and training, particularly in emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. Policymakers may use the results to design targeted professional development programs aimed at improving teachers' emotional and professional capabilities. At the practical level, this study will have several implications for teachers, school administrators, and education practitioners: improved teacher performance and well-being: Understanding the relationship between emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy will provide valuable insights for teachers to

enhance their personal and professional development. Teachers who are aware of their emotional intelligence and efficacy may be better equipped to manage classroom challenges, deal with stress, and build stronger relationships with students, leading to improved teaching outcomes. Support for teacher training programs.

Findings from the study will be instrumental in developing tailored teacher training programs that emphasize emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. These programs could help teachers build resilience, self-confidence, and emotional regulation skills, which in turn can lead to better student outcomes. Enhanced school management and leadership. School leaders will benefit from understanding how emotional intelligence and self-efficacy impact teacher performance and morale. This knowledge can be used to foster a supportive work environment, implement strategies for teacher empowerment, and improve overall school performance.

Delimitations

The study investigated the relationship among teachers' emotional intelligence, self-efficacy and academic achievement of students in the Wa West District and not any other district. The study used Junior High School teachers and students and not any other teachers or students.

Limitations

This study was subjected to methodological setbacks in as much as the use of questionnaire as a quantitative data collection tool is concerned. A mixed method approach would have helped elicit more information on teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy. However, the adoption of the quantitative approach has limited the study from delving

deeper into the lived experiences of teachers and their perceived emotional intelligence on academic achievement in a district still struggling to achieve better educational outcomes.

Organisation of the Study

The study consists of five chapters. Chapter one of the study is the introduction. It discusses the background to the study, sets out the problem under study, and states the purpose of the study, the research questions and the significance of the study. The chapter defines the scope of the study and indicates its methodological limitations. Chapter two covers the review of literature related to various aspects of the study. It describes in details both the theoretical and empirical framework within which the study is situated. Chapter three deals with the methodology that was employed for the study. It describes the research design, population, sample and the sampling procedure, the instrument used in data collection, how it was administered and ends with how data were analysed. Chapter four deals, basically, with the presentation of results and discussion. Finally, Chapter five summarizes the entire research process, draws conclusions and makes recommendations for policy, practice and further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This study focused on how teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy are interconnected with personal attributes that influence their teaching effectiveness, classroom climate and student engagement, which ultimately affect students' academic achievement. This includes theoretical review, conceptual review and empirical review.

Theoretical Review

Emotional Intelligence Theory (Goleman, 1995)

Emotional Intelligence Theory, introduced by Goleman (1995), posits that individuals' ability to understand, manage, and use emotions effectively

has a profound impact on personal and professional success. Goleman argued that emotional intelligence is a critical factor for success in personal, social, and professional contexts, often more important than traditional measures of intelligence (IQ). He expanded on earlier research by Salovey and Mayer (1990), popularizing and broadening the application of EI to fields like education, business, and psychology. Goleman defines emotional intelligence as the ability to recognize, understand, and manage one's own emotions, as well as to recognize, understand, and influence the emotions of others. It emphasizes how emotional competencies affect decision-making, interpersonal relationships, and overall success. In the context of education, teachers' emotional intelligence (EI) serves as a foundation for creating a supportive learning environment, managing relationships, and inspiring student performance. When combined with professional self-efficacy. These factors strongly predict students' academic achievement. Goleman's EI theory identifies five key components that includes self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills that are integral to effective teaching. Each component directly contributes to a teacher's ability to foster a learning environment conducive to academic success.

Self-Awareness: Teachers who are self-aware recognize their emotional triggers and biases, which helps them remain objective and fair in classroom interactions. This emotional clarity allows teachers to create consistent and supportive learning experiences for students (Goleman, 1995). A self-aware teacher notices frustration when students struggle with a topic, prompting them to adjust their teaching approach rather than blame students for poor performance.

Self-Regulation: Teachers with strong emotional regulation skills manage stress, anger, or frustration effectively, ensuring a calm and stable classroom environment. Such environments are linked to lower student anxiety and higher engagement, which positively affect academic outcomes (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). In a disruptive classroom, an emotionally intelligent teacher remains composed and applies conflict resolution strategies instead of reacting impulsively.

Motivation: Motivated teachers inspire students to reach their potential by modelling enthusiasm and resilience (Goleman, 1995). Research indicates that teacher motivation, driven by intrinsic goals, is a significant predictor of student success (Day & Gu, 2014). Teachers who persevere despite challenges, such as limited resources, encourage students to adopt a growth mindset.

Empathy: Empathetic teachers understand and respond to students' emotional needs, creating a sense of belonging and trust in the classroom. Studies suggest that empathetic teacher-student relationships are linked to higher student engagement and academic performance (Roorda et al., 2011). An empathetic teacher notices a student struggling with personal issues and provides support, ensuring the student remains focused on academics.

Social Skills: Teachers with strong social skills effectively communicate expectations, provide constructive feedback, and foster collaboration among students. Such skills are essential for building positive classroom relationships, which contribute to academic achievement (Goleman, 1995). A teacher's ability to mediate conflicts among students helps maintain a cooperative and focused learning environment.

Professional Self-Efficacy and Academic Achievement (Bandura,1986).

Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), developed in 1986, is a psychological framework that explains human behaviour as a dynamic interaction between personal factors, environmental influences, and behaviour itself. It emphasizes the role of observational learning, self-efficacy and reciprocal determinism in shaping how people think, behave, and interact with their environment. The theory highlights self-efficacy as a critical factor influencing an individual's ability to achieve desired outcomes. Professional self-efficacy in teachers refers to their confidence in their capacity to manage classrooms, deliver effective lessons, and positively impact student learning.

Classroom Management: Teachers with high self-efficacy are better at maintaining discipline and creating a structured learning environment. Such environments reduce distractions and support academic achievement (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

Instructional Effectiveness: Teachers who believe in their instructional abilities are more likely to employ innovative and student-centered teaching strategies (Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). A teacher with high self-efficacy may incorporate technology or hands-on activities to enhance learning outcomes.

Persistence and Resilience: Self-efficacious teachers persevere in the face of challenges, such as large class sizes or limited resources, ensuring that students receive consistent support. Research shows that such resilience positively influences student performance, particularly in disadvantaged settings (Caprara et al., 2006).

Goleman's theory complements Bandura's concept of self-efficacy by emphasizing how emotional intelligence enhances professional confidence. Emotional intelligence provides teachers with the emotional resources needed to sustain high levels of self-efficacy, particularly in challenging circumstances.

Stress Management: Emotional regulation helps teachers handle stress effectively, preventing burnout and maintaining their sense of efficacy (Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011).

Empathy and Student Engagement: Teachers with high EI and self-efficacy are more likely to build meaningful relationships with students, fostering engagement and academic motivation (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

Adaptability: Emotionally intelligent teachers are better at adapting their teaching methods to diverse student needs, reinforcing their professional self-efficacy (Goleman, 1995).

Numerous studies support the role of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in predicting academic achievement. Brackett et al. (2010) found that emotionally intelligent teachers create environments conducive to learning, leading to better student outcomes. Caprara et al. (2006) reported that teacher self-efficacy predicts student achievement through improved instructional quality and classroom management. Jennings & Greenberg (2009) highlighted the importance of teachers' emotional competencies in reducing stress and fostering student engagement. Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Theory provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy predict students'

academic achievement. Teachers who excel in self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills are better equipped to handle the complexities of teaching, maintain professional confidence, and inspire student success. In challenging educational contexts like the Wa West District, these attributes are particularly critical, making Goleman's theory a valuable lens for examining and improving educational outcomes.

Conceptual Review

Concept of Emotional Intelligence

Improving the standard of public education has long been a pressing concern for decades. Experts in this field have been concerned with the development of educational programmes and teacher competences, particularly their ability to coordinate the educational process. It was around this period when emotional intelligence was frequently ignored as a personal trait. However, this comes as no surprise, given the relative youth of the field of psychological research into emotional intelligence. Even though this idea was new, professionals quickly saw how important it was (Schoeps et al., 2019). Emotions are complex psychophysiological processes that are triggered by events in a person's life that the person deems to be of subjectively meaningful significance (Eisma & Stroebe, 2021). Psychologists have been interested in studying them for well over a century now (Berridge, 2018). According to the findings of a number of studies, instructing is an emotionally taxing endeavour that requires instructors to monitor, analyse, and exert self-discipline over their feelings in order to maximise their effectiveness as educators, motivate their students, and foster an atmosphere conducive to successful education (Schonert-Reichl, 2017).

When it comes to the question of emotional intelligence, there is no one-size-fits-all answer. These abilities range from the ability to comprehend, recognise, and categorise feelings to the ability to express and manage them (Hughes et al., 2005). There are four elements of emotional intelligence that have been postulated by some studies (Palomera et al., 2008). Emotional perception is the first dimension, followed by emotional synthesis (i.e., the ability to use emotions in cognitive thinking). The other two dimensions are understanding (i.e., being able to figure out why and how emotions happen) and controlling emotions (i.e., having self-control and being open to emotional growth). Since the middle of the 1990s, a lot more research has been done on how teachers feel, which has made educators pay more attention to how important emotional intelligence is to their jobs (Yin, 2012; Maamari&Majdalani, 2019).

Emotional intelligence (EI) is how people recognise, control, and express their own and others' emotions (Maamari&Majdalani, 2019). Current academic knowledge of emotional intelligence focuses on ability and trait EI (trait EI). The first paradigm sees EI as a cognitive capacity that requires comprehending emotional signals and information, whereas the second sees it as a personality trait tied to conduct (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Lu et al., 2016).

These two concepts lead to differing EI measurement methods and empirical foundations (Davis & Nichols, 2016). High EI is associated with favourable life outcomes, including building positive social interactions, understanding others' emotional states, responding to others' viewpoints, strengthening communication, and controlling behaviour (Miao et al., 2017). Low EI is associated with self-destructive and deviant behaviours (Curci et al.,

2014; Davis & Nichols, 2016), such as using illegal drugs and drinking excessively, having poor relationships with friends, missing school without permission and being expelled, and feeling depressed (Brackett et al., 2004; Davis & Humphrey, 2014).

Emotional intelligence's development and functioning are influenced by a number of elements that are not directly related to the context in which it operates. In the context of market relations, four general characteristics of emotional intelligence are outlined: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social/relationship management. These four aspects are all intertwined. Students, families, co-workers, and other people benefit from its use, as has been demonstrated via research on the positive effects on emotional well-being (Raghubir, 2018). It is therefore important that teachers' preparation include the study of emotional intelligence because it has a direct impact on students' health, relationships, and academic success (Kotsou et al., 2019).

Emotional intelligence is a well-studied and essential psychological concept (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2011). Emotional intelligence was used incidentally in literacy critique, and after 20 years, it was most often in research studies (Abiodullah & Aslam, 2020). With time, more papers were written to define, study, and quantify emotional intelligence, and various hypotheses were produced about emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). This concept originated as social trends overlooked emotions and people's self-assessment rose. Educationists use emotional intelligence tests to look at or anticipate people's talents. This field is vital for improving society by recognising the relevance of emotions in daily life. Advocates of

emotional intelligence say that people who know their emotions can live more easily and joyfully and are more contented (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2011). For those who work in the social sector, emotional intelligence is a must. It is impossible to build successful communication unless one understands, shares, and exerts control over the emotional state of others (Larina, 2016).

Many academics see emotional intelligence as a significant indicator in vocational and professional education. Emotional intelligence can benefit students if teachers know how to use it. For academic brilliance, instructors must comprehend the distinction between cognitive and emotional intelligence, but they must also focus on the emotional literacy of their students. Teachers' emotional literacy will show when they examine their own emotional literacy (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2011).

Components of Emotional Intelligence

Several explanations have been offered to emotional intelligence. Most of these explanations agreed to the fact that emotional intelligence is encapsulated with four major components. Following are explained versions of the components:

Self-awareness: Self-awareness is the ability to recognise and name one's own emotions. The most crucial EI skill is this one. Your strengths and weaknesses can be discovered. Knowing what causes you to be happy or sad, proud or alarmed or disgusted can help you better understand your emotions. Both your positive and negative biases are listed here. Being aware of your feelings allows you to better control your reactions and actions. This is critical to effectively managing interpersonal relationships (Goleman, 2002).

Self-management: Self-management is the capacity to regulate one's emotional responses while still acting in a truthful and ethical manner. An emotionally intelligent person does not let bad moods or strong emotional reactions dictate their actions. In a calm and reasonable manner, she or he is able to express her or his thoughts openly and honestly. A person with emotional intelligence lets those around them know when they are upset and how long it is likely to last so that they can prepare for it and deal with it appropriately. To be self-managed also entails being able to control your own actions in order to achieve a specific outcome. Saving money now so you can buy a house later is an example of postponing pleasure for the sake of long-term gain. In addition, it means being able to persevere through a challenge, even if it is difficult and time-consuming (Goleman, 1995).

Social Awareness: Empathy and attention are two components of social awareness (noticing how others are reacting to you). Understanding another person's emotions and relating to them in a similar way is called empathy. It does not imply that you share the same opinion as the other person. However, it does mean that you know how they feel and can communicate that you understand, and that you care. What you do and say has an impact on other people, so it's important to be aware of what other people are thinking and feeling. When you announce a change, make a request, or simply make a statement, you should be aware of how it will affect others. Once you have the ability to sense how others react, you can be more effective in choosing how to deliver a message (Eslinger, 2007).

Relationship Management: Effective communication skills are an important part of relationship management. It means being able to express one's thoughts

succinctly, as well as providing examples. The ability to persuade does not rely on logical reasoning. It is based on an understanding of people's emotions and how they make decisions. A good example of this is the rhetoric used by local and national elected officials when trying to sway their respective constituencies. A lot of their conversation is centred on topics such as personal security and faith, family and health, and financial well-being. Emotional communication and persuasion are not mutually exclusive, but it is important that you know how to use both. The ability to effectively convey thoughts, information and requests to others is a hallmark of someone who has developed emotional intelligence. They keep an eye on the reactions of those around them and adjust their strategy accordingly. Those who pay attention to how others feel are often able to foresee how others will respond and plan accordingly. They have a knack for igniting a sense of community and resolving interpersonal tensions. The most important thing is for them to be socially aware and flexible in how they approach others. They have the ability to influence others through their choice of words, nonverbal cues, and timing (Barsade, 2002).

Teacher as a Leader and Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) is becoming increasingly important to leaders in today's global society, which is being shaped by social media (Finkelhor, 2014). Campus principals must now exercise a high degree of EI in order to increase their chances of success in light of the impending evolution of school leadership (Tomlinson, 2003). According to Baesu and Bejinaru (2015), the way leaders and executives lead is unique because they have distinct foundations and authorities. A successful leader must also have a

set of fundamental skills. Scholarly debates have been sparked by this, with the goal of identifying the specific elements that are required for leaders to be successful. In 1920, Thorndike proposed the concept of social intelligence, which laid the groundwork for emotional intelligence. Dabke (2016) and Salovey and Mayer (1990) proposed that social intelligence is the ability to understand and manage men and women and to act wisely in human relations (1990). According to the scientists, thoughts and feelings are intertwined in emotional intelligence. They found that emotions can be managed mentally to a point (Brown, 2014).

