UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

PUBLIC SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY BELIEFS AND JOB PERFORMANCE IN THE CENTRAL REGION OF GHANA: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

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DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, Joseph Bentil, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own work, and it has not been submitted either in part or whole for another degree elsewhere.

Signature: ……

Date: ……...

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of Thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Principal Supervisor: Isaac Eshun (PhD)

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Date: ……...

Co-Supervisor: Alfred Kuranchie (PhD)

Signature: ……

Date: ……...

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife Mrs. Janet Bentil and my children Dywill Efua Nyarkowah Bentil and Josephine Abena Kristodea Bentil. I also dedicate it to the evergreen memory of my grandmother the late Mrs. Elizabeth Efua Nyarkowah Ennin as well as my mother the late Mrs. Mary Bentil who could not live long enough to witness my graduation. May their departed souls rest in perfect peace.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMOS	–	Analysis of Moment Structures
AVE	–	Average Variance Extracted
CB-SEM	–	Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modelling
CKI	–	Cohen's Kappa Index
CR	–	Composite Reliability
CV	–	Content Validity
CVI	–	Content Validity Index
DDEs	–	District Directors of Education
DV	–	Discriminant Validity
EFA	–	Education for All
EFA	–	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EI	–	Emotional Intelligence
GES	–	Ghana Education Service
I-CVI	–	Item Content Validity Index
KMO	–	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MLE	–	Maximum Likelihood Estimation
MoE	–	Ministry of Education
NaCCA	–	National Council for Curriculum and Assessment
PCA	–	Principal Component Analysis
SCT	–	Social Cognitive Theory
S-CVI	–	Scale Content Validity Index

SDG	–	Sustainable Development Goals
SEM	–	Structural Equation Modelling
SHS	–	Senior High School
SPSS	–	Statistical Product for Service Solution
UNESCO	–	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	–	United Nations International Children Emergency Fund

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the mediating role of emotional intelligence in the effect of self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in Central Region of Ghana within the context of Bandura's (1976) Social Cognitive Theory. Working within the positivist paradigm, this study employed the cross-sectional descriptive survey design with quantitative approach, where through census sampling technique, 342 Social Studies teachers in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana were selected and participated in the study with the main instrument being questionnaire. After meeting validity and reliability requirements, descriptive and inferential statistics analytical tools were employed to answer the research questions and hypothesis set for the study with the aid of Version 28 of SPSS and AMOS. The findings revealed that Social Studies teachers had very high-level self-efficacy beliefs, high level of emotional intelligence as well as high level of job performance. The findings further established that emotional intelligence statistically significantly predicted the job performance of Social Studies teacher. Besides, it was revealed that emotional intelligence mediated the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance of Social Studies teachers. The study again established that demographic characteristics such as gender, age and years of teaching experience statistically significantly influenced Social Studies teachers perception on their level of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence. It was therefore, recommended Ghana Education Service should organize refresher training and continuous professional development programmes in order to sustain, improve, and strengthen the dimensions of self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High schools in Ghana. The study further recommended that strategies aimed at the improvement of self-efficacy beliefs and job performance should run concurrently with approaches to enhance emotional intelligence of Social Studies teachers to heighten their job performance.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

As part of the Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development around the world, the United Nations have identified quality education as one of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to make education meaningful in contemporary times by providing learners with the competencies to take an active role as agents in solving global and local problems of society (Neuhaus, 2022; UNESCO, 2021). Accordingly, with the adoption of the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) on education (SDG 4), governments worldwide have prioritized quality education in policy agendas (UNESCO, 2021). Likewise, successive governments of Ghana apart from being committed to the achievement of Universal Basic Education have also implemented various interventions such as the capitation grant, school feeding programme, free exercise books and uniforms to improve access to education (United Nations, 2021). The interventions were also in pursuit of granting the right to education to all as stipulated in both international law and Ghana's constitution, and human right standards (Derkong-Dery & Agbley, 2021).

Relatedly, evidence in literature has endorsed the view that education is the pillar on which a nation's progress is anchored. Scholars like Getachew and Tekle (2020) and Yahiyan (2020) have all indicated that education is a cornerstone and agent of national development. Understandably, socio-economic and political progress of a nation will flop if existing system of education is inappropriate. Schools are, therefore, intended to serve as agents to groom and develop students' competencies to be able to face global challenges (Winter et al., 2021). Quality education, therefore, groom beneficiaries to

adapt to the dynamic needs of the country, and spearhead the development of human capital for the country's economy. From this prospective, it could be deduced that education helps an individual to develop his/her capabilities, attitudes, values and behaviour that are acceptable to the society, meet manpower needs, and create an egalitarian society.

In this direction, Ghana through the Ministry of Education and the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NaCCA) has designed a curriculum which includes Social Studies as a subject. In Ghana, practitioners have maintained that Social Studies has been identified as a subject that is not only phenomenal in providing students with desirable attitudes, values, and skills capable of making them effective citizens but also crucial in providing opportunity for students to apply concepts, theories and generalisations from a variety of relevant disciplines to analyse, investigate and come out with appropriate solutions to personal and societal problems (Eshun, 2020; Eshun, Zuure, Brew & Bordoh, 2019).