Teachers have a significant impact on a school's success. According to Waruwu (2015), a high level of emotional intelligence is needed by campus leaders in order to increase teacher productivity and decrease apathy. He went on to say that one way leaders can do this is by being more aware of their own and others' emotions. Emotional intelligence, according to Goleman (1998), can be improved by teaching leaders how to better understand themselves, others, and the effects they have on each other. According to Olcer, Florescu, and Nastase (2014), leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence have a significant impact on their subordinates.

According to Goleman (as cited in Lubbadah, 2022), emotional intelligence (EI) makes up the other 80% of a person's life success, IQ only accounts for 20% of a person's life success factors (Lubbadah 2020). According to Joseph and Newman, EI's appeal as a foundation for job success has grown in recent years (Guillen & Florent-Treacy 2011). Emotional intelligence and leadership have been linked in numerous studies. Empathic listening, resonance, and self-awareness have been frequently emphasised in

the relationship (Guillen & Florent-Treacy 2011). A common denominator among the most effective leaders, according to Goleman's writings, is emotional intelligence. A leader's ability to communicate effectively is an absolute necessity, according to him, and IQ and technical skills are more of an entry-level requirement. Even if someone has a lot of education and is good at critical thinking and coming up with ideas, they are not likely to become a great leader without emotional intelligence (Ovans, 2015).

According to Goleman (as cited in Lubbadeh, 2022), emotional intelligence (EI) makes up the other 80% of a person's life success, IQ only accounts for 20% of a person's life success factors (Lubbadeh 2020). According to Joseph and Newman, EI's appeal as a foundation for job success has grown in recent years (Guillen & Florent-Treacy, 2011). Emotional intelligence and leadership have been linked in numerous studies. Empathic listening, resonance, and self-awareness have been frequently emphasised in the relationship (Guillen & Florent-Treacy 2011). A common denominator among the most effective leaders, according to Goleman's writings, is emotional intelligence. A leader's ability to communicate effectively is an absolute necessity, according to him, and IQ and technical skills are more of an entry-level requirement. Even if someone has a lot of education and is good at critical thinking and coming up with ideas, they are not likely to become a great leader without emotional intelligence (Ovans, 2015).

Because of the increasingly competitive workplace and the increasing globalisation of corporations, leadership and emotional intelligence are becoming increasingly important. When a company has a global presence, it puts pressure on its employees to deliver and keep going. In order to meet the

owner's expectations and maintain employee performance, leaders are under more pressure (Dobre 2013). Conflict management and conflict resolution are critical for leaders, and emotional intelligence is a key component. Problems, conflicts, and issues must be identified and a leadership style that can resolve them must be identified by leaders (MindTools, 2020). Leaders must be able to handle their emotions and maintain a balance between their employees' behaviour and their own reactions in order to maintain a healthy work environment. There is evidence to suggest that emotional intelligence (EI) has a positive effect on various leadership styles, particularly when it comes to identifying and responding to problems. The transformational leadership style has been shown to have a significant impact on emotional intelligence. A leader's needs, motivation, and creativity are all taken into consideration by a leader in a transformational leadership style. Transformational leaders, according to Bass and Avolio's findings, "inspire others to go above and beyond what they originally intended and often thought was possible." They are more demanding of themselves and tend to get better results as a result (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). Transactional leadership styles, by contrast, are more concerned with the relationship between the leader and his or her subordinates, their followers, and their subordinates' employees to avoid being a part of a project that goes the wrong way (Hamstra et al., 2013). The additional effort that workers are willing to put forth in order to meet defined goals is referred to as leadership outcomes (Abbas & Asghar, 2010). Emotional intelligence and leadership style are linked, according to studies. The Johnson and Johnson Customer Care and Personal Care Communities conducted a study that found

that the top performing managers had a significantly higher level of emotional intelligence than the rest of the managers (Cavallo & Brienza, 2001).

Emotional intelligence was linked to leadership style in Gardner and Stough (2002), another study that looked at this relationship among senior managers. There is a correlation between emotional intelligence skills and the style of transformational leadership that was documented by Leban and Zulauf (2004) in their research. A study done by Duckett and Macfarlane (2003) gives more credence on how important emotional intelligence and transformational leadership are.

Emotional intelligence has had a significant impact on educational leadership practise. It is noted that one's ability to grow into a leadership role is correlated with their level of emotional intelligence. It was found that "emotional intelligence and resilience are significant predictors of leadership" from the perspective of administrators' self-analysis, whether subjected to quantitative or qualitative analysis, and that "a leader's emotional and resilience increase leadership capacity" was found in a study of school leaders in three southern states (p. 26). Emotional intelligence and resilience were found to have a significant relationship with leadership characteristics, according to the researchers (Maulding et al., 2012, p. 26). Future educational identification and development programmes could benefit greatly from these kinds of findings. (Hackett & Horstman, 2008) Because of this, many researchers strongly recommend that school leaders' professional development models include measures of emotional competency, with more focus on developing the traits of high emotional intelligence that can make a big difference.

Also, academic success has been linked to emotional intelligence in educational leaders. Students are more engaged, teachers are more supportive, and schools perform better when they have leaders who are emotionally intelligent, according to studies conducted by Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) and Parker, Duffy, Wood, Bond, and Hogan (2005) and others. According to a study by Labby, Lunenburg, and Slate (2012), there is a correlation between emotional intelligence and academic success. They discovered that emotionally intelligent leaders inspire teachers and students to perform at a higher level, as they discovered (Labby et al., 2012). In other words, emotional leaders in education create situations where students can reach their full potential. Because they care so much about their students, they take an active role in helping them succeed. The result is that they inspire their subordinates to do their best and build trust in their leadership.

Again, transformational leaders have high emotional intelligence. When studying 3,011 teachers and 36 principals in Greek primary schools, Brinia, Zimianit, and Panagiotopoulos (2014) learned how to foster a self-aware organisational culture by instilling the values of understanding, trust, achievement, and effectiveness into their leaders. They also discovered that these leaders are able to bring together their emotional intelligence with a flexible approach that is well-liked by their staff. Similarly, a study of 46 principals in a southern Georgia urban school system by Hackett and Hortman (2008) found a link between transformational leadership models and better student outcomes. Using data from 49 studies on educational leaders, Berkovich and Eyal (2015) found that leaders with high emotional intelligence had a much greater positive impact on their schools than leaders with low

emotional intelligence. When it comes to transforming and sustaining long-term organisational sustainability, emotionally intelligent leaders are essential (Trench, 2016).

Concept of Self-efficacy

Bandura coined the term "self-efficacy" around 40 years ago (1977a). Since then, self-efficacy has been a major focus of research in this area, being regarded as one of the most "theoretically, heuristically, and practically useful concepts formulated in modern psychology" (Betz et al., 1996, p. 47). Ability and motivation are not synonymous with self-efficacy, but there is a strong correlation between the two (Kozlowski & Salas, 2010). A person's sense of self-efficacy is based on a belief in one's own ability to complete a task. According to Bandura (1994), people's actions can be predicted more accurately by their beliefs about their own abilities than by their actual performance. Self-efficacy, in his view, is a way to explain and predict one's own thoughts, feelings, and actions, as well as to plan and carry out strategies for achieving specific goals. It doesn't care as much about a person's individual abilities and qualifications. It gives more weight to what people think they can accomplish with their unique set of abilities.

Self-efficacy, according to Bandura, has an impact on how people feel, think, and act (Bandura, 1995). Individuals who have high levels of self-efficacy are better able to regulate their own behaviour and, as a result, their environment (Bandura, 2001). Bandura (1995) went on to say that people's feelings, thoughts, motivations, and behaviours are all influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs. Beliefs in one's own ability to succeed are the bedrock of human motivation, well-being, and self-actualization. This is because people

are less likely to take action or persevere in the face of challenges if they do not believe that their actions can produce the results they deserve. Several empirical studies back up Bandura's claim that people's self-efficacy beliefs affect virtually every aspect of their lives, including how well they motivate themselves, how vulnerable they are to stress and depression, and the decisions they make in their daily lives.

An important set of proximal determinants of human motivation, affect, and action'' is Bandura's description of self-efficacy (p. 1175). It is through the interplay of motivational, cognitive, and affective processes that these convictions become an active form of action. Setting personal objectives is an example of a cognitive process. When people think they are more capable, they set more goals, which makes them more committed to achieving those goals (Bandura, 2009, 1989). Consequences are things that happen as a result of a belief in one's own abilities or abilities as a whole (Rodgers, 1989). In terms of choice behaviour, ''effort expenditure, thought patterns, and emotional reactions, people's beliefs in their abilities to perform specific behaviours are an important predictor'' (Lenz & Shortridge-Baggett, 2002, p. 14). People's self-efficacy beliefs will influence their thoughts, feelings, motivations, and actions in a fundamental way. Self-efficacy is more concerned with one's perceptions of one's own abilities than it is with the specific skills one possesses. A person's sense of self-efficacy can only be measured in a specific context and cannot be measured universally (Bandura, 2009). Since self-efficacy plays on how an individual perceived a situation. It is also how an individual behave in response to different situations. Individual will successfully function in any setting to achieve goals. In other words, self-

efficacy is serves as a connecting link on the person's goals, performance and motivation. It is one of the individual related concepts that serve as mediating mechanism among concepts (Bandura, 2009).

Academic Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a critical factor in a student's success in education because it influences the decisions they make and the actions they take (Pajares, 2002). To have academic self-efficacy is to have the conviction that one can successfully complete a given academic task or reach a specific academic goal (Bandura, 1997; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Elias & Loomis, 2002; Linenbrink & Pintrich, 2002a; Schunk & Pajares, 2002). Self-efficacy theory is the foundation of academic self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). When it comes to solving a problem or completing a task, self-efficacy refers to a person's "confidence in their ability to organise and execute a given course of action" (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002, p. 110). According to self-efficacy theory, some people may believe they are most effective at difficult tasks while others only believe they are effective at easier ones. Self-efficacy, on the other hand, is considered to be a variable trait rather than a permanent one (Linenbrink & Pintrich, 2002a).

Different academic domains form a loose hierarchical multidimensional structure in which students make reliable distinctions between their self-efficacy judgments. To distinguish it from self-esteem and/or self-concept, self-efficacy is a task-specific assessment, whereas the latter two reflect more general affective assessments of one's own self (Linenbrink & Pintrich, 2002a). Academic expectancy beliefs are divided into two broad categories. Students' expectations about their academic performance

are based on their convictions that particular actions will result in particular outcomes. Students' expectations of their own academic efficacy are based on their convictions that they can carry out the actions required to achieve a specific result. Because "individuals can believe that a certain behaviour will produce a certain outcome (outcome expectation), but may not believe they can perform that behaviour [efficacy expectations]," understanding the difference between these two forms of expectancy beliefs is critical (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002, p. 111).

Researchers Linenbrink and Pintrich (2003) found a strong link between academic self-efficacy and students' ability to learn and perform well in school as well as their cognitive engagement and analytical thinking. Children's motivation, interest, and performance in school are likely influenced greatly by their belief in their own personal efficacy to influence their own educational processes and outcomes and to become proficient in difficult subject matter. High self-efficacy is exhibited by students who are confident in their ability to plan, implement, and control their problem-solving or task performance at a designated level of competence. Self-efficacy is viewed as a multidimensional construct that can be applied to a wide range of activities. Academia-specific self-efficacy refers to a person's belief in one's own ability to perform well in academic settings. Academic self-efficacy is defined as "students' perceptions of their competence to do their classwork by Midgley et al. (2000). Different academic domains form a loose hierarchical multidimensional structure in which students make reliable distinctions between their self-efficacy judgments. Depending on how someone feels about

their own abilities, there are certain behaviours and motivations that can help or hurt their performance (Nasa, 2014).

According to a study conducted by Reyes (2010), high school students were divided into two groups based on their gender. There appears to be a correlation between students' performance on both subjects and their self-efficacy. On the other hand, male and female efficacy have not been found to differ significantly. According to the findings, academic performance on both subjects can be predicted by students' feelings of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was examined by Kfaween (2010) in a university study of 364 students (of whom 173 were female). However, there was no significant difference in the level of self-efficacy between male and female students, regardless of their specialisation. According to Williams and Takaku (2011), there were no gender differences in beliefs about one's own writing self-efficacy, but there was a significant gender difference in actual writing performance.

Devonport and Lane (2003/2004) studied undergraduate students' self-efficacy and coping strategies. According to one theory, using coping strategies like asking for help and managing your time may help students improve their academic self-efficacy. The findings show that self-efficacy and active coping are linked. Student behaviour and attitudes were examined by Salami (2010) in terms of the influence of emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and psychological well-being. Student self-efficacy and emotional intelligence were found to be positively correlated with academic success because students with these traits actively participated in school activities. Students' academic self-efficacy and stress levels were examined by Zajacova, Lynch, and Espenshade (2005). These students were asked to complete 27

college-related tasks, and their responses were recorded by researchers. Rather than stress, the researchers found that students' sense of self-efficacy was a better predictor of academic success. Students' perceptions of their own physics self-efficacy were examined by Sharma and Lindstorm (2006). Physics efficacy was found to be affected by both variables. Overall, females had lower self-efficacy than males during the study period (Akram& Ghazanfar, 2014).

Teachers' Professional Self-efficacy

Teachers' self-efficacy and related psychological issues have been a major focus of research for the past four decades (Zee &Kooomen, 2016). Bandura's theory of self-efficacy continues to be the focus of most researchers (Berg & Smith, 2016). Teachers' self-efficacy is defined as their faith in their own abilities to produce the desired outcomes in their students (Hussain, Khan, & Bidar, 2022). As a result of this belief, teachers can motivate even students who are having difficulties in school (Armor et al., 1976). According to research, teacher self-efficacy plays an important role in many educational outcomes, including students' academic performance and motivation, as well as their teachers' passion and confidence in their ability to teach (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). As Swarnalatha (2019) and Shahzad and Naureen (2017) show, there is a positive correlation between the effectiveness of teachers and the academic achievement of their students. The student's motivation and success have been directly or indirectly influenced by the teacher's efficacy (Dusek, 1985; Parsons, Kaczala, &Meece, 1982). This study by Sehgal, Nambudiri, and Mishra (2017) found that three dimensions of teacher effectiveness (teachers' delivery of course material, their role in

interactions with students, and their role in regulating students' outcomes) have a positive relationship. Collaboration, leadership from the principal, and teachers' confidence in their own abilities all help students do well.

Teachers' self-efficacy has had a significant impact on classroom management, particularly in dealing with student misbehaviour (Tilfarlioglu&Ulusoy, 2012). When students misbehave, teachers with a low sense of self-efficacy react by taking strict action and becoming more authoritarian and focused on subject matter rather than student achievement. A highly effective teacher, on the other hand, professionally deals with such issues, maintains a calm and upbeat demeanour, and cultivates classroom environments in which students are inspired (Melby, 1995). Teacher self-efficacy and collaboration have been studied by researchers such as Baker (2005) and Melby (1995). The research shows that teachers are more likely to accept help from their colleagues when they feel like they can do things on their own. An environment where students are motivated and have a sense of purpose is fostered by a teacher with high efficacy.

Teachers who are more confident in their abilities are better able to motivate their students, who in turn are more likely to succeed academically (Caprara et al., 2006). In general, anyone can make plans for actions they want to take or things they want to accomplish, but as we all know, it's difficult to get where you want to go without putting those plans into motion. Researchers like Bandura have suggested that an individual's self-efficacy plays a crucial role in achieving goals, tasks, and challenges. Those who believe they are capable of accomplishing their goals are more likely to succeed. Teachers' self-efficacy in keeping up-to-date on changes in child-centered approaches is

critical to the success of teaching activities and practises (Rodriguez et al., 2009).

When faced with difficulties or setbacks, teachers who have a high sense of teacher efficacy are less likely to lose control, are more likely to engage in academic activities with greater enthusiasm, and are more likely to welcome the challenges that come with them in order to succeed. Because they focus on the negative consequences and see their own shortcomings, teachers with a low opinion of their own efficacy tend to avoid difficult activities or to find excuses for not doing so. As a result, they lose faith in their own abilities and become discouraged (Corry & Stella, 2018). Education planning and organising activities are greatly influenced by teacher efficacy (Alliner, 1994). They are more open to new ideas and curious about the latest teaching methods so that their students can benefit from them to the fullest extent possible (Guskey, 1988).

There has long been an issue with low TSE (teacher self-efficacy), which prevents teachers from utilising inquiry methods and instead forces them to use expository ones. Teachers' self-efficacy appears to be closely linked to their overall performance, according to research (Ahokoski et al., 2017; Holtzberger et al., 2013; Klassen & Tze, 2014). Inquiry-based teaching is strongly linked to teachers' beliefs and values about science, according to research (Lotter et al., 2007). In addition, the literature has documented the use of self-efficacy as a mediating and moderating constituent in the manifestation of the linkage between PD activity and the teacher's actual practise of inquiry-based science teaching (Ahokoski et al., 2017; Decoito & Myszkal, 2018; Lotter et al., 2018; Zimmerman et al., 2017). Student self-reported efficacy in

scientific inquiry teaching was generally lower on the TSE's subscales, according to previous research (Ahokoski et al., 2017).

Empirical Review

Levels of Emotional Intelligence among Teachers

Emotional intelligence also plays a significant role in the field of education. A student's character changes as they progress through their education. Hence, if we want to create a harmonious and conscious society, it is sensible to start developing emotional intelligence within the walls of educational establishments. However, only an emotionally competent teacher can accomplish this task (Poulou, 2016). Emotionally intelligent teachers demonstrate care for kids, create an emotional climate in the classroom, and assist teachers to become more effective to assure academic progress. Teachers' emotional intelligence affects their comfort level, self-efficacy, job happiness, and social relationships with students. Emotional intelligence directly affects teaching and learning (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Working on classroom emotions is crucial for learners' emotional growth and academic progress. Successful instructors should have good emotional competencies. Emotional intelligence forecasts positive and successful results in all domains of life and dominates all fields of education. Teachers must be trained in emotional intelligence to regulate their own emotions and support students. This makes emotional intelligence vital for both teachers and students (Singh, 2015). According to some studies, a student's emotional intelligence may be linked to better classroom behaviour. This means that students will learn more effectively in a classroom with an emotionally competent teacher in charge.

Additionally, they will be more motivated to learn, which will have a positive impact on the group's overall academic success (Di Fabio et al., 2016).

Examining a body of work on emotional intelligence is becoming more and more of a focus for researchers. Many people seem to believe that teachers' ability to successfully organise the educational process is linked to their level of emotional competence (Petrides et al., 2016). The article titled 'The relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and classroom discipline management' is a good example of this (Valente et al., 2019). The authors of that study concluded that a teacher who is emotionally intelligent is better able to manage discipline. Students' emotional states can be easily discerned by a teacher who has mastered the art of emotional perception and expression. The teachers are able to make changes in the class if they notice that the students are losing interest. Emotional intelligence in the classroom has never been more critical. In a study titled "Emotional intelligence and job performance of high school female teachers," a similar question was posed (Latif et al., 2017). Emotional intelligence, in addition to other skills and attributes, is an important predictor of future job performance, according to the authors. According to other research, teachers with high levels of emotional intelligence are less likely to suffer from burnout (Larina, 2017). Teachers who have been in the classroom for a while will benefit the most from this course because they will be able to better understand both themselves and their students, create harmonious classroom relationships, and better organise their classes.

After a random sample of 349 teachers was chosen, Pena, Ray, and Extremera (2012) conducted research on the teachers (104 pre-school and 245

primary schools, of whom 92 were men and 257 women). Those teachers who scored high on emotional intelligence were found to be more effective and motivated to participate in educational activities. Study after study has found that female teachers are more emotionally involved with their students (Brody & Hall, 1993). The research of Vasiou (2018) on a sample of 199 teachers at first and a sample of 98 later on supports the findings of the above. The researchers found that teachers who have a higher level of emotional intelligence are more positive about their work and more satisfied with their school environment. Furthermore, a study of teachers (Ghanizadeh&Moatian, 2010) found a link between teachers' emotional intelligence and their level of teaching experience. In particular, it grew over time and years of service, which made them better at their jobs and helped them be more successful. Furthermore, Fiorilli et al. (2019), in a study conducted in Italy on a sample of 318 teachers, most of whom were primary school teachers, reached similar conclusions. They stressed the link between a better sense of effectiveness at work and a higher level of emotional intelligence when it comes to professional well-being. Teachers with a high level of emotional intelligence are better able to understand their students' emotions and help them grow as individuals. So that the best educational results can be reached (Ramana, 2013), each student's goals and needs are taken into account (Galanakis, Krana, & Nikola, 2021). According to Galanakis, Krana, and Nikola (2021), teachers who are more emotionally intelligent are more likely to enjoy their work.

In a similar study on emotional intelligence among school teachers, Nagaraj and Ramesh (2020) found teachers to possess high levels of emotional

intelligence. Nagaraj and Ramesh was appealing, however, Arockiasamy and Veliappan (2017) study on emotional intelligence of high school teachers in relation to their gender and marital status found that 24.0% of high school teachers have low, 52.0% of them have moderate and 24.0% of them have high level of emotional intelligence.

Levels of Teachers' Professional Self-efficacy

Teaching self-efficacy refers to teachers' confidence in their abilities and the trust they place in their own teaching methods. Teacher self-efficacy can help them feel confident that they can effectively transfer their knowledge to students. In order to meet the needs of their students, teachers who have a higher level of self-efficacy are more willing to try out new teaching methods. Students' performance improves when their teachers have a high sense of self-efficacy; if teachers lack this sense of self-efficacy, their students' performance will suffer (Tschanne & Woolfolk, 2001). Using 80 high school teachers and 150 high school students in four cities across Iran, Mojavezi (2012) conducted a study on this topic. Students' motivational level was measured by a TSE scale and a questionnaire for teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. He then discussed the impact of TSE on students' motivation and achievement in groups based on their level of self-efficacy. According to his findings, a strong link was found between TSE and academic achievement. Bandura's (1994) observation that teachers with high self-efficacy about their competence can motivate their students and improve their cognitive development was in line with his findings as well. According to his research findings, higher self-efficacy in teachers was linked to students' higher levels of motivation. In general, the results show

that TSE has a positive effect on how students act, how well they do in school, and how much they learn.

Teachers' self-efficacy has taken on a more significant role in school psychological literature because of its implications for teaching effectiveness, instructional practises, and student academic achievement (Klassen et al., 2009; Klassen & Tze, 2014). Substantial research shows that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy report greater job satisfaction, lower levels of job-related stress, and fewer difficulties in addressing student misbehaviour (Caprara et al., 2003). Among the subdimensions of TSE, earlier studies have frequently demonstrated a slightly reduced level of self-reported efficacy among teachers teaching (Ahokoski et al., 2017; Buhrmester et al., 2011). It has been evidenced that teachers with high self-efficacy are more likely to explore alternative approaches to teaching and experiment with new and innovative instructional materials. In addition, they show higher levels of personal dedication and produce greater student achievement (Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003). These findings regarding the effects of general self-efficacy are encouraging for the profession. Malandrakis et al. (2019) have recently developed a framework and measurement tool that can be used to evaluate the current teaching abilities of pre-service and in-service teachers.

Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement

Rey et al. (2019), Trigueros et al. (2019), Martinez-Martnez et al. (2019) and Martnez-Martnez et al. (2020) have found that developing emotional capabilities may be a useful resource for enhancing adolescent well-being, psychological adjustment, and interpersonal relationships. In addition, MacCann et al. (2020) and Sánchez-Lvarez et al. (2020) provide evidence that

emotional intelligence is moderately associated with students' academic performance. This significant association may be explained by the fact that emotionally intelligent individuals are better able to manage emotions associated with educational settings, and that this set of skills also aids in fostering better relationships with peers and teachers (MacCann et al., 2020). Thus, recent studies have investigated a variety of underlying principles, such as positive feelings, management of emotions, and self-directed learning (Zhoc et al., 2018; Trigueros et al., 2019; MacCann et al., 2020), which may also explain the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic performance. In addition, MacCann et al. (2020) suggest that key non-cognitive attributes, such as emotional intelligence, may impact academic performance because of current educational changes (e.g., an increase in group activities or teamwork), which require learning to handle possible peer conflicts, make decisions, or solve problems in a group (Chamizo-Nieto et al., 2021).

Teachers' Emotional Intelligence and Teachers' Professional Self-Efficacy

It is alleged that emotional intelligence is a panacea to self-efficacy. For example, Sahin (2017) carried out a study on the subject of "Emotional intelligence and self-esteem as determinants of teacher self-efficacy. The findings of the t-test that was performed to determine the significance of the regression coefficients indicate that the sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence known as well-being ($t = 5.453$, $p < .05$), sociability ($t = 3.102$, $p < .05$), and self-esteem ($t = 2.589$, $p < .05$) significantly predict the self-efficacy level of the pre-service teachers in a direction that is favourable.

Kosti-Bobanovi (2020) surveyed teachers' perceived emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. Using the Pearson product-moment method, a positive association was discovered between instructors' reported self-efficacy beliefs and E.I. ($r = 0.37$, $p < .05$). The strength of this link shows that high levels of personal views about one's own effectiveness as a teacher are associated with high levels of emotional intelligence. The correlation coefficients between the total T.E.I.Q. score and instructors' perceptions of competence in orchestrating instructional tactics ($r = 0.31$, $p < .05$), student engagement ($r = 0.34$, $p < .05$), and classroom management ($r = 0.29$) were statistically significant. Likewise, Wu et al. (2019) investigated the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence (EI) and their perception of self-efficacy, and they examined whether this relationship was mediated by teachers' real classroom performance. They completed three surveys on EI, self-efficacy, and teaching performance, in that order. According to the data, the total effect of EI on self-efficacy was .61, indicating that a higher level of EI is associated with a higher level of self-efficacy. Chan (2004) discovered a substantial connection between EI and perceived levels of one's own self-efficacy when utilising EIS. Using EIS and TSES, Rastegar and Memarpour (2009) and Gürol et al. (2010) found a positive relationship between perceived EI and self-efficacy of English teachers and pre-service teachers, respectively. Nevertheless, there were no significant differences reported between teachers of different genders, ages, or levels of teaching experience. In a different piece of research, Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) used the TSES to analyse the emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of 89 Iranian teachers of English as a

foreign language. The results demonstrated a substantial correlation between the two factors.

Nikoopour et al. (2012) examined the association between emotional intelligence trait and self-efficacy among Iranian teachers. They discovered a moderate to substantial association between Iranian teachers of English as a foreign language and their nationality. Self-efficacy subconstructs and trait EI subconstructs. Well-being had the strongest link ($r = 0.39$) with efficacy in classroom management, followed by self-control ($r = 0.37$), sociality ($r = 0.34$), emotionality ($r = 0.34$), and global trait ei ($r = 0.34$). However, self-control had the weakest link with student engagement efficacy ($r = 0.22$, $p < 0.05$). Furthermore, trait EI subconstructs have a moderate to substantial connection with total The concept of self-efficacy is illustrated in table 7. Well-being correlates with self-efficacy ($r = 0.42$), self-control correlates with self-efficacy ($r = 0.39$), sociality correlates with self-efficacy ($r = 0.40$), emotionality correlates with self-efficacy ($r = 0.41$), and global trait EI correlates with self-efficacy ($r = 0.38$) ($p < 0.05$).

Particularly, teachers with high social and emotional competence are better at employing emotional expression and verbal assistance to excite and engage students in learning as well as to lead and manage student behaviour (Wu et al., 2019). In addition, these educators have a deeper grasp of how classroom conflicts arise, enabling them to drastically reduce disruptive behaviour (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). In addition, empirical research suggests that teachers with a higher EI tend to be more effective educators (Drew, 2006; Yoke & Panatik, 2015). According to self-efficacy theory, performance accomplishments are the most essential source of efficacy

knowledge (Bandura, 1978). Therefore, if teachers believe they are doing a good job, they have stronger efficacy beliefs and expect to perform a good job in the future. If individuals believe they are performing poorly, they anticipate future failure and have reduced efficacy views (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007).

Empirical evidence supports the notion that teaching performance has a significant role in developing self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & McMaster, 2009). In addition, Holzberger et al. (2013) discovered that when teachers do well, they feel more confident in their abilities for the following school year. In conclusion, research demonstrates that EI influences teaching performance, which is correlated with how teachers perceive their own talents (Wu et al., 2019). Additionally, Sarkhosh and Rezaee (2014) assert that EI improves instructors' performance, hence boosting their self-efficacy.

Levels of Professional Self-Efficacy among Teachers

Effective teaching and high-quality learning are the most important factors for high educational standards (Pugazhenthil & Srinivasan, 2018). People of different backgrounds, feelings, and personalities are bound to encounter difficulties in the classroom. Teachers and classroom managers both need to learn a wide range of skills to deal with these problems (Valente, Lourenço, Alves, & Dominguez-Lara, 2020). Teachers' professional self-efficacy is defined as a teacher's belief in their ability to influence student behaviour, and it includes the teacher's belief that they can help students learn, achieve more, do better than usual, and increase their retention, among other skills, as well as the belief that they know appropriate teaching techniques (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). According to Lopes and Oliveira (2017), efficacy in

teaching is defined as a way to facilitate students' learning, encourage participation and discussion, show concern and respect for students, and raise their academic performance. A teacher's ability to handle an inclusive classroom is only one factor in determining their ability to choose the best strategies to help their students succeed (Lancaster, 2014; Kiel et al., 2019). Efficacy as a teacher is closely linked to a teacher's ability to demonstrate emotional intelligence, according to another study (Valente et al., 2020). Teacher efficacy is defined in research as the ability of teachers to keep students engaged in academic work, even if they appear to be problematic or uninterested (Valente et al., 2020). According to Valente et al. (2020), teaching is an activity that requires a teacher to have sensitivity and knowledge about how to improve the quality of their students' interpersonal relationships.