As a vital tool for addressing the challenges and problems that confront and threaten the survival of most societies, Bariham, Ondigi and Kiio (2020) espoused that the discipline plays a vital role by inculcating in learners critical thinking skills, hard work, self-reliance, empathy, honesty, ethics and integrity, tolerance and the appreciation of human dignity. These scholars further maintained that the discipline sharpens students' competencies in open-mindedness, national consciousness and patriotism, obedience, loyalty, critical judgment, constructive criticism, power of imagination and resourcefulness, accountability, respect for the rights of others, and respect for the law. The above views suggest that Social Studies holds the key and indeed the springboard in churning out reflective, concerned and participatory citizens who will be ready to

spearhead the development of any nation and that efforts at modern civilization and innovation would fail if attention is not paid to the acquisition of knowledge, values and skills in Social Studies.

Having realized that Social Studies is crucial to personal and national development, education stakeholders have made it a major component in the schools' curriculum. These stakeholders are convinced that Social Studies education is helpful to instill knowledge, values and skills into individuals. Therefore, governments have made efforts to ensure quality Social Studies education in their respective countries. In Ghana, like in any other country, Social Studies is a compulsory subject at the first and second cycle levels. Most recent attempt was the inclusion of Social Studies in the new educational reforms, hence, it could, therefore, be said that, Ghana has made good decisions in the choice of Social Studies as well as its reputation in the school curriculum (National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NaCCA), 2022).

Meanwhile, education research has consistently proven that an effective teacher is the single most important factor of students' learning and a priceless asset in the realization of the various competencies enshrined in the curriculum (Li & Ruppar, 2021; Senyametor et al., 2021, Skipp & Dommett, 2021). Therefore, the realization of the knowledge, values, attitudes and skills which border on the affective domain in Social Studies instruction would be contingent on the teacher's prowess in their efficacy and emotional intelligence. Sims et al., (2021) illuminated that an effective teacher is one who matches strategies to the students and that the teacher's role is becoming increasingly crucial owing to the rapid transformation of education systems and its rapid adaptation to modern requirement around the world. Hence, it could be said that the caliber and experience of teachers impact the level of performance of students.

Wang, Hall and Taxer (2019) noted that as teachers implement the curriculum through school learning experiences that are designed for students, their interpersonal relationships with their students have a mutual influence on the overall class climate, learning and teaching effectiveness, motivation, and students' wellbeing. Accordingly, understanding the teachers' excellence in content area as well as the capability of employing teaching methods, techniques and strategies to build an atmosphere that will enable students acquire the competencies has been a focus of research in recent times.

Specific to Social Studies, extant literature demonstrates that although the cognitive domain is crucial in realizing the ideals of the subject, it sometimes overlooks teaching in the affective learning domain (Powell, 2021; Borba, 2018) which embroils feelings, emotions, and attitudes that is key in not only supporting students' cognitive learning outcomes but also ensures success of students in the subject. Indeed, previous studies have noted that while teaching in the affective domain is not new in education, recent trepidations about student well-being (Borba, 2018; DeJulius & McLean, 2019), school violence (Nickerson, 2018), and trauma-sensitive practices (Jennings, 2017; Minahan, 2019) have heightened the interest of researchers and have led to a renewed focus and attention on how to improve on affective teaching. In explaining why teachers often neglect teaching in the affective domain, Powell (2021) identified the pressures of high-stakes testing and accountability leaving teachers with little or no time especially when tasked with meeting the instructional needs of diverse learners to be the motives. According to Manfra and Bolick (2017), these concerns are often exacerbated by marginalization and passive instruction in Social Studies which brings into inquiry the gaps and lacuna in the literature about the impactful nature of how Social Studies instruction should have on students' learning outcomes. It is inferred from these claims that Social Studies teachers need to deepen their content and pedagogical competencies

so as to facilitate effective instruction in both the content and affective domains of the subject for effective lessons in the classroom.

In furtherance of the above viewpoints, owing to the primary purpose of Social Studies which, among other things, is "to help young people make informed and reasoned decisions for the public good as citizens of a culturally diverse, democratic society in an interdependent world" (National Council for Social Studies, (NCSS, 2013, p. 3), accentuates the need for Social Studies teachers to utilize impactful instructional practices that address cognitive and affective learning outcomes for diverse students who are tasked with learning experiences that require them to analyze, evaluate, and solve problem while also considering affective elements such as beliefs, emotions, and multiple perspectives when examining complex social, political, and economic issues. As such, this thesis is in compliance with the call by Collaboration for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL, 2021) for teachers to integrate affective, cognitive, and behavioral domain elements that support the ability to manage emotions, achieve personal goals, show empathy, collaborate, and make responsible choices, all of which support academic success, critical thinking, decision making, and teamwork in school and life which are all within the context of Social Studies.