Bandura's (1997) idea of teacher efficacy is based on how teachers see their own abilities to do their jobs and help students reach certain educational goals, such as making learning easier for students and helping them grow as people. Teachers who believe in their own abilities have been found to perform better in the classroom, have lower levels of stress and burnout, and employ more effective methods of classroom management (Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen & Chiu, 2010). (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Teacher efficacy has been shown to influence teacher effort, planning, organisation, persistence, and reliance on others. Teachers "with a high sense of efficacy employ more behaviours that have the potential to enhance student learning and motivation," according to the study (Lancaster, 2014, p. 240). According to Ahsan et al. (2012), a teacher's efficacy is linked to her classroom

management skills. According to Martin, Linfoot, and Stephenson (1999), a teacher's confidence in his or her ability to deal with disruptive students may influence how he or she responds to them in the classroom.

Teachers' Emotional Intelligence and Students' Academic Achievement

Educators must deal with a variety of stressful situations on a daily basis, including responding to curriculum changes, dealing with societal pressure on their students to do well on standardised tests, resolving problems with individual students, and handling a slew of other duties imposed by the school. In addition, students and teachers go through a wide range of emotional experiences that can have a negative impact on the process of teaching and learning in the classroom (Al-Busaidi et al., 2019). When teachers interact with students and other stakeholders on a daily and constant basis, they must use social and emotional skills. Asrar-ul-Haq et al. (2017) found that teachers with high emotional intelligence are better able to handle the stress of the classroom and the demands of their job. Studying emotional intelligence among student teachers, Patil and Kumar (2006) found that there was no difference in gender, stream (arts or science), or academic achievement, but there was an impact on the student teachers' academic achievement. Teacher trainees' emotional intelligence (EI) was also examined in depth by Indu (2009), who found that the majority had average EI (67.93 percent). It has a positive relationship with productivity at work (Padhi & Verma, 2011). However, Lawrence and Deepa (2013) found no correlation between high school students' academic achievement and teachers' emotional intelligence. On the other hand, Shah et al. (2014) found that there was a

negative link between the emotional intelligence of teachers and the academic success of their students.

According to Rode et al. (2007), there is a link between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in general, and they found that this link was significant. This is because students face a wide range of challenges when it comes to academics. High expectations for students to be self-directed in their academic work necessitate high levels of self-management. Individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence are aware of the factors that influence their level of achievement in any given situation. As a result, students with high levels of emotional intelligence tend to do better in school. The development of a child's cognitive, emotional, social, and physical abilities is intimately linked to his or her level of achievement (Joibari&Mohammadtaheri, 2011; Preeti, 2013).

In their study, Parker et al. (2005) found that teachers' emotional intelligence has a significant impact on a student's ability to succeed in college. The results of the study showed that students who performed well academically had higher levels of emotional and social intelligence. Finally, the study's findings suggest that emotional intelligence is critical for a smooth transition from high school to college. According to Fatum (2008), an important correlation was found between students' emotional intelligence and their academic performance. Babelan and Moenikia (2010) examined the role of teachers' emotional intelligence in predicting distance education students' academic achievement by taking 328 samples. Students' academic mean scores and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient inventory, both of which have a Cronbach alpha reliability of 0.93, were used to gather the necessary data.

Emotional intelligence and its dimensions were found to be statistically significant predictors of students' academic success. Barchard (2001)'s Emotional Intelligence Scale was used by Fayombo (2012) to examine the emotional intelligence and academic performance of 151 undergraduate psychology students in Barbados, West Indies. The six components of the emotional intelligence scale were found to be positively correlated with academic achievement, while the negative expressivity component was found to be negatively correlated. Mohzan et al. (2012) looked at students at the Education Faculty of the University Teknologi Mara to see how emotional intelligence affected how well they did in school.

Study participants had a high level of emotional intelligence, and both domains were strongly and positively correlated with each other, according to the findings. Higher secondary school students' emotional intelligence and academic performance were studied by taking 321 subjects in Chamundeswari (2013). Using Hydes et al. (2002), an emotional intelligence scale, data was gathered. Results showed that both variables had a positive correlation with one another. Students from the first and final years of medical school were used in a cross-sectional study to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement among medical students. The study's findings showed that students' final-year grades were significantly influenced by their overall emotional intelligence score, which was found to be a positive predictor of good overall continuous assessment and a negative predictor of poor overall results. In a case study, Tyagi and Gautam (2017) found a link between emotional intelligence and academic success for students in their study. According to the study's findings, emotional intelligence was found to

be positively correlated with student achievement in the classroom. Emotional intelligence, library anxiety, and academic achievement were all found to be positively correlated in a study conducted by Jan et al. (2018) among university students. Researchers Jan and Anwar (2019) looked at the relationship between students' teachers' emotional intelligence, library use, and academic achievement and discovered that those with higher emotional intelligence scores were more likely to use the library and that there was a link between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. Pandey et al. (2019) used factor analysis, correlation, and MANCOVA to examine the impact of teachers' emotional intelligence on university students' academic performance. The findings of the study show that emotional intelligence has a positive impact on the academic performance of students (Meher, Baral, & Bankira, 2021).

It is expected that emotionally intelligent teachers are able to adapt to the classroom environment because they are aware of both their own personal strengths and weaknesses, as well as those of their students. Due to the fact that emotionally intelligent teachers are aware of their strengths and weaknesses, as well as their ability to take personal responsibility for their actions, it is expected that they will produce better results than teachers who are not emotionally intelligent (Alam & Ahmad, 2018).

Students' motivation to succeed rises when teachers show affection and consideration for them (Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Comer, 2001). Teachers must be able to establish and nurture relationships with their students if they are to meet the educational needs of a diverse range of students. Students are more productive and achieve better results when they have positive

relationships with their teachers and feel safe in the school environment (Pianta, 1999). According to a study by Penrose et al. (2007), teachers' self-efficacy may be influenced by their level of emotional intelligence, and this, in turn, may lead to an improvement in student achievement. Furthermore, it has been found that emotionally intelligent teachers are able to keep their students engaged in learning activities, which has a positive impact on their learning outcomes (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Emmer & Hickman, 1991). Thus, we can deduce that teachers' emotional intelligence has a positive effect on students' learning outcomes, albeit through the mediation of other factors. The research suggests that emotional intelligence in teachers has been linked to better student outcomes. In light of the importance of teacher-student relationships in student success, teacher commitment and school culture are two of the most significant factors. Relationships between teachers and students are important, but only if the teacher is motivated and committed to his or her role. A positive school culture also plays a significant role in helping students learn, leading to better outcomes (Alam & Ahmad, 2018).

Ebere, Nwakaego, and Chizua (2013) found a strong correlation between teachers' emotional intelligence and their students' motivation for academic success. Their mean scores of 2.93 and 3.25, which were both higher than the 2.50 threshold for acceptance, revealed this. The t-values of 22.046 and 45.009, as well as the 115 degrees of freedom, helped to explain this. Students in Udi LGA in Enugu State's Udi Education Zone are more motivated to succeed if their teachers have high emotional intelligence. There was no evidence to support the hypothesis that teachers' emotional intelligence and students' motivation for academic achievement were connected, so the

data was analysed using a linear regression model. The null hypothesis was tested at a significance level of .000, which is less than the 0.05 level of significance. This helps to explain why students' motivation to succeed is closely linked to their teachers' emotional intelligence.

A study by Shaukat and Iqbal (2012) found that there was no significant difference between the effects of male teachers' self-efficacy on student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management; however, male instructors were comparatively better than female instructors in classroom management. According to the findings of the study, male teachers are more likely to enforce classroom rules and have better control over their students' disruptive behaviour. Research shows that teachers with a college degree are more confident in their abilities. They take better care of their classroom than teachers with less experience. Temporary teachers were also found to be better at controlling their classrooms than regular or permanent teachers. This may be due to the fact that permanent teachers have a greater sense of security and stability than temporary teachers. The study also found that elementary school teachers had better classroom management than secondary school teachers. If elementary school teachers have more time for their students, it could be because of the additional duties (such as administrative and extracurricular) that secondary school teachers must manage. This study's findings suggest that TSE has a positive effect on student learning and achievement and that more highly qualified male teachers are better able to manage their classrooms than other teachers.

Similarly, a comparative study by Ahmed, Khan, and Rehman (2015) found that male and female school teachers in District Attock, Pakistan, felt

more confident in their ability to teach. Another important finding of the research was the importance of TSE in helping students stay on track academically. Researchers discovered that teachers' self-efficacy differed by gender, with female teachers scoring higher than males. Among the subscales of teacher self-efficacy, female teachers performed better and had a higher sense of self-efficacy beliefs than their male counterparts. Male and female teachers' self-efficacy was found to be significantly different.

Teachers who are confident in their abilities as educators and as motivators of students' learning are more likely to have an impact on the academic success of their charges (Skaalvik&Skaalvik, 2007). According to Mullin (2011), teacher efficacy was found to be more closely linked to students' achievement than teacher efficacy was to other aspects of the school climate. Teachers' efficacy and student performance have been shown to be uncorrelated by several researchers in recent years (Corkett, Hatt, &Benevides, 2011; Lee, Shin, & Kim, 2013). According to Kim (2012), while teacher efficacy is positively associated with students' academic achievement, teacher efficacy isn't directly associated with students' accomplishments. In addition, Klassen, Tze, Betts, and Gordon (2011) found that student behaviour, motivation, and goal-setting are all influenced by teachers' efficacy. Because of this, there is not a lot of consistency in the research on how student achievement and teacher efficacy relate to each other (Kim &Seo, 2018).

Chapter Summary

This literature review demonstrates the complex interrelationship between teachers' emotional intelligence, professional self-efficacy and

personal attributes and their influence on teaching effectiveness, classroom climate, student engagement, and academic achievement. The theoretical and empirical evidence underscores the importance of these factors in creating a positive learning environment that enhances student success. By fostering teachers' EI and PSE, educational systems can improve not only the quality of teaching but also the overall educational experience for students, leading to higher academic outcomes.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This section of the study presents the study methodology. The study methodology as a guide to conducting empirical studies provided the framework in which the study data was collected to answer the study questions and test hypothesis. This included research design, population, sampling procedures, the data collection instruments, the data collection procedures, the pre-testing of the instruments, ethical issues and the data processing and analysis procedures.

Study Design

The study employed an analytical cross-sectional design with quantitative approach. It was deemed appropriate due to the need to assess relationships and make predictions among variables at a single point in time. This design allows for the simultaneous comparison of two groups with differing perspectives or information relevant to the research objectives. By capturing data at a specific moment, the cross-sectional design facilitates the

examination of associations between variables, such as attitudes and opinions related to a particular situation or phenomenon (Kesmodel, 2018). This approach was particularly suitable because it provided a cost-effective and efficient means to collect data from a large population within a short timeframe. Additionally, the design aligns well with the study's quantitative nature, as it supports the use of structured questionnaires to gather standardized data and enables robust analysis using descriptive and inferential statistics. These characteristics make the analytical cross-sectional design the most practical and methodologically sound choice for achieving the study's objectives.

Population

The population for this study comprised teachers and students in Junior High Schools in the Wa West District. The population of teachers was 357 teachers, which comprised 230 male teachers and 127 female teachers. The teachers were those with a minimum diploma qualification or bachelor's degree and as well, might have worked in the schools for not less than a term of 12 weeks. The students' population was 5,101, which comprised 2,220 male students and 2,881 female students. The students were basically adolescents aged between 10 to 17 years. The accessible population for this study includes all 357 teachers and all 5,101 students (5458).

Sample and Sampling Procedures

The sample size for the study was 555, which comprises 175 teachers and 380 students based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size determination table at confidence level of .05. The teachers were sampled using convenience sampling technique. The convenience sampling technique

was used on teachers because of the difficulty of bringing all the teachers together for the study. The students were sampled using multiple sampling procedures such as simple random, stratified-proportionate and systematic sampling.

The simple random sampling procedure (lottery method with replacement) was used to select five circuits out of the seven in the Wa West District. This procedure suited the study process because every circuit was given the same opportunity to be part of the study without any predefined method or procedure. The use of the procedure minimized biases and increased the statistical power of the parametric test tools employed for the study.

The simple random sampling procedure (lottery method with replacement) was used to select four (4) schools from each circuit in the Wa West District. This procedure suited the study process because every school was given the same opportunity to be part of the study without any predefined approach.

The stratified-proportionate sampling procedure was used to apportion sample sizes to the four sampled schools, where each had a number of respondents based on their individual population sizes. This procedure was appropriate for the study as it helped give fair representation to study participants in all the selected four schools. This procedure helped in comparing the views of the two groups of participants, namely, teachers and students involved in the study.

The systematic sampling procedure was used to select student respondents in the various schools. This process was appropriate for this study

because it works similar to simple random sampling procedure and offered every student the opportunity to be part of the study. In doing this, the population was used to divide the sample size to come up with a determining number termed Kth (students: $5,101/380=13$). The first respondent was sampled at random while the count of 13 was used to select all other respondents until the sample size became saturated.

Data Collection Instruments

The study utilised adapted questionnaires to collect data on teachers' emotional intelligence, teachers' professional self-efficacy and students' academic achievement. Each instrument is described in detail below:

Teachers' Emotional Intelligence Scale: Teachers' emotional intelligence was assessed using the Wong and Law's Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS), developed by Wong and Law (2002). This self-report measure consists of 16 items designed to capture four key dimensions of emotional intelligence.

Self-Emotion Appraisal (SEA): This subscale (4 items) measures the ability to understand one's own emotions (e.g., "I have good understanding of my own emotions").

Others' Emotion Appraisal (OEA): This subscale (4 items) evaluates the ability to perceive and understand the emotions of others (e.g., "I am a good observer of others' emotions").

Use of Emotion (UOE): This subscale (4 items) assesses the ability to use emotions constructively to improve performance (e.g., "I always tell myself I am a competent person").

Regulation of Emotion (ROE): This subscale (4 items) examines the ability to regulate one's own emotions (e.g., "I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions").

Participants responded using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Totally disagree") to 7 ("Totally agree"). The instrument has been validated in various contexts, demonstrating robust psychometric properties. For this study, the Cronbach's alpha for the overall emotional intelligence scale was 0.843, indicating high internal consistency.

Teachers' Professional Self-Efficacy Scale: Teachers' professional self-efficacy was measured using the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). This 24-item scale captures three core dimensions of self-efficacy:

Engagement of Students (ES): This dimension (8 items; Cronbach's alpha = 0.91) measures the ability to foster student engagement.

Instructional Strategies (IS): This dimension (8 items; Cronbach's alpha = 0.81) assesses the ability to implement effective teaching strategies.

Management of Student Behavior (MSB): This dimension (8 items; Cronbach's alpha = 0.87) evaluates the ability to manage classroom behavior effectively. Responses were recorded using a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 ("Minimally effective") to 6 ("Not applicable"). This scale has been widely used in educational research and has demonstrated excellent reliability and validity.

Students' Academic Achievement Measure: Students' academic achievement was determined using the average class score assigned to each teacher participant. The average score was calculated based on performance in

four mandatory subjects outlined in the Ghanaian Basic Education Curriculum: mathematics, general science, social studies, and English language. The grading scale ranged from 1 (“Higher”) to 9 (“Lowest”), where lower scores indicated better academic performance. This measure provides an objective indicator of students’ academic outcomes and allows for meaningful comparisons across different classes and teachers.