In this direction, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence have received attention among researchers and academics as a crucial indicator for teacher success in changing classroom practices in order to have a positive impact on school reform. Teachers' self-efficacy relates to their confidence in their ability to stimulate students' learning and it determines levels of effectiveness, innovativeness and persistence among teachers (Gale et al., 2021; Shi, 2021; Schwab & Alnadi, 2020). Literature demonstrates that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is cited as instrumental in attaining

changes in their attitudes, knowledge, skills, and teaching practices in implementing an educational goal through classroom practices (Kara et al., (2022). Pursuant to this view, Friesen, Shory and Lamoureux (2023) contended that teachers are supposed to have high sense of efficacy and capability in planning and implementing teaching and learning that fulfill the needs of immersing 21st century learning skills through effective, interesting and interactive pedagogy practice. Hence, having high self-efficacy beliefs is a commanding motivational force which can overcome obstacles such as environmental and logistics constraints as teachers will feel self-motivated to achieve learning outcomes together with their students.

It is, therefore, deduced from the preceding views that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and success in instructional delivery are interrelated and inseparable since the process of implementation of the curriculum requires teachers who are efficacious and willing to put new ideas and knowledge into practice. Alan-Cansever et al., (2021) intimated that highly efficacious teachers are driven to engage learners and implement highly effective classroom practices (instructional strategies, motivational styles, pedagogical beliefs and effort) which in turn affect learning outcomes such as expectations, learner motivations and achievements. Warewu, Kihoro and Gachunga (2020) also lent credence to the above view when they recounted that highly efficacious teachers exhibit more enthusiasm and commitment to teaching and are able to affect students' learning. Conversely, low teacher efficacy has been linked to unproductive classrooms and poor academic achievements among learners. Therefore, the quest of education stakeholders should be professional development programmes that aim to improve Social Studies teachers' efficacy by helping them to become more knowledgeable in the subject content taught, and engage in reflective practice and constant evaluation of their

teaching practice which lead to a better lesson structure to effectively meet learners' learning outcomes.

With the assurance that having good self-efficacy beliefs such as effective student engagements, and effective instructional and classroom management enhances improved classroom instruction and the realization of educational goals and objectives, researchers have sought to investigate the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs as well as explore inventories that could be deployed to enhance the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers around the world. As a result of empirical studies, researchers have offered various inventories in assessing teacher's self-efficacy beliefs with the most popular being Bandura Social Cognitive Theory. In Turkey, Balci, Sanal and Durak-Uguten (2019) adopted Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) model of teacher self-efficacy beliefs and investigated pre-service English Language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and it was concluded that even though these pre-service teachers had higher levels of teacher efficacy in the three subscales, they felt themselves as the most efficacious for instructional strategies, followed by classroom management and student engagement respectively. These results implied that the teachers efficaciously involved their students in the instructional process, engaged them effectively as well as demonstrated mastery in their classroom management.

On the Ghanaian scene, a study by Coffie and Doe (2019) investigated pre-service Science teacher self-efficacy beliefs in teaching Science at the basic school level and concluded that pre-service science teachers had high self-efficacy beliefs in teaching science. However, higher self-efficacy beliefs were reported amongst those enrolled in science programmes than their counterparts in general science programme. Similarly, from a generalist perspective, Sarfo, Amankwah, Sam and Konin (2015) investigated

teachers' self-efficacy beliefs while exploring the relationship between gender and instructional strategies, classroom management and student engagement in the Kumasi metropolis of Ghana. The findings of the study revealed that even though teachers demonstrated a relatively higher self-efficacy, they were ranked highest and demonstrated tremendous efficacy on their student engagement than classroom management while their efficacy in instructional strategies was ranked the least.

Additionally, even though research on Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is rare within the context of Ghana, a recent study by Nyantakyi, Bordoh, Anim and Brew (2020) discovered that a large number of Social Studies teachers lacks appreciation and idea on what Social Studies is or should be. The teachers found themselves in a variety of concepts and definitions of the subject as a result of their position. The findings also admitted that majority of the Social Studies teachers rated their efficacy in terms of classroom management, instructional technique, and student involvement to be very high. According to the study, Social Studies teachers should devote adequate time to lesson planning, teaching learning materials, and other associated tasks in order to improve their efficacy in the subject's teaching effectiveness so as to positively impact learners' attitudes which is one of the cardinal areas of concentration of the subject.

Empirical studies (Waweru et al., 2021; Tarajova & Metruk, 2020; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2019) have documented that embedded in the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers are the issue about their emotional intelligence which is critical to their effectiveness. Described as the teacher's ability to notice and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others (Sokmen & Sarikaya, 2022), teacher's emotional intelligence could be explained as a confluence of developed abilities to: know and value self; build and maintain a

variety of strong, productive and healthy relationships; get along and work well with others in achieving positive results; and effectively deal with the pressures and demands of daily life and work (Valente, Lourenco & Dominguez-Lara, 2022; Wu et al., 2019). Hence, it is crucial for teachers to be emotionally intelligent so as to be effective in their instructional practices. Consequently, tacit teacher effectiveness construct like emotional intelligence of teachers have caught the attention of researchers and academicians in recent years.