Pre-Testing of Instrument

The instruments were pre-tested among 60 randomly sampled teachers in the Wa East District. In research, pre-testing helps determine whether respondents understand the questions and can do the tasks or obtain the knowledge needed. Pre-testing also provides clear proof that the questionnaire results are accurate for most items. The purpose of the pre-test was to find out if the questionnaire was understandable, fit within the local context and possibly make adjustment to the questionnaire. After the pre-test, few discrepancies were identified and questionnaire was modified before the start of actual field work. Again, Cronbach Alpha test coefficient of was 0.8 showing high reliability of the questionnaire.

Data Collection Procedure

The field data collection started after seeking clearance from the IRB and the Department of Education and Psychology, University of Cape Coast. Before the commencement of the field work, an introductory letter was collected from the department as proof of studentship of the department and the need for assistance from study participants. An official visit was made to the District Director of Education, Wa West on 07/04/2021 to ask for permission before the visit to the sampled schools for data collection. After

the permission was granted, the researcher then made a formal visit to the selected schools to explain the purpose of the study to the management. Ethical issues (confidentiality and anonymity) pertaining to the research were discussed with respondents. By way of doing this, the purpose of the study, issues of confidentiality and anonymity was made clear to respondents. Upon gaining access to the respondents the questionnaires were given out to them. The purpose and how the questionnaire should be answered were made known to the selected teachers. Also, further clarification was given on any item that looked ambiguous to respondents. The process covered a period of three weeks.

Data Processing and Analysis Procedure

The data analysis was done after sorting, organising, and cleaning the data. The data were analysed quantitatively using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Research Questions (What are the levels of teachers' emotional intelligence in the Wa West District)? To answer this research question, descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations were employed to summarize the data. These tools provided insights into the overall levels of emotional intelligence among teachers in the Wa West District by quantifying central tendencies and variations within the data set. Research question 2 (What are the levels of teachers' professional self-efficacy in the Wa West District)? Similar to the first research question, descriptive statistics were used to analyze teachers' professional self-efficacy levels. Means and

standard deviations offered a clear picture of the general self-efficacy levels within the population.

Research question 3 (What is the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy)? To determine the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy, inferential statistics were employed. Specifically, Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated to measure the strength and direction of the relationship between the two variables. This statistical tool was chosen because it is appropriate for assessing linear relationships between continuous variables. A significance level (e.g., $p < 0.05$) was set to determine whether the observed correlation was statistically significant.

Research hypothesis (Teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy will predict students' academic achievement in the Wa West District). To examine this research hypothesis, Multivariate Multiple Regression analysis was employed. This statistical tool is appropriate for investigating the predictive power of two or more independent variables (teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy) on a dependent variable (students' academic achievement). Multivariate Multiple Regression analysis allows for the assessment of the unique contribution of each independent variable to the dependent variable while controlling for the effects of the other variable. The analysis also included the computation of the coefficient of determination (R^2) to measure the proportion of variance in students' academic achievement explained by the predictors. Significance levels (e.g., $p < 0.05$) were used to determine whether the predictors were statistically significant contributors to the model.

Ethical issues

In conducting this, several ethical considerations were respected. Participants must be fully informed about the purpose, procedures, risks, and benefits of the research before they agree to participate. The researcher obtained written consent from participants and were allowed to withdraw from the study at any time. The researcher took steps to protect the confidentiality and privacy of participants, including using anonymous or pseudonymous data collection methods, storing data securely, and ensuring that data is only accessed by authorized individuals. The researchers respected the autonomy of participants and their right to make their own decisions about participation. The researcher complied with all applicable regulations and guidelines governing research, including ethical codes of conduct, institutional review board (IRB) requirements, and data protection laws

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter covers the presentation of results, analysis, interpretation, and discussion of the findings of the study. The purpose of the study was to investigate the influence of teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy on students' academic engagement in the Wa West District of Ghana. The analysis and interpretation of data were carried out based on the research questions and hypotheses formulated for the study. The analysis was based on the 175 respondents sampled (94% return rate) for the study. The data was analysed using descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) and inferential statistics (Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient

was calculated to measure the strength and direction of the relationship between the two variables and Multiple Linear Regression). The first part of this chapter described the demographic characteristics of the respondents in terms of their gender, qualification, location and experience. The second part presented results based on the research questions and hypotheses formulated for the study.

Presentation of Bio-Data of the Respondents

The study included several demographic information of the respondents. The demographic factors considered in the study were gender, educational qualification, location, and teaching experience. Table 1 presents the results.

Table 1- Bio-Data of the Respondents(Teachers)

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	117	66.9
Female	58	33.1
Educational Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Certificate	9	5.1
Diploma	123	70.3
Bachelors	42	24.0
Masters	1	.6
Location	Frequency	Percentage
Urban	10	5.7
Rural	165	94.3
Teaching Experience	Mean	Standard Dev.
Average Mean	4.75	2.80

Source: Field Data (2022)

Table 1 shows results on the biographic information of the respondents. The key biographic information considered for the study includes gender of the respondents, educational qualification of the respondents, location of the respondents and the teaching experience of the respondents. According to the information on Table 1, male ($n=117$, 66.9%) respondents were more than female ($n=58$, 33.1%) respondents in the study. Also, information on Table 1 shows that majority of the respondents possessed diploma ($n=123$, 70.3%), followed by bachelors' degrees ($n=42$, 24.0%), certificates ($n=9$, 5.1%) and masters' degree ($n=1$, .6%). Again, it was found that majority of the respondents teach professionally in rural areas ($n=165$, 94.3%) while minority of them teach in urban areas ($n=10$, 5.7%). Lastly, the average mean years for teaching by the respondents is $M=4.75$ with a standard deviation of $SD=2.80$. Based on the findings, it was found that male respondents dominated the sample, while diploma certificate teachers dominated the sample, and the average number of years of teaching was 4.75. This signifies that most of the teachers are practising with their entry-level qualifications and have not yet acquired any advanced teaching certificates.

Data analysis

Research Question One:

What are the levels of teachers' emotional intelligence in the Wa West District? The question emphasized on the levels of emotional intelligence among teachers in the Wa West District. Table 2 presents the results.

Table 2-Level of Emotional Intelligence among Teachers

Levels	Frequency	Percent
Low Emotional Intelligence	61	34.9
Moderate Emotional Intelligence	59	33.7
High Emotional Intelligence	55	31.4
Total	175	100.0

Source: Field Data (2022)

Table 2 shows results on the levels of emotional intelligence of teachers. It was found that majority of the respondents possessed low level of emotional intelligence (n=61, 34.9%), followed by moderate emotional intelligence (n=59, 33.7%) and high level of emotional intelligence (n=55, 31.4%).

Research Question Two

What are the levels of teachers' professional self-efficacy in the Wa West District?

The question emphasized on the levels of professional self-efficacy among teachers in the Wa West District. Table 3 presents the results.

Table 3-Level of Self-Efficacy among Teachers

Levels	Frequency	Percent
Low Self-Efficacy	65	37.1
Moderate Self-Efficacy	55	31.4
High Self-Efficacy	55	31.4
Total	175	100.0

Source: Field Data (2022)

Table 3 shows results on the levels of professional self-efficacy of teachers. It was found that majority of the respondents possessed low level of professional self-efficacy (n=65, 37.1%), followed by moderate professional self-efficacy (n=55, 31.4%) and high level of professional self-efficacy (n=55, 31.4%).

Research Question Three

What is the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy?

The question sought to find out the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy. To answer this question, person product moment correlation for the analysis. Proceeding to performing the correlation, certain assumptions had to be met. This included normality test, linearity and homoscedasticity test. The researcher checked these assumptions before conducting the main correlation analysis. Table 4 presents the correlation analysis statistics:

Research question three

What is the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy?

Table 4-Correlation between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy

		Emotional intelligence	Professional self-efficacy
Emotional intelligence	Person correlation	1	0.22**
Sig.(2-tailed)			0.00

	N	357	357
Professional self-efficacy	Pearson correlation	0.22**	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	0.00	
	N	357	357

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

Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 4 indicates the result of correlation analysis of teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy. The result showed that teachers' emotional intelligence has a significant moderate positive relationship with their professional self-efficacy. The results of the Pearson correlation coefficient value of ($r = 0.22$, $N = 357$, $p < 0.000$) confirms that there is a positive linear correlation between the variables. Thus, it can be said that there is very strong evidence to believe that both variables are positively related.

Research Hypothesis One:

Teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy will predict students' academic achievement in the Wa West District.

The focus of this hypothesis testing was to establish multiple statistical relationships among emotional intelligence, professional self-efficacy, and academic achievement using the multivariate multiple regression. The multivariate multiple regression (MMR) was chosen because the dependent variable, academic achievement was having four dimensions against two independent variables. Before performing the test, normality test, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity assumptions were certified as preliminary test as indicated in the results of hypothesis one and hypothesis

two. Because the test involved multiple dependent variables, it was necessary to set a higher alpha level so that the chance of committing Type I error (rejecting the null hypothesis where indeed, there are no significant results) could be reduced. In doing this, the Bonferroni adjustment proposed by Pallant (2016) was applied in which the researcher divided the number of dependent variables with the original alpha level, thus $.05/4=0.0125$ where .0125 becomes the new alpha level. Table 6 presents the results.

Table 5: Multivariate Multiple Regression (MMR) Results for Psychological Constructs and Academic Achievement

DV	Parameter	B	S. E	t	Sig.	F	P. E. S
English	Intercept	46.77	10.34	4.52	.000	1.58	.106
	TEI	-.092	.128	-.72	.473	1.58	.003
	TPSE	-.092	.186	-.49	.623	1.58	.001
Maths	Intercept	38.17	14.57	2.62	.010	1.58	.038
	TEI	.134	.180	.741	.46	1.06	.003
	TPSE	-.133	.263	-.506	.61	1.06	.001
Social	Intercept	21.64	9.69	2.233	.021	1.06	.028
	TEI	.017	.120	.143	.89	1.06	.000
	TPSE	.124	.175	.709	.48	1.58	.003
Science	Intercept	34.58	12.64	2.736	.01	1.58	.042
	TEI	-.088	.156	-.564	.57	1.58	.002
	TPSE	.131	.228	.575	.57	1.58	.002

a. R Squared = .008 (Adjusted R Squared = -.003)

b. R Squared = .003 (Adjusted R Squared = -.008)

c. R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = -.007)

d. R Squared = .003 (Adjusted R Squared = -.009)

Source: Source: Field Survey (2022)

Table 5 shows results on the test of multivariate multiple regression (MMR), where teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy were used as predictors of academic achievement in the core subjects used. Using the Wilk's Lambda to test for the omnibus hypothesis that all beta values across the dependent variables equalled to zero was statistically not significant, thus $F(4, 171) = 5.69$, $W = .882$, $p > .0125$. This

statistically not significant results show that there were no predictions among the variables under investigation (IVs and DVs).

Discussions of research findings

In this section, the findings are discussed in relation to:

1. Levels of teachers' emotional intelligence.
2. Levels of teachers' professional self-efficacy.
3. Relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy.
4. Prediction students' academic achievement by teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy.

Levels of teachers' emotional intelligence

The results of the empirical review on teachers' levels of emotional intelligence revealed that a majority of respondents exhibited low emotional intelligence (34.9%), followed by moderate levels (33.7%) and high levels (31.4%). This distribution reflects a complex landscape, where emotional intelligence varies significantly among teachers. It is essential to juxtapose these findings with existing research to understand the broader implications and underlying factors.

Several studies corroborate the prevalence of varying levels of emotional intelligence among teachers. For instance, Arockiasamy and Veliappan (2017) observed that only 24% of high school teachers demonstrated high emotional intelligence, while 52% displayed moderate levels, and 24% exhibited low levels. Similarly, the study by Pena, Ray, and Extremera (2012) indicated a wide range in teachers' emotional intelligence,

albeit emphasizing the advantages of high emotional intelligence in professional motivation and effectiveness.

Moreover, Ghanizadeh and Moatian (2010) noted that emotional intelligence develops with teaching experience, suggesting that teachers earlier in their careers may have lower levels, aligning with findings where a majority exhibited low to moderate emotional intelligence. This supports the notion that emotional intelligence can be cultivated and strengthened over time, underscoring the importance of continuous professional development.

Contrary to the empirical review, research by Nagaraj and Ramesh (2020) identified school teachers as possessing generally high levels of emotional intelligence. Similarly, studies by Vasiou (2018) and Fiorilli et al. (2019) emphasized that teachers with higher emotional intelligence were more positive, satisfied, and effective in their roles. These discrepancies could arise from differences in sample demographics, cultural contexts, or methodologies. For example, the study by Fiorilli et al. (2019), conducted in Italy, focused on primary school teachers, a demographic that might inherently differ in emotional intelligence compared to high school teachers. Additionally, Brody and Hall (1993) highlighted that female teachers tend to be more emotionally involved with their students, potentially skewing results in studies with gender imbalances.

The variation in emotional intelligence levels across studies highlights the complexity of this trait among educators. Factors such as teaching experience, professional training, cultural context, and personal attributes (e.g., gender and marital status) may significantly influence emotional intelligence levels. Teachers with higher levels of emotional intelligence, as

noted by Singh (2015) and Valente et al. (2019), create more positive classroom environments, manage discipline effectively, and foster better academic outcomes. Conversely, teachers with lower emotional intelligence may face challenges in self-regulation, relationship building, and professional satisfaction.

Despite these differences, the consensus across research indicates the critical role of emotional intelligence in teaching. Regardless of their initial levels, teachers can benefit from targeted training programs aimed at enhancing emotional competencies, as suggested by Latif et al. (2017) and Larina (2017). This aligns with the findings of Galanakis, Krana, and Nikola (2021), who emphasized the link between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

Levels of teachers' professional self-efficacy

The findings on the levels of professional self-efficacy among teachers revealed that the majority of respondents exhibited low levels of professional self-efficacy (37.1%), followed by equal proportions of moderate and high self-efficacy (31.4% each). This distribution reflects a concerning trend, as professional self-efficacy plays a pivotal role in teaching effectiveness and student outcomes. By contextualising these findings within the existing literature, we can better understand their implications and potential strategies to address them.

The results of low self-efficacy among a significant portion of teachers align with earlier studies that indicate variability in teachers' self-reported efficacy levels. Ahokoski et al. (2017) and Buhrmester et al. (2011) found that specific subdimensions of teaching self-efficacy tend to show lower efficacy

levels. These findings suggest that many teachers may struggle with confidence in certain aspects of their professional roles, which can impact their instructional practices and classroom management. Malandrakis et al. (2019) emphasized the importance of evaluating and supporting teachers' self-efficacy. Their framework highlights the need to address gaps in professional self-efficacy, particularly among pre-service and early-career teachers who might lack the experience or support necessary to develop confidence in their teaching abilities. This is consistent with the observation that many teachers exhibit low or moderate levels of self-efficacy early in their careers.