Scholars and practitioners have underscored the importance of emotional intelligence as one of the fundamental core competencies of effective teachers. This viewpoint is grounded in the conviction that emotionally intelligent teachers exhibit and display more positive social functioning in interpersonal relationship and are regarded by learners as prosocial, less antagonistic and conflictual (Savina, Fulton & Beaton, 2022). These attributes improved social competence and quality relationships that could facilitate cognitive and intellectual development leading to better academic performance among learners. Gallo and Tassinari (2017) highlighted the significance of emotional intelligence when they opined that emotionally intelligent teachers tend to make better team players, more effective at motivating themselves and others and possess positive attributes that are critical in predicting the success of learners' effectiveness.

Emotionally intelligent teachers, apart from being able to spark learners' desire to learn, possess vital skills, personality characteristics and behaviors that learners perceive to foster the passion and excitement and their motivation to learn (Ismail, Nopiah & Rasul, 2020). Besides, emotionally intelligent teachers have skills that empower them in generating particular emotional state to facilitate particular types of thinking, processes

of emotional change in their classroom, and regulating their own emotion. Hence, giving importance to emotional intelligence, there will be positive developments in academic achievement and quality of life of the learners (Gale et al., 2021; Idris, et al., 2021). The above authors have confirmed that learners and for that matter countries stand to gain when there is a well-structured system for developing emotionally intelligent teachers who are potent and ready to drive home the 21st century skills embedded in the new standard based curriculum thereby making it a clarion call for developing countries like to shift focus on developing emotionally intelligent teachers.

Besides self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence of teachers, scholars have noticed that teachers' job performance is critical to a school's success. Due to the impact of teachers on schools, Idris, et al., (2021) maintained that deploying highly qualified teachers who have solid teaching skills has become a national concern. For schools to be effective, stakeholders need to look for opportunities to increase the professional development and job performance of teachers for the betterment in managing the teaching and learning process, and this can be done through well-structured curricular that have the development of their self efficacies and emotional intelligence at heart (Saddique, Bibi & Taseer, 2020).

In furtherance to this notion, Kaur, Shri, and Mital (2019) concluded that the emotional intelligence of teachers has the most influence on students' academic achievement. The preceding views have sustained the truism that teachers are the bedrock of a school, and that their performance determines the success of any educational reform and for that matter the school. Idris, et al., (2021) supported this explanation when they noted that teacher job performance is one of the main factors that determines and affects school outcomes which could be measured through observing teacher activities in real

classroom teaching performance, including lesson preparation, teacher commitment, extra-curricular, supervision, effective leadership, motivation and morale. Hence, it could be gleaned from the above assertions that teacher effectiveness and professional development is treated as critical because of the potent role it plays in the realization of school and educational goals.

Having noted that teacher job performance impacts school effectiveness, researchers' began to investigate factors that predict it. Consistently, researchers have established a link between teacher efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence on teacher performance. According to Saddique, Bibi and Taseer (2020), teacher efficacy and emotional intelligence have a positive impact on their effectiveness and performance. Indeed, empirical evidence exists to confirm the nexus between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence which is directly linked with their job performance. In Turkey, a study by Baydar (2021) indicated that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence. Elsewhere in Indonesia, Yusdarti and Aulia's (2020) study disclosed that teachers self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence had a positive and significant effect on their job performance and organization's commitment. Turkekul and Sarikabak (2019) and Ibrahim et al. (2017) all concluded in their respective studies that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence have a positive sway on their job performance. It is, therefore, expected that stakeholders in education should evolve and develop some working formulae so as to improve the efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence to realize the educational goals and objectives.

To this end, it could be said that having apposite efficacy and being emotionally intelligent are crucial in realizing the 21st century competencies and skills contained in

the Standards-Based Curriculum and the Common Core Social Studies Curriculum of Ghana. Research on teacher efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence suggest that behaviours such as persistence on a task, risk taking, and use of innovations are contingent and related to degrees of efficacy and emotional intelligence (Adarkwah, et al., 2022; Saddique, Bibi & Taseer, 2020). In other reports, researchers recognized that efficacious and emotionally intelligent teachers put more effort in their work, persevere longer in their duties and recover faster when they fail to meet set targets (Goldag, 2020; Chapagain, 2020; Al-Busaidi et al., 2019). Besides, teachers with high self-efficacy were found to be good in planning and organizing their work, more open to new ideas and innovative, more persistent and resilient which determine their levels of effectiveness, and innovativeness (Alan-Cansever et al., 2021; Damico, Geraci & Tarantino, 2020). It could be observed from the above report that effective implementation of the Social Studies curriculum is likely to repress if Social Studies teachers who are to actualize the dreams and hopes of the curriculum are themselves not emotionally intelligent and not highly efficacious.

I glean from the preceding arguments that there seems to be a causal link between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and their job performance. Accordingly, it could be deduced that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are a crucial determinants of teachers' emotional intelligence which ultimately translate into improved teacher job performance. Nevertheless, there are debates and controversies relative to the nature of effects or relationships that self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence have on the job performance of teachers' and researchers and academics continue to debate the nature and complexity of the relationship among these variables (Sokmen & Sarikaya, 2022). This debate is stimulated by conflicting findings relating to the direct, and indirect effects and relationships between self-efficacy beliefs,

emotional intelligence and job performance among teachers. For instance, previous studies (Hassan & Ibourk, 2021; Waweru et al., 2021; Tarajova & Metruk, 2020; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2019) have revealed that self-efficacy beliefs have both direct and indirect effects on teacher job performance.

In finding the mediating variable, Sokmen and Sarikaya (2022) discovered that teacher self-efficacy beliefs dwell on the emotional intelligence of the teacher, consequently, the effect of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on their job performance is mediated by teachers' emotional intelligence. Indeed, literature is replete with evidence to the effect that self-efficacy requires an individual to be aware of his/her own feeling and how it affect others and that the emotions of teachers influence their motivation, competence, as well as their goals (Hassan & Ibourk, 2021; Sokmen & Kilic, 2019; Hsieh et al., 2017). The findings from these empirical studies suggest that emotional intelligence of teachers mediates the effect of their self-efficacy beliefs on their job performance. Therefore, it is instructive that one of the ways to promote the self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of Social Studies teachers in Ghanaian schools is to enhance their emotional intelligence.

Additionally, the implication of these findings suggests that the effect and or relationship between self-efficacy beliefs are mediated by other extraneous variables which either bolster or throttle the effect of one variable on another. I construe from this finding that, the emotional intelligence of teachers influences the effect of self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of teachers, yet the nature of the effect is in uncertainty, dispute, and requires further investigation. A synthesis and amalgamation of these research findings present a complicated and an intricate association among self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance of teachers, hence,

necessitates analytical studies to map out these relationships in contexts specific settings. The issue is to what extent does Social Studies teachers' emotional intelligence mediates the effect of self-efficacy beliefs and their on their job performance in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?

Even though research has consistently underscored the contribution of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their emotional intelligence in realizing school and educational goals, it appears research into these issues is sparse especially within the Ghanaian context albeit no evidence from the perspectives of Social Studies teachers in the Central Region of Ghana. This sentiment was raised by researchers (Dampson, 2021; Butakor, Guo & Adebanji, 2021) that in acknowledgement of the crucial role of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence on teacher job performance and school success, is theoretically and empirically under examined. Besides, although the need for the development of the 21st century competencies has been globally recognized, evidence in literature has disclosed that schools are not yet ready (Saavedra & Opher, 2012 & Schleicher, 2015). Hence, understanding the self-efficacy beliefs and the emotional intelligence of Social Studies teachers is an attempt to ascertain their self-efficacy beliefs in implementing Social Studies curriculum to reap the desired benefits therein.

Drawing on Niu's (2021) call on schools for a paradigm shift in the acquisition of mere knowledge by students to the development of 21st century competencies to pave the way for the future, makes it imperative than ever for an assessment on Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence and how these influence their job performance in driving home the 21st century competencies such as critical thinking, digital literacy, teamwork and collaboration, respect and diversity which is the focus of

21st century education especially from the context of Social Studies education, this study becomes relevant.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The demand for high-quality education rooted in the development and acquisition of 21st century competencies are garnering increasing attention generating a renewed focus for researchers to explore factors that predict teacher effectiveness and the realisation of educational goals and objectives. Scholars in the field of education argue that the paradigm shift in education is occasioned by globalization and advancement in information technologies which have led to radical changes in students' needs, characteristics, and the competencies required of teachers who train them (Kara et al., 2022). Consequently, tacit constructs like how teacher self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence trigger their job performance have caught the attention of researchers and academicians in recent decades.

Extant literature has disclosed that in an ideal situation, teachers in the 21st century must be highly efficacious and emotionally stable individuals who possess the ability to create classrooms characterised by warm teacher-student relationships that support and enhance deep learning and positive social and emotional development among students (Frenzel, Daniels & Buric, 2021; Park & Rhee, 2020; Schonert-Reichl, 2017). Besides, today's teachers must possess the skill of being able to listen and create a classroom environment conducive to learning and of interest to students where teachers believe in their students, able to connect with students; non-judgmental; optimistic as well as exude a great sense of humour; promote active and collaborative learning; be very engaging, adaptable; flexible; understands that every student is different. (Madar & Danoch, 2021; Wettstein, Ramseier & Scherzinger, 2021). In furtherance of this notion,

Kuloglu and Karabekmez (2022) postulated that today's teacher must be a 21st century educator with critical thinking skills who is principally unbiased, patient, receptive to all kinds of innovations, and able to think in varied ways. These viewpoints are grounded in the conviction that teachers are the fulcrum to the acquisition of 21st century competencies among students and that their own social-emotional competence and wellbeing remain the driver that strongly influence students' learning. Hence, an understanding of their self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence is key to enhancing their effectiveness.