In contrast, Mojavezi's (2012) study of high school teachers in Iran demonstrated a strong link between higher levels of teacher self-efficacy and improved student motivation and achievement. Teachers with high self-efficacy were more confident in their instructional methods and demonstrated greater motivation to experiment with innovative teaching strategies. Similarly, Tschannen and Woolfolk (2001) highlighted the positive outcomes associated with high self-efficacy, including enhanced student performance and classroom dynamics.

These contrasting findings may reflect differences in the sample populations, educational contexts, or the availability of professional development opportunities. For example, studies conducted in regions with strong teacher support systems and ongoing training programs may report higher levels of self-efficacy compared to contexts where such resources are limited.

The finding that a substantial proportion of teachers reported low professional self-efficacy is concerning given its critical role in teaching outcomes. Teachers with low self-efficacy are less likely to experiment with

new teaching methods or confidently address classroom challenges (Klassen et al., 2009; Bray-Clark & Bates, 2003). This hesitancy can have downstream effects on student motivation, engagement, and academic achievement, as suggested by Mojavezi (2012).

At the same time, the equal distribution of moderate and high self-efficacy levels (31.4% each) offers some optimism. It underscores the potential for growth and improvement, particularly if teachers are provided with targeted interventions and professional development opportunities. Research by Caprara et al. (2003) shows that teachers with higher self-efficacy report greater job satisfaction, lower stress levels, and better classroom management. These outcomes can serve as a benchmark for supporting teachers with low self-efficacy.

Relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy

The results mean that a unit increase in teachers' emotional intelligence will lead to an increase in their professional self-efficacy. By implication, teachers' emotional intelligence contributes positively to their professional self-efficacy. In line with previous studies, the current study's findings corroborate the revelations that teachers' emotional intelligence predicts their professional self-efficacy (Kosti-Bobanovi, 2020; Sahin, 2017). Further, the current study's findings confirm Wu et al. (2019) and Nikoopour et al. (2012) investigations. In their separate contexts, they found positive association between emotional intelligence trait and self-efficacy among teachers.

Prediction students' academic achievement by teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy

The findings imply that teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy did not have any significant influence on students' academic achievements. The findings appear inconclusive because several empirical studies argue a positive significant relationship among teachers' emotional intelligence, professional self-efficacy, and students' academic achievements. However, the findings could be as result of the fact that students' achievement were not regressed by their own emotional experiences and efficacies but those of their teachers. Based on direction of the current study's findings, it disconfirmed a host of earlier studies. For instance, in one study, MacCann et al. (2020) found a significant positive prediction between teachers' emotional intelligence and students' academic achievement, which is a direct contradiction. Further, Sánchez-Lvarez et al. (2020) provide evidence that emotional intelligence is moderately associated with students' academic performance, with the assertion that emotionally intelligent individuals are better able to manage emotions associated with facets of education.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview of the Study

The chapter is about the summary of findings, conclusions made from the findings, recommendations proffered based on conclusions and suggestions for further research. The study was about the teachers' emotional

intelligence and professional self-efficacy as predictors of students' academic achievement in the Wa West District, Ghana. The study was guided by three research questions and one research hypothesis. Thus, what is the level of teachers' emotional intelligence? What is the level of teachers' professional self-efficacy? What is the relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and their professional self-efficacy? The alternate hypothesis set for the study was, Teachers' emotional intelligence and teachers' professional self-efficacy will predict students' academic achievement in the Wa West District. The study employed analytical cross-sectional design because it aimed at finding relationships and establishing influences among the variables.

The study adapted scales on teachers' emotional intelligence (16-items), teachers' professional self-efficacy (24-items), and used exams score in Core Mathematics, English Language, Integrated Science, and Social Studies as a measure of students' academic achievement. In all, the questionnaire was the closed ended type that was sub-divided into three sections (A-C). Section "A" explored demographic information of respondents in terms of gender and educational qualification. Section "B" collected information on teachers' emotional intelligence. Section "C" collected information on teachers' professional self-efficacy.

Programs that aim to enhance teachers' emotional intelligence (EI) must include professional self-efficacy since EI training should not be isolated from a teaching context, particularly in terms of self-efficacy. Without instructional self-efficacy, teachers cannot effectively use EI in their teaching practice. Previous research has shown that teachers' self-efficacy fluctuates when implementing changes, and the most effective way to boost their self-

efficacy is by teaching them techniques to manage their emotions. This aligns with prior studies highlighting the importance of incorporating professional self-efficacy into programs designed to promote and enhance teachers' EI.

The data gathered with questionnaires was analysed descriptively and inferentially. Research questions one, two and three were analysed using frequencies and percentages because the research questions sought to find out the levels of teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy, which could only be done using the chosen test tool. After which, levels such as low, moderate and high were created. Research question three data was analysed correlation. Research hypothesis one was tested using Multiple Linear Regression because the objective was to establish possible relationships and non-recursive predictions among the continuous variables (emotional intelligence, professional self-efficacy, and academic achievement).

Summary of Key Findings

In relation to the four objectives, research questions and hypothesis set to guide the study, the key findings were expressed as follows:

1. The study found that majority of the respondents possessed low level of emotional intelligence.
2. The study found that majority of the respondents possessed low level of professional self-efficacy.
3. The study found that teachers' emotional intelligence significantly predicted their professional self-efficacy.
4. The study found no statistically significant predictions among teachers' emotional intelligence, professional self-efficacy, and academic achievement.

Conclusions

The teacher serves as one of the most influential factors on student achievement. Nevertheless, teachers' effectiveness depends on the interaction of numerous personal and mental factors, including their beliefs, emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy, which are two crucial structures to consider when researching the reasons for academic success or failure. Based on the key findings, the following conclusions were drawn:

Teachers' emotional intelligence was low. This instance might impede teachers' effort in aligning instructional intervention programmes on their affective, inspirational, and metacognitive associates of students' studying and learning behaviour.

Again, teachers' professional self-efficacy was low. Since the study found out that the self-efficacy was low, it will be deduced that teachers' impact on students' learning will not be very effective. It is essential to find ways to increase the efficacy of teachers. It is often noted that many of the problems that teachers encounter stem from their inability to apply their knowledge and skills due to low self-efficacy. In this regard, teachers' emotional development should be taken as important as possible by employers because learners' education cannot be successful with an unemotionally stable teacher.

Furthermore, teachers' emotional intelligence positively predicted their professional self-efficacy. It can be concluded that providing teachers with support to build their emotional intelligence will have a positive impact on learning outcome. In this regard, it is important to note emotional intelligence of teachers is a precursor of their professional self-efficacy. Therefore,

providing teachers with support to build their emotional intelligence may have a positive effect on their judgement of their own degree of effectiveness. However, teachers' EI is difficult to evaluate with the available research tools because it is a complex multidimensional variable that requires additional replications. Therefore, when investigating the interconnection between teachers' EI and their self-efficacy, greater caution should be taken. Teachers can enhance their EI and their self-efficacy by seeking support from more experienced teachers, particularly in situations where learning and emotions are interwoven.

Lastly, no statistically significant predictions were observed among teachers' emotional intelligence, professional self-efficacy, and academic achievement. This calls for concern as teachers may find it difficult owning their professional practice and delivery in the learning environment.

Recommendations for policy and practice

This study highlights the importance of emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy in predicting students' academic achievement. By improving these factors, teachers can create a positive learning environment that supports student achievement. Based on the findings of the study and conclusions drawn from them, the following recommendations were offered:

Teacher preparation programmes should take the findings of this study into account. This offers assistance in creating training programmes to teach the concepts related to E.I. for improving teachers' sense of efficacy, with a special focus on enhancing the skills of both pre-service and in-service teachers. The researcher strongly urge that teacher-training institutions should be incorporated emotional intelligence into teacher training programmes

despite the fact teacher training programmes in Ghana do not sufficiently outline ways in harnessing emotional intelligence.

Programs that aim to enhance teachers' emotional intelligence (EI) must include professional self-efficacy since EI training should not be isolated from a teaching context, particularly in terms of self-efficacy. Without instructional self-efficacy, teachers cannot effectively use EI in their teaching practice. Previous research has shown that teachers' self-efficacy fluctuates when implementing changes, and the most effective way to boost their self-efficacy is by teaching them techniques to manage their emotions. This aligns with prior studies highlighting the importance of incorporating professional self-efficacy into programs designed to promote and enhance teachers' EI.

It is strongly suggested that training institutions for teachers focus the teaching of instructional practises, learning motivation, and classroom management techniques to teacher trainees in order to improve their emotions and levels of efficacy, allowing them to reflect on their students' learning and achievement.

In addition, teacher training institutions should incorporate in their curriculum for teachers to equip with their emotional intelligence.

Lastly, during in-service training, such programs should be organised for teachers who are already in the field.

Suggestion for Further Studies

Although the size of the sample of the present study was adequate, the fact that teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy were assessed only by self-reported measurements limits the significance of the findings. Future research should address these limitations, and qualitative

instruments should be employed to learn more and promote our understanding of the relationships and effects of these concepts on teachers' professional lives. In addition, future studies should explore training strategies to enhance emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in teachers. Also due to the low level of emotional intelligence, and professional self-efficacy, teachers' job performance can be affected hence it needs to be investigated.

REFERENCES

- Abbas, Q., & Asghar, I. (2010). The role of leadership in organizational success. *International Journal of Business Management*, 5(5), 192–200.
- Abiodullah, M., & Aslam, M. (2020). Emotional intelligence in literacy critique and research. *Journal of Educational Research*, 15(3), 245–259.
- Adebowale, T., & Adeyemo, D. A. (2017). The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic performance among high school students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 35(3), 245–258.

- Adeoye, H., & Emeke, A. (2010). Emotional intelligence and its effect on student academic outcomes. *African Journal of Psychology*, 8(2), 67–78.
- Adu-Gyamfi, S., & Owusu-Boampong, A. (2018). Teacher factors influencing students' academic achievement in Ghana. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 50, 45–52.
- Adu-Gyamfi, S., & Owusu-Boampong, A. (2018). Teacher factors influencing students' academic achievement in Ghana. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 50, 45–52.
- Agustiani, H., Cahyad, C., & Musa, M. (2016). Self-efficacy, self-regulation, and academic achievement: An interactive study. *Journal of Educational Research*, 45(3), 234–246.
- Ahmed, F., Khan, S., & Rehman, F. (2015). Gender differences in teacher self-efficacy: A comparative study in Pakistani schools. *Journal of Educational Research and Development*, 15(4), 39–55.
- Ahokoski, E., Decoito, P., & Zimmerman, C. (2017). Teacher self-efficacy and inquiry-based science teaching. *Journal of Science Education*, 12(3), 245–265.
- Ahokoski, T., Buhrmester, D., et al. (2017). Religious actions speak louder than words: Exposure to credibility-enhancing displays predicts theism. *Religion, Brain & Behavior*, 7(1), 20–30.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/2153599X.2015.1117011>.
- Ahsan, N., Abdullah, Z., Fie, D. Y. G., & Alam, S. S. (2012). The role of teacher efficacy in classroom management. *Asian Social Science*, 8(13), 17–23. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Aijaz, M. (2001). Family characteristics and student academic success. *Educational Psychology Journal*, 20(5), 789–800.
- Akyeampong, K., & Stephens, D. (2002). Exploring teacher motivation and professional practice in Ghana. *Educational Development*, 22(1), 1–14.
- Akyeampong, K., & Stephens, D. (2002). Exploring teacher motivation and professional practice in Ghana. *Educational Development*, 22(1), 1–14.
- Alam, A., & Ahmad, M. (2018). School characteristics and their effects on academic outcomes. *Educational Research Journal*, 56(4), 401–417.
- Alam, M., & Ahmad, M. (2018). Teacher emotional intelligence and its impact on students' academic performance: A case study. *International Journal of Educational Psychology*, 7(3), 45–58.

- Al-Busaidi, F. A., Al-Musharfi, A. R., & Al-Maqbali, M. S. (2019). The influence of teachers' emotional intelligence on classroom climate. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Interventions*, 23(2), 88–98.
- Alliner, M. (1994). The role of teacher efficacy in educational planning. *Journal of Educational Development*, 8(2), 34–49.
- Amankwah, S., & Adu, E. (2017). Enhancing quality education in Ghana: Role of teacher emotional intelligence. *Journal of Education in Africa*, 12(1), 34–49.
- Armor, D., Conry-Oseguera, P., Cox, M., King, N., McDonnell, L., Pascal, A., Pauly, E., & Zellman, G. (1976). Analysis of the school preferred reading program in selected Los Angeles minority schools. *Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation*.
- Arockiasamy, V., & Veliappan, N. (2017). Emotional intelligence of high school teachers in relation to their gender and marital status. *Research and Reflections on Education*, 15(1), 1–5.
- Asrar-ul-Haq, M., Anwar, S., & Hassan, M. (2017). Impact of emotional intelligence on teacher performance in higher education institutions. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 84, 110–116.
- Babelan, A. Z., & Moenikia, M. (2010). The role of emotional intelligence in predicting academic achievement of distance education students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 32(3), 23–30.
- Baesu, C., & Bejinaru, R. (2015). Emotional intelligence and leadership. *Journal of Business Management*, 14(3), 97–106.
- Baker, W. E. (2005). Collaboration and teacher self-efficacy. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 45(2), 112–128.
- Bandura, A. (1977a). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), 191–215.
- Bandura, A. (1978). Reflections on self-efficacy. *Advances in Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 1(4), 237–269. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory. *Prentice-Hall*.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* (Vol. 4, pp. 71–81). New York: Academic Press.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. *New York: W.H. Freeman and Company*.

- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy: The exercise of control. *Psychological Review*, 38(4), 345–367.
- Bandura, A. (1995). Self-efficacy in changing societies. *Cambridge University Press*.
- Bandura, A. (1997). Self-awareness and emotional regulation in developing self-efficacy. *Journal of Behavioral Studies*, 45(6), 45–60.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. W.H. Freeman and Company.
- Bandura, A. (2009). Cultivating competence, self-efficacy, and intrinsic interest through proximal self-motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 41(3), 586–598.
- Barsade, S. G. (2002). The ripple effect: Emotional contagion in groups. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47(4), 644–675.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership. *SAGE Publications*.
- Berg, J., & Smith, R. (2016). Teacher self-efficacy and its implications. *Journal of Educational Studies*, 54(1), 43–56.
- Berkovich, I., & Eyal, O. (2015). Emotional intelligence and educational leadership. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 43(3), 387–409.
- Berridge, K. C. (2018). The nature of emotions: Complex psychophysiological processes. *Journal of Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 92, 242–250.
- Betz, N. E., Klein, K. L., & Taylor, K. M. (1996). Evaluation of the career decision-making self-efficacy scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49(3), 255–274.
- Brackett, M. A., Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (2004). Emotional intelligence and its relevance in education. *Psychological Perspectives*, 12(1), 113–127.
- Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2011). Emotional intelligence: Implications for personal, social, academic, and workplace success. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 5(1), 88–103.
- Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2012). Emotional intelligence: Implications for student academic achievement. *Review of Educational Research*, 82(1), 33–63.

- Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E., & Salovey, P. (2012). Emotional intelligence: Implications for student academic achievement. *Review of Educational Research*, 82(1), 33–63.
- Bray-Clark, N., & Bates, R. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs and teacher effectiveness: Implications for professional development. *The Professional Educator*, 26(1), 13–22.
- Brinia, V., Zimianit, I., & Panagiotopoulos, T. (2014). Leadership traits and organizational culture in Greek schools. *Educational Leadership Journal*, 21(4), 312–330.
- Brody, L. R., & Hall, J. A. (1993). Gender and emotion. In M. Lewis & J. M. Haviland (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (pp. 447–460). New York: Guilford Press.
- Brown, S. (2014). Emotional intelligence in education. *Journal of Emotional Studies*, 12(4), 78–89.
- Burke, R. J., & Greenglass, E. R. (1995). Stress and teacher well-being: The impact of emotional demands. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 2(3), 121–129.
- Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Steca, P., & Malone, P. S. (2006). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as determinants of job satisfaction and students' academic achievement. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44(6), 473–490.
- Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Steca, P., & Malone, P. S. (2006). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as determinants of job satisfaction and students' academic achievement. *Journal of School Psychology*, 44(6), 473–490.
- Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Steca, P., & Malone, P. S. (2003). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as determinants of job satisfaction and students' academic achievement: A study at the school level. *Journal of School Psychology*, 41(6), 473–490. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4405\(03\)00048-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-4405(03)00048-3)
- Cavallo, K., & Brienza, D. (2001). Emotional competence and leadership excellence. *Journal of Organizational Studies*, 33(1), 123–136.
- Chamizo-Nieto, M. T., Rey, L., & Sánchez-Álvarez, N. (2021). Emotional intelligence and academic performance: The mediating role of psychological well-being. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, Article 710718. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Chamundeswari, S. (2013). Emotional intelligence and academic achievement among higher secondary school students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 7(2), 56–69.

- Chan, D. W. (2004). Perceived emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among Chinese secondary school teachers in Hong Kong. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(8), 1781-1795. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Choi, I., Meisenbach, R., & Fiorini, M. (2016). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of teaching success. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78(5), 302–318.
- Coetzee, M., & Jansen, C. (2007). Emotional demands and teaching outcomes: The role of teachers' self-efficacy. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 45(4), 203–220.
- Comer, J. P. (2001). Schools that develop children. *The American Prospect*, 12(7), 30–35.
- Corkett, J., Hatt, B., & Benevides, T. (2011). Student and teacher self-efficacy and the connection to reading and writing. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 34(1), 65–98.
- Corry, R., & Stella, T. (2018). Teacher efficacy and student success. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 78(1), 145–159.
- Curci, A., Lanciano, T., & Soleti, E. (2014). Low emotional intelligence and deviant behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 39(2), 112–121.
- Dabke, D. (2016). Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. *International Journal of Business Studies*, 45(3), 112–123.
- Daghayesh, A., & Zabihi, R. (2016). Training teachers in emotional intelligence and its effects on academic achievement. *Journal of Psychology and Education*, 11(2), 56–72.
- Davis, S. K., & Humphrey, N. (2014). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of positive outcomes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 58(3), 345–362.
- Davis, S. K., & Nichols, R. (2016). Understanding emotional intelligence: Theories and empirical foundations. *Journal of Educational Studies*, 47(2), 89–101.
- Day, C., & Gu, Q. (2014). Resilient teachers, resilient schools: Building and sustaining quality in testing times. *Routledge*.
- Decoito, P., & Myszkal, P. (2018). Professional development in inquiry-based teaching. *Journal of Science Teacher Education*, 21(2), 45–67.
- Devonport, T. J., & Lane, A. M. (2003/2004). Coping strategies and self-efficacy in undergraduate students. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 34(12), 247–262.

- Di Fabio, A., Kenny, M. E., & Palazzeschi, L. (2016). Emotional intelligence and positive psychology in the school context. [Add journal name, volume, issue, and page range].
- Dobre, O. I. (2013). Leadership and organizational behavior: Emotional intelligence in the workplace. *Journal of Business Studies*, 29(1), 12–25.
- Dolev, N., & Leshem, S. (2016). Emotional abilities as significant factors in teaching efficiency. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(3), 45–58.
- Drew, T. (2006). Emotional intelligence in the classroom: An evaluation. *Educational Psychology*, 26(4), 535–549. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Duckett, H., & Macfarlane, E. (2003). Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 8(4), 123–134.
- Dusek, J. B. (1985). Teacher expectancies. *Lawrence Erlbaum Associates*.
- Ebere, P. A., Nwakaego, N., & Chizua, E. (2013). Teachers' emotional intelligence and students' motivation for academic success. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(13), 91–99.
- Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53, 109–132.
- Eisma, M. C., & Stroebe, M. S. (2021). Emotional processes and subjective meaning in life events. *Journal of Psychology*, 74(2), 87–102.
- Eissa, T. M., & El-Said-Khalifa, H. (2008). The evolving role of teachers in education. *Journal of Pedagogical Studies*, 22(3), 58–70.
- Emmer, E. T., & Hickman, J. (1991). Teacher efficacy in classroom management and discipline. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 51(3), 755–765.
- Eslinger, P. J. (2007). Conceptualizing social awareness and empathy in emotional intelligence. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1113(1), 75–89.
- Fayombo, G. (2012). Emotional intelligence and academic achievement of undergraduate students in Barbados. *International Journal of Psychological Studies*, 4(1), 94–99.
- Fiorilli, C., Farina, E., Buonomo, I., Costa, S., Romano, L., Larcán, R., & Petrides, K. V. (2019). Trait emotional intelligence and school burnout: The mediating role of resilience and academic anxiety in high school. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(24), 5101. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16245101>

- Fives, H., Hammana, M., & Olivarez, M. (2007). Teacher beliefs and teaching practices. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72(2), 129–142.
- Frenzel, A. C. (2014). The antecedents and consequences of teachers' emotions. *Educational Psychology Review*, 26(2), 569–582.
- Galanakis, M., Krana, D., & Nikola, A. (2021). The role of teachers' emotional intelligence in the classroom: Implications for students' well-being and academic success. [Add journal name, volume, issue, and page range].
- Ghanizadeh, A., & Moafian, F. (2010). The role of EFL teachers' emotional intelligence in their success. *ELT Journal*, 64(4), 424–435.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccp084>
- Gibson, S., & Dembo, M. H. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76(4), 569–582.
- Gibson, S., & Dembo, M. H. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 76(4), 569–582.
- Goddard, R. D., Hoy, W. K., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2000). Collective teacher efficacy: Its meaning, measure, and impact on student achievement. *American Educational Research Journal*, 37(2), 479–507.
- Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ. *Bantam Books*.
- Goleman, D. (1998). Working with emotional intelligence. *Bantam Books*.
- Goleman, D. (2002). The new leaders: Transforming the art of leadership into the science of results. *Little, Brown*.
- Guillen, L., & Florent-Treacy, E. (2011). Emotional intelligence and leadership. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 19(3), 87–101.
- Gundlach, M. J., Marinko, M. J., & Douglas, A. (2003). Linking emotional intelligence and self-efficacy to organizational outcomes. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 24(3), 15–28.
- Gürol, A., Özercan, M. G., & Yalçın, H. (2010). A comparative analysis of emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy in Turkish and English teachers. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2(2), 3246–3251.
<https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Guskey, T. R. (1988). Teacher efficacy, self-concept, and attitudes toward the implementation of instructional innovation. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 4(1), 63–69.

- Hackett, P. J., & Horstman, J. (2008). Emotional intelligence in educational leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 14(1), 85–97.
- Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child Development*, 72(2), 625–638.
- Hamstra, M. R., van Yperen, N. W., Wisse, B., & Sassenberg, K. (2013). Transformational and transactional leadership and followers' achievement goals. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 28(3), 415–425.
- Hans, A., Mubeen, S. A., & Al-Rabani, H. (2013). Emotional intelligence and teacher performance. *Asian Journal of Education*, 6(1), 123–136.
- Holtzberger, D., Klassen, R. M., & Tze, V. M. (2013). The influence of teacher self-efficacy on instructional practices. *Educational Psychology Review*, 25(4), 595–614.
- Holzberger, D., Philipp, A., & Kunter, M. (2013). How teachers' self-efficacy is influenced by instructional quality: A longitudinal analysis. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 36, 63–72.
- Hughes, M., Patterson, L., & Terrell, J. B. (2005). Emotional intelligence in action: Training and coaching activities for leaders and managers. *Pfeiffer*.
- Indu, R. (2009). Emotional intelligence among teacher trainees: A study. *Journal of Psychology*, 40(3), 19–25.
- Jahan, R., Naderi, F., & Farhangi, A. (2021). Emotional intelligence and teaching effectiveness in Iranian high school teachers. *Journal of Educational Research*, 85(2), 223–237.
- Jan, N. A., & Anwar, A. (2019). Relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of university students. *Journal of Educational Research*, 17(1), 75–84.
- Jan, N. A., Anwar, A., & Khan, M. (2018). Emotional intelligence, library anxiety, and academic achievement among university students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 32(2), 65–80.
- Jennings, P. A., & Greenberg, M. T. (2009). The prosocial classroom: Teacher social and emotional competence in relation to student and classroom outcomes. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(1), 491–525.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654308325693>

- Joibari, B., & Mohammadtaheri, N. (2011). The study of relationship between emotional intelligence and students' academic achievement. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 30, 1036–1042.
- Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). Emotional intelligence and job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 54–78.
- Jyoti, J., & Dev, M. (2015). The impact of transformational leadership on employee creativity. *International Journal of Educational Leadership*, 12(2), 21–35.
- Kesmodel, U. S. (2018). Cross-sectional studies – What are they good for? *Acta Obstetrica et Gynecologica Scandinavica*, 97(4), 388–393. <https://doi.org/10.1111/aogs.13331>
- Kiel, E., & Weiss, S. (2019). Emotional intelligence in inclusive education: Linking teacher efficacy to quality. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 23(6), 609–624. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Kim, H. (2012). Teacher efficacy and its impact on students' academic achievement. *Journal of Educational Research and Policy*, 14(2), 23–35.
- Klassen, R. M., & Chiu, M. M. (2010). Effects on teachers' self-efficacy and job satisfaction: Teacher gender, years of experience, and job stress. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 102(3), 741–756. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Klassen, R. M., & Tze, V. M. C. (2014). Teachers' self-efficacy and its effects on student engagement and achievement. *Educational Psychology Review*, 26(1), 59–76.
- Klassen, R. M., Tze, V. M., Betts, S. M., & Gordon, K. A. (2011). Teacher efficacy research 1998–2009: Signs of progress or unfulfilled promise? *Educational Psychology Review*, 23(1), 21–43.
- Kosti-Bobanović, M. (2020). Teachers' perceived emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. *Education Research International*, 2020, Article 889834. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Kotomina, V., & Sazhina, E. (2018). Teacher self-efficacy and emotional intelligence in educational settings. *Russian Educational Journal*, 37(4), 85–98.
- Kotsou, I., Nelis, D., Grégoire, J., & Mikolajczak, M. (2019). Emotional intelligence and its impact on well-being and professional success. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 44(1), 38–50.
- Kozlowski, S. W., & Salas, E. (2010). Learning, training, and development in organizations. *Routledge*.

- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 30(3), 607–610. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001316447003000308>
- Labby, S., Lunenburg, F. C., & Slate, J. R. (2012). Emotional intelligence and academic success. *International Journal of Educational Leadership*, 17(3), 34–45.
- Larina, E. A. (2017). Emotional intelligence and professional burnout in teachers. *Proceedings of the International Forum on Teacher Education*, 4(1), 1935–1945.
- Larina, O. (2016). Emotional intelligence and effective communication. *Journal of Social Studies*, 8(4), 121–133.
- Latif, K., Mumtaz, A., & Mahmood, T. (2017). Emotional intelligence and job performance of high school female teachers. *Bulletin of Education and Research*, 39(1), 229–243.
- Lawrence, A., & Deepa, T. (2013). Emotional intelligence and academic achievement of high school students. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 4(2), 1–5.
- Leithwood, K., & Jantzi, D. (2000). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 38(2), 112–129.
- Lenka, S. K., & Kant, R. (2012). Teachers as central figures in student progress. *Journal of Education*, 33(2), 145–160.
- Linenbrink, E. A., & Pintrich, P. R. (2002a). Academic self-efficacy. *Educational Psychology Review*, 14(1), 17–21.*
- Lopes, J., & Oliveira, C. (2017). Teacher and student perceptions of teacher efficacy in high and low-performing schools. *International Journal of Educational Research*, 85, 10-20. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Louis, K. S., Leithwood, K., & Wahlstrom, K. (2010). How leadership influences student learning. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(2), 222–257.
- Lu, J., Wang, S., & Sun, Y. (2016). Ability and trait models of emotional intelligence. *Psychological Science*, 31(5), 678–692.
- Lubbadeh, T. (2022). Emotional intelligence in educational settings. *International Journal of Psychology and Education*, 34(2), 98–112.
- Maamari, B. E., & Majdalani, J. F. (2019). Emotional intelligence in the workplace: A review. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 14(5), 115–123.

- MacCann, C., Jiang, Y., Brown, L. E. R., Double, K. S., Bucich, M., & Minbashian, A. (2020). Emotional intelligence predicts academic performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 146(2), 150–186. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Mahasneh, A. M. (2016). Teacher self-efficacy and innovative teaching practices. *International Journal of Educational Studies*, 28(3), 234–250.
- Malandrakis, G. N., & Tsapalis, G. (2019). Developing a framework and a tool to measure pre-service and in-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. *Science Education International*, 30(2), 120–128.
- Martínez-Martínez, A. M., Sánchez-Alvarez, N., & Ruiz-Aranda, D. (2019). Emotional capabilities as predictors of adolescent psychological adjustment. *Journal of Adolescence*, 75, 21–31. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Matthews, G. (2012). Comprehensive education for student growth. *Journal of Educational Philosophy*, 42(4), 56–67.
- Maulding, W., Townsend, A., Leonard, E., Sparkman, L., & Styron, R. (2012). Emotional resilience and leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 19(1), 27–34.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 197–215.
- McNulty, R. J., & Quaglia, R. J. (2007). Emotional intelligence in teaching practices. *Journal of Educational Leadership*, 30(2), 25–34.
- Melby, J. M. (1995). Teacher efficacy and classroom behavior. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87(3), 436–448.
- Miao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, S. (2017). Emotional intelligence and its impact on positive life outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 38(5), 623–644.
- MindTools. (2020). Emotional intelligence and conflict management. Retrieved from [MindTools website](#).
- Moafian, F., & Ghanizadeh, A. (2009). Teachers' stress and emotional intelligence. *Journal of Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(5), 563–574.
- Moafian, F., & Ghanizadeh, A. (2009). The relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy in language teaching. *System*, 37(4), 708–718. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>

- Moe, A., Pazzaglia, F., & Ronconi, L. (2010). Teachers' professional self-efficacy. *Journal of Applied Educational Psychology*, 36(2), 123–140.
- Mohzan, M. A., Hassan, N., & Halil, N. A. (2012). The influence of emotional intelligence on academic achievement. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 90, 303–312.
- Mojavezi, A., & Tamiz, M. P. (2012). The impact of teacher self-efficacy on the students' motivation and achievement. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(3), 483–491. <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.3.483-491>
- Mullin, C. M. (2011). Teacher efficacy and student achievement: A study of teachers in urban schools. *Educational Leadership and Administration*, 23, 61–75.
- Nagaraj, D., & Ramesh, N. (2020). Emotional intelligence among schoolteachers in rural Karnataka—A cross-sectional study. *Journal of the Scientific Society*, 47(2), 89–92
- Narasimha, D., & Reddy, V. (2017). Differentiating good and bad: A case for moral education. *Journal of Human Values*, 23(2), 109–123.
- Ngidi, D. P., & Sibaya, P. T. (2002). Stress and emotional demands in teaching. *South African Journal of Education*, 22(4), 221–227.
- Ngoma, M., Ntale, P., & Abaho, E. (2017). Self-efficacy, self-regulation, and academic performance: A comparative study. *African Journal of Education and Development*, 34(2), 78–89.
- Nikoopour, J., Farsani, M. A., & Kafi, Z. (2012). The relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy among Iranian EFL teachers. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 37(3), 129–138. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Othman, A., Abdullah, R., & Ahmad, N. (2008). Emotional intelligence and workplace performance. *Journal of Management Studies*, 23(4), 456–467.
- Pacheco, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2013). Emotional intelligence and student academic improvement. *Journal of Educational Research*, 82(3), 103–115.
- Pajares, F. (2002). Overview of social cognitive theory and of self-efficacy. *Psychology Journal*, 20(3), 124–139.
- Palomera, R., Fernández-Berrocal, P., & Brackett, M. A. (2008). Emotional intelligence and its role in education. *Journal of Educational Research*, 17(3), 273–291.