Meanwhile, education research has consistently proven that teaching is one of the most stressful occupations which often trigger psychological and emotionally traumatic condition to teachers (Carroll et al., 2022; Mukwamu, 2019). Features such as heavy workload, students' discipline, ongoing curricular, time constraints, work-life balance challenges, and an overload of responsibilities are some of the traumatic conditions that trigger psychologically unstable and stressful instances in the teaching profession (Velle, 2020; Sindhya, 2022; Mukwamu, 2019, Voss et al., 2017). Consequently, scholars are convinced that studying the self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence of teachers is one of the ways to understanding how psychological and emotionally traumatic conditions in teaching are identified and dealt with (Goleman, 2019; Al-Huwailah, 2017). Understandably, it is necessary to investigate the phenomenon of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence of teachers in context and subject specific settings such as Social Studies teachers so as to proffer recommendations and interventions that would make them efficacious to adequately deal with their needs and that of their students.

Scholars have demonstrated that while the evidence of the implication of teacher self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence is rapidly growing, the call for its scientific investigation have even heightened in recent times due to the implementation of 21st century curriculum around the world. In line with this, it could be said that for the successful implementation of the new Social Studies curriculum, Social Studies teachers should have considerable self-efficacy and also be emotionally intelligent to be able to utilize 21st century pedagogical practices that are nourished with creativity thinking, innovative thinking, critical thinking, emphasize on problem solving and ability in decision making which are in harmony with their efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence. In their study, Puteh et al., (2012) documented that the weaknesses of teaching during curriculum reforms emanates from low teachers' efficacy in teaching strategy and understanding the visions of new curriculum reformation. Hence, the clarion call for additional research to be conducted to unpack teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence as woven into the fabric of job performance in an era of curriculum reforms in Ghana.

In recent past, the issues of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance have gained the attention of education stakeholders in Ghana. This concern arises due to the decline in learning outcomes of students at various levels of education in Ghana. With particular reference to Social Studies, evidence from the Chief Examiner Report from 2019 to 2022 is presented in Table 1.

Table1: Academic Achievement Statistics and Ranking for WASSCE Social Studies by Regions

Year	Greater Accra (100%)	Eastern (100%)	Central (100%)	Western (100%)	Ashanti (100%)	Brong Ahafo (100%)	Volta (100%)	Northern (100%)	Upper East (100%)	Upper West (100%)
2019	77.34	78.90	81.02	84.45	79.05	86.50	64.22	40.28	56.21	69.51
2020	61.92	65.48	66.29	73.24	65.35	91.88	51.85	28.77	47.50	54.23
2021	60.40	61.88	69.10	66.60	72.13	91.69	54.78	47.57	65.34	63.88
2022	73.94	76.05	75.87	79.01	77.14	86.92	63.50	42.39	57.58	70.07
Pass Rate	**68.40**	**70.69**	**73.07**	**75.83**	**73.42**	**89.25**	**58.59**	**39.75**	**56.66**	**64.42**
Rank	**6th**	**5th**	**4th**	**2nd**	**3rd**	**1st**	**8th**	**10th**	**9th**	**7th**

Source: WAEC, Performance Statistics for WASSCE for Social Studies (2019-2022)

The trend in the academic performance in Social Studies among Senior High School students in the WASSCE in the Central Region of Ghana has not been consistent over the years. The information in Table 1 reveals that the average pass rate of the students in the examination from 2019 to 2022 was 73.0%, and the average failure rate is 27.0%. In 2019, the Central Region recorded 81.02% pass while the failure rate was 18.95%. Performance took a nosedive in 2020 with 66.29% of the students passing and 33.71% failing. The performance increased from 66.29% in 2020 to 69.10% in 2021 while the failure rate also reduced from 33.71% in 2020 to 30.90% in 2021. Similarly, the performance increased from 69.10% in 2021 to 75.87 % in 2022 while the failure rate also reduced from 30.90% in 2021 to 24.13% in 2022. Even though the average performance of the students in Social Studies in WASSCE was inconsistent, the failure rate also implies that some students could not use Social Studies as a basis for qualifying into tertiary education institutions because it is a compulsory subject that could constitute a vital component in the grading of WASSCE results, hence their aspiration for further education was likely to be truncated. This is a concern to education stakeholders who are obliged to provide education to all citizens as their fundamental human right.

Even though the performance of the students in Social Studies in the Central Region appears encouraging, the failure rate of the students is higher as compared with the

performance of students in other regions that were ranked better than Central Region. For instance, students from the Brong Ahafo Region outperformed their peers from the Central Region in the subject where 86.50% passed in the Brong Ahafo Region as compared with 81.02% in the Central Region in 2019. The performance of students improved in 2020 in the Brong Ahafo Region over the previous year by 5.38% while the performance of students in Central Region in the same year declined by 14.73%. Comparatively, there was a difference in the performance of students from the Brong Ahafo Region and the Central Region in 2022 by 11.05% in favour of Brong Ahafo Region. Evidently, more students from the Central Region failed in Social Studies each year than their counterparts from the Brong Ahafo Region. Similar trends in performance was noticed between the Central Region and the Western Region. In 2019, for instance, Western Region outperformed Central Region by 3.43%. The difference in performance widened in 2020 where the Western Region performed better than the Central Region by 6.95%. However, Central Region performed better than the Western Region by 2.5% in 2021. The performance reversed to the previous trend in 2022 where Western Region did better than the Central Region by 3.14%. Therefore, the reason that informed the selection of the Central Region for the study was that the region represents an interesting case in terms of Social Studies performance in Ghana.