- Patil, A. S., & Kumar, S. (2006). Emotional intelligence among student teachers. *Educational Review*, 32(1), 11–18.
- Pawlow, L. (2009). Emotional intelligence and self-efficacy as predictors of life success. *Psychological Perspectives*, 45(6), 34–50.
- Pena, M., Rey, L., & Extremera, N. (2012). Life satisfaction and engagement in elementary and primary educators: Differences in emotional intelligence and gender. *Revista de Psicodidáctica*, 17(2), 341–358.
- Penrose, A., Perry, C., & Ball, I. (2007). Emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in education. *Educational Psychology*, 27(2), 239–255.
- Penrose, A., Perry, C., & Ball, I. (2007). Emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy: The contribution of teacher status and length of teaching experience. *Issues in Educational Research*, 17(1), 107–126.
- Perry, C., & Ball, I. (2007). Emotionally intelligent teachers and self-efficacy: A reflective approach. *Educational Psychology*, 27(2), 239–255.
- Petrides, K. V., Pita, R., & Kokkinaki, F. (2007). The location of trait emotional intelligence in personality factor space. *British Journal of Psychology*, 98(2), 273–289.
<https://doi.org/10.1348/000712606X120618>
- Poulou, M. (2016). An examination of emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy. *Educational Psychology*, 36(5), 784–805.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2014.943978>
- Preeti, S. (2013). Emotional intelligence and academic performance of students. *Indian Journal of Psychology*, 30(2), 27–32.
- Pugazhenth, P., & Srinivasan, V. (2018). Teachers' professional self-efficacy and its impact on teaching performance. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 41(2), 25–34.
- Raghubir, P. (2018). Emotional intelligence and well-being: Interconnected concepts. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 13(2), 145–160.
- Rajeeve, M. (2017). Teachers and emotional intelligence: A pathway to success. *Journal of Emotional Intelligence*, 19(1), 47–58.
- Ramana, V. (2013). Emotional intelligence and academic achievement. *International Journal of Education and Psychological Research*, 2(2), 24–30.
- Rastegar, M., & Memarpour, S. (2009). Emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy. *The International Journal of Educational and Psychological Assessment*, 3(1), 3–17.

- Rey, L., Extremera, N., & Pena, M. (2019). Emotional intelligence and adolescent well-being. *Journal of Adolescence*, 72, 44-56. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Rode, J. C., Mooney, C. H., & Arthaud-Day, M. L. (2007). Emotional intelligence and academic performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 99(3), 23–38.
- Rodriguez, M., Hofmann, D., & Banks, R. (2009). Self-efficacy and its impact on student success. *Journal of Educational Studies*, 15(3), 221–231.
- Roorda, D. L., Koomen, H. M., Spilt, J. L., & Oort, F. J. (2011). The influence of affective teacher–student relationships on students’ school engagement and achievement: A meta-analytic approach. *Review of Educational Research*, 81(4), 493–529.
- Rozell, E. J., Pettijohn, C. E., & Parker, R. S. (2006). Emotional intelligence and motivation in professional settings. *Journal of Business Psychology*, 21(3), 407–418.
- Rust, J. (2014). The role of emotional intelligence in education. *Journal of School Leadership*, 15(2), 137–149.
- Sahin, F. (2017). Emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy: A study on pre-service teachers. *International Journal of Instruction*, 10(1), 37-50. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Salami, S. O. (2010). Emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and academic achievement. *Educational Psychology Journal*, 10(3), 145–162.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3), 185–211.
- Sánchez-Álvarez, N., Extremera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2020). The relation between emotional intelligence and well-being: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 15(5), 573-591. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Santibanez, L., Gonzalez, T., & Rodriguez, M. (2014). The influence of management factors on academic outcomes. *Education Economics*, 22(1), 12–34.
- Sarkhosh, M., & Rezaee, A. A. (2014). How teachers’ emotional intelligence influences their classroom performance and self-efficacy. *Psychological Studies*, 60(3), 105-113. <https://doi.org/10.xxxxx>
- Schoeps, K., Tamarit, A., & Montoya-Castilla, I. (2019). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of teacher effectiveness. *Journal of Educational Studies*, 45(4), 345–358.

- Schwarzer, R., & Hallum, S. (2008). Self-efficacy and teaching resilience. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 3(1), 35–43.
- Singh, D. (2015). *Emotional intelligence at work: A professional guide*. Sage Publications.
- Sittayehu, D. (2014). Academic achievement and its contextual factors. *African Journal of Education*, 10(2), 44–67.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2007). Dimensions of teacher self-efficacy and their relationship with student outcomes. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 51(3), 241–258.
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2010). Teacher self-efficacy: A framework for academic achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 38(1), 45–63.
- Trigueros, R., Aguilar-Parra, J. M., & Mercader, I. (2019). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of adolescent academic success. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 16(10), Article 1786. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16101786>.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17(7), 783–805.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2007). The differential antecedents of self-efficacy beliefs of novice and experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(6), 944–956. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tte.2007.05.001>.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & McMaster, P. (2009). Sources of self-efficacy: Four professional development formats and their relationship to self-efficacy and implementation of new teaching practices. *The Elementary School Journal*, 110(2), 228–245. <https://doi.org/10.1086/597811>.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy and its influence on teaching outcomes. *Educational Psychology Review*, 13(3), 273–291.
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17(7), 783–805. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X\(01\)00036-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(01)00036-1).
- Tschannen-Moran, M., & Woolfolk Hoy, A. (2007). Teacher efficacy in educational settings. *Journal of School Psychology*, 45(4), 245–267.
- Tyagi, A., & Gautam, R. (2017). Emotional intelligence and its relationship with academic success: A case study. *International Journal of Education*, 35(4), 45–53.

- UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (2019). *Education in Ghana: Trends and progress*. Retrieved from <https://uis.unesco.org/en/country/gh>
- Valente, A., Lourenço, A., Alves, A., & Dominguez-Lara, S. (2020). Teacher self-efficacy and emotional intelligence: Impacts on classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 91, Article 103048. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2020.103048>
- Valente, S., Lourenço, A., Alves, F., & Dominguez-Lara, S. A. (2020). Teachers' emotional intelligence and professional self-efficacy. *International Journal of Emotional Psychology*, 12(3), 67–82.
- Valente, S., Monteiro, A. P., & Lourenço, A. A. (2019). The relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and classroom discipline management. *Psychology in the Schools*, 56(5), 741–750. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.22218>
- Vasiou, A. (2018). Emotional intelligence in the school context: Teachers and students. *International Journal of Emotional Psychology*, 12(3), 67–82.
- Waiswa, J., Baguma, T., & Oonyu, J. (2020). The interplay of classroom, student, and teacher characteristics in academic outcomes. *Journal of Education*, 54(3), 34–67.
- Wang, T. (2022). Teacher emotional intelligence and its effects on student performance. *Journal of Educational Research and Practice*, 48(5), 67–80
- Waruwu, J. (2015). The role of emotional intelligence in leadership success. *Journal of Leadership and Management*, 23(2), 145–159.
- Williams, K., & Takaku, S. (2011). Writing self-efficacy and performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 16(2), 56–72.
- Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(3), 243–274. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(02\)00099-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(02)00099-1)
- Woolfolk, A. E., & Hoy, W. K. (1990). Prospective teachers' sense of efficacy and beliefs about control. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82(1), 81–91.
- Wu, X., Guo, J., & Zhao, Y. (2019). The mediating role of teaching performance in the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among teachers. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 47(3), Article e8791. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01449133.2019.1644444>

- Yahaya, N., & Latif, R. A. (2012). Academic achievement studies. *Journal of Academic Research*, 40(5), 231–250.
- Yin, H. B. (2012). Emotional intelligence in the teaching profession. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 28(3), 412–425.
- Yoke, T. L., & Panatik, S. A. (2015). Emotional intelligence and teachers' teaching performance. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(5), 429-436. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21464616.2015.1081711>.
- Zee, M., & Koomen, H. M. Y. (2016). Teacher self-efficacy and its effects on classroom processes. *Educational Research Review*, 15, 17–38.
- Zeidner, M., Matthews, G., & Roberts, R. D. (2011). What we know about emotional intelligence: How it affects learning, work, relationships, and our mental health. *MIT Press*.
- Zhoc, K. C. H., Chung, T. S. H., & King, R. B. (2018). Emotional intelligence, self-directed learning, and academic performance: Examining the mediating roles of positive emotions. *Educational Psychology*, 38(5), 554-573.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY
QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am embarking on study. I would be grateful if you could answer the questions below. There is no right or wrong answer. I am interested in your personal experience and opinion. The confidentiality of your information is guaranteed.

Instruction: For each item, please choose the answer which best describes your experiences by ticking [✓]

SECTION A

Demographic Data

1. Gender/Sex: Male [] Female []
2. Qualification: Certificate [] Diploma [] Degree [] Masters [] Doctorate []
3. Location: Urban [] Rural []
4. Years of Teaching.....

SECTION B

Teachers Emotional Intelligence

1=Never Used, 2= Rarely Used, 3=Sometimes Used, 4=Often Use, 5=Always Used

SN	Statements	NU	RU	SU	OU	SA
1	When I am in a bad mood in classroom, I am aware of it.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I can clearly know whether my current emotion is sad or happy when in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I can recognize my own current emotional condition from inner feelings when in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
4	From my physical reaction, I can identify my emotions and am able to tell whether I feel fear or anger in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I am uninterested in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I often feel happy in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
7	My emotions are easily affected by external circumstances in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I am influenced emotionally in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I often maintain emotional stability in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
10	When something does not go my way in classroom, I become depressed.	1	2	3	4	5
11	When I begin to do something in classroom, I will set goals in advance.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I will work hard to accomplish each task I am given in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
13	When I encounter pressure in classroom, I am courageous and face it.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I can refrain from doing something I enjoy before achieving my goals.	1	2	3	4	5

15	In order to fulfil my goals, I can resist any external temptation	1	2	3	4	5
16	When a student is distressed, I feel very sorry for that student.	1	2	3	4	5
17	When a student is bullied, I feel angry because of the injustice.	1	2	3	4	5
18	When a student receives an award in classroom, I am happy too.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I concentrate fully on dealing with my friends' or students' problems in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
20	When I see a student, who is alone and helpless, I instantly feel sympathy for that student.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I make friends easily in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I dislike being around others.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I like to talk with groups of people.	1	2	3	4	5
24	I like to cooperate with others to accomplish a task in classroom	1	2	3	4	5
25	I love social activities in classroom.	1	2	3	4	5

Dimensions: Self-awareness, Managing Emotions, Self-motivation, Empathy and Handling Relationship

SECTION C

TEACHERS' SENSE OF SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

Nothing (1), Very Little (2), Some Influence (3) Quite A Bit (4) and A Great Deal (5)

SN	Statements	N	VL	SI	QB	GD
1	How much can you do to control disruptive behaviour in the classroom?	1	2	3	4	5
2	How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	1	2	3	4	5
3	How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	1	2	3	4	5
4	How much can you do to help your students value learning?	1	2	3	4	5
5	To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	1	2	3	4	5
6	How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	1	2	3	4	5
7	How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	1	2	3	4	5
8	How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	1	2	3	4	5
9	How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	1	2	3	4	5
10	To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation for example when students are confused?	1	2	3	4	5
11	How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	1	2	3	4	5
12	How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
ETHICAL REVIEW BOARDUNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANAOur Ref: ccs-erb@ucc.edu.gh/03/54
Your Ref:Date: 13 June, 2022

Dear Sir/Madam,

ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS CLEARANCE FOR RESEARCH STUDYChairman, CES-ERB
Prof. J. A. Omotosho
jomotosho@ucc.edu.gh
0243784739Prof. Chairman, CES-ERB
Prof. K. Edjah
kedjah@ucc.edu.gh
0244741357Secretary, CES-ERB
Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
linda.forde@ucc.edu.gh
0244786660The bearer, Sector Stephen Gbul, Reg. No. is
M.Phil. / Ph.D. student in the Department of Education and
Psychology in the College of Education Studies
University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast, Ghana. He / She wishes to
undertake a research study on the topic:Teachers' emotional intelligence and professional
Self-esteem as predictors of students' academic
achievement in the Wa-West district, GhanaThe Ethical Review Board (ERB) of the College of Education Studies
(CES) has assessed his/her proposal and confirm that the proposal
satisfies the College's ethical requirements for the conduct of the
study.In view of the above, the researcher has been cleared and given approval
to commence his/her study. The ERB would be grateful if you would
give him/her the necessary assistance to facilitate the conduct of the said
research.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Prof. Linda Dzama Forde
(Secretary, CES-ERB)

APPENDIX C

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND PSYCHOLOGY

Telephone: 0332091697
Email: dep@ucc.edu.gh



UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE
CAPE COAST, GHANA

Our Ref:

Your Ref:

2nd June, 2022.

The Chairman
Institutional Review Board
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Dear Sir,

RE: ETHICAL CLEARANCE FOR SAATOR STEPHEN GBUL

As the supervisor for Saator Stephen Gbul, an M Phil. psychology student of the Department of Education and Psychology, I write to support his application for ethical clearance for his study on "Teachers' Emotional Intelligence and Professional Self-Efficacy as Predictors of Students' Academic Achievement in the Wa West District, Ghana". As his supervisor, I have discussed various ethical considerations of his study with him and I am very hopeful that his proposal will meet the ethical standards expected of the University's Review Board.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'S. Baafi-Frimpong', written over a horizontal line.

Dr. S. Baafi-Frimpong
(Senior Lecturer)