Indeed, researchers have investigated the antecedents of academic performance elsewhere, and discovered that teacher self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence influenced students' academic performance (Zhang et al., 2022; Adarkwah, et al., 2022; Hungnes, Bachmann, & Bjerke, 2022; Amalu, 2018). Therefore, it is probable to assume that the seeming inconsistent performance of students in Social Studies in Senior High Schools in the Central Region was influenced by the self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence among Social Studies teachers. However, this assumption is

untenable since there is no empirical evidence to support it as this will trigger questions on the credibility of the conclusion, and subsequently render it unscientific.

Meanwhile, recent studies in Ghana (Arko, 2021; Nyantakyi, Bordoh, Anim & Brew, 2020; Angyagre & Quainoo, 2019; Eshun & Mensah, 2013) have all raised concerns about Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, content pedagogical approaches and emotional prowess in implementing the Social Studies curriculum. Additionally, since there are several teachers with specialization in different subject areas other than Social Studies teaching the subject, it would be difficult to attribute the poor performance of students to all teachers without rigorous research. Apart from the dearth of literature on the influence of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence on teacher job performance among Social Studies teachers in Ghana, it has also been discovered in literature that scholars have studied these variables either as an individual construct with their effects being assessed on other variables but not on job performance of Social Studies teachers.

For instance, Dampson (2021) investigated the variable emotional intelligence of headteachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central and Greater Accra Regions of Ghana. A study also by Butakor, Guo and Adebanji (2021) rather examined the relationship between Ghanaian teachers' emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, professional identity and work engagement using structural equation modelling (SEM). On self-efficacy beliefs, previous studies conducted within the Ghanaian context have only explored the influence of science teacher's self-efficacy beliefs on their instructional practice (Owusu-Fordjour, Azure, & Koomson, 2021), teachers efficacy beliefs in integrating ICT in instruction (Gbemu et al., 2020) while a study by Kuyini, Desai and Sharma (2018) concentrated on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs towards

implementing inclusive education. Additionally, these aforementioned studies were conducted with different philosophical considerations and approaches other than the positivist paradigm which this study utilized. This study, besides, being in fulfilment of the recommendation by (WAEC, Chief Examiner Report, 2018, 2019, 2020), it is as well carried out to fill both the lacuna created in literature on Social Studies teachers as well as the deficits in methodological and contextual gaps identified in literature.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the influence of self-efficacy beliefs, and emotional intelligence on job performance among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to:

1. investigate the level of self-efficacy beliefs among Social Studies teachers in Senior High schools in the Central Region of Ghana.
2. examine the level of emotional intelligence among Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.
3. ascertain the level of teacher job performance among Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.
4. determine the relationship between Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and teacher job performance in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.
5. assess the effect of emotional intelligence on Social Studies teachers' job performance in the Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

6. assess the mediation role of emotional intelligence on the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

1.5 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How do Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools rate their level of self-efficacy beliefs in the Central Region of Ghana?
2. What is the level of emotional intelligence of Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?
3. How do Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools rate their level of job performance in the Central Region of Ghana?
4. What is the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and teacher job performance among Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?
5. What is the effect of emotional intelligence on job performance among Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?
6. What is the mediation role of emotional intelligence in the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?

1.6 Study Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

H_{O1}: Senior High School Social Studies teachers' personal characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience will not statistically

significantly account for differences in their self-efficacy beliefs in the Central Region of Ghana.

H_1: Senior High School Social Studies teachers' personal characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience will statistically significantly account for differences in their self-efficacy beliefs in the Central Region of Ghana.

H_{O2}: Senior High School Social Studies teachers' personal characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience will not statistically significantly account for differences in their emotional intelligence in the Central Region of Ghana.

H_2: Senior High School Social Studies teachers' personal characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience will statistically significantly account for differences in their emotional intelligence in the Central Region of Ghana.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The findings of the study would have implications for both theory and practice. Theoretically, it is hoped that the findings would help in obtaining contextual data to shed more light on the influence of Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance, thereby expand the frontiers of knowledge in the field. This would help to either confirm or disconfirm the applicability of the self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence inventory in the context of the study in improving teachers' job performance.

Practically, the researcher hopes that the findings would be significant to education stakeholders to determine how teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence

influence Social Studies teachers' job performance. It is anticipated that the results of the study would assist the Social Studies teachers to determine their self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence, and how it affects their job performance. This evidence would call for training programmes that would help them to either intensify or modify their self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence for better job performance.

The outcome of the study would also guide the Ghana Education Service to organize in-service training for teachers on self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence that are required for improved job performance of teachers. The findings of this research are intended to add to the existing literature on the influence of self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance of senior high school social studies teachers. Finally, it is envisaged that the study would contribute information to curriculum developers to design course materials to suit and enhance the self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence of teachers to engender good job performance.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. It covered self-efficacy beliefs where students' engagement efficacy, instructional strategies, and classroom management were examined as postulated by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, (2001). Besides, Social Studies teachers' emotional intelligence focused on Bar-on (2007) model which consisted of five (5) composite scales: interpersonal scale (with sub-scales: emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-regard and self-actualization), intrapersonal scale (with sub-scales: empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship), adaptability scale (with sub-scales: problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility),

stress management scale (with sub-scales: stress tolerance and impulse control) and general mood (with sub-scales: happiness and optimism).

In this study, Social Studies teachers' job performance was assessed based on the 2013 model on teacher job performance developed by the National Council of Educational Research and Training of New Delhi. This model discusses teachers' job performance in relation to designing learning experiences for students, knowledge and understanding of subject matter, strategies for facilitating learning, professional development, school development, and teacher attendance. Finally, Social Studies teachers in private senior high schools as well as national service personnel and attendants were not included in the study.

1.9 Operational Definitions of Terms/Acronyms

Self-Efficacy Beliefs – In this study, self-efficacy beliefs is operationally defined as the ability of the Social Studies teacher to influence students learning. This is reflected in their activities such as student engagement, instructional strategies as well as their classroom management practices.

Emotional Intelligence – Emotional intelligence is operationalized as the ability of the Social Studies teacher to control/regulate his/her emotions as well as those he or she engages with within the broad spectrum of the school environment which lead to enhancement in their overall instructional practices and the learning outcomes of students.

Teacher Job Performance – Teacher job performance is operationalised as the planned, continuous, and daily activities and routines led by the Social Studies teacher to support in the attainment of educational goals and objectives.

1.10 Organization of the Study

The study was organized into five chapters. Chapter One, which is the introductory chapter, covers the background to the study, statement of the problem and purpose of the study. It also covers the research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, and delimitations. Chapter Two discussed the related literature review which consisted of the theoretical framework of the study and empirical studies conducted relating to self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance. Chapter Three was devoted to the methods and technique that was adopted for the data collection and analysis. It delved into issues such as philosophical consideration, research approach and methods, research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, instrumentation, data collection and analysis as well as ethical considerations. Chapter Four dealt with the presentation and discussion of findings whilst Chapter Five was devoted to the summary of the findings, conclusions drawn from the study, recommendations made and areas for further study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This chapter reviews literature related to the study. It covers the theoretical, conceptual and empirical review of literature as well as the conceptual framework. The theoretical framework in quantitative studies such as this was crucial in determining how the variables included in this study were to be measured so as to earmark it associated research methodology guiding the study while the conceptual review assisted in giving meaning, scope as well the context of the study variables. The empirical review was devoted to the findings gathered from previous studies on the study variables around the world for comparison to be made with the findings emerging from this study. Besides, the literature review also delved into previous studies to gather views on work done in the area, identify gaps in earlier studies so as to put the study into perspective. The literature review also contains the conceptual framework of the study which depicts a scheme of interconnections between concepts that is necessary to recognize and comprehend the nature of these concepts involved in a study.

2.1 Theoretical Review: Social Cognitive Theory-Its Origin and Key Conceptions

This study was informed by Albert Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory. Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) is a psychologically derived theory that describes how individuals within social systems carry out different human processes, such as information and knowledge acquisition and adoption. Its main focus is on learning processes and the interplay between many elements that influence them. SCT was developed by Bandura in the mid-1970s and has since been widely used in research across a variety of disciplines (Bandura, 1977; 1986; 1988; 1989; 1998; 2000; 2001;

2004; 2009). SCT has its origins in the 1940s, with the articulation of Social Learning and Imitation Theory (Pálsdóttir, 2013).

The theory asserts that individuals are motivated to learn in response to numerous drivers, cues, responses, and incentives, one of which is social motivation, according to the main tenet of Social Learning and Imitation Theory. Social Learning Theory is a more modern and direct precursor of SCT (Bandura, 1997). SCT attempts to examine how people learn through social processes such as observing, imitating, and modeling other people's behaviors, according to Social Learning Theory.

SCT as proposed by Bandura revolves around human agency and its operation within an interdependent causal structure (Bandura, 1997, 2012). The structure involves three determinants: a) personal determinants, such as interpersonal influences of cognitive, affective, and biological states; b) behavioural determinants, such as one's responses in specific situations; and c) environmental determinants, which include various imposed, selected, and constructed environments (Bandura, 1997, 1999, 2012). These factors interact with one another, and the degree of interaction changes based on the actions and conditions (Bandura, 1997). This theory conceptualizes human abilities and capabilities as being determined by diverse factors that are closely interconnected. Bandura demonstrated that having an efficacy belief is linked to exercising control over action, as well as regulating one's mental processes, motivation, and affective and physiological states.

According to this SCT, people are seen as self-organizing, proactive, self-reflective, and self-regulating individuals, rather than reactive organisms shaped and shepherded by external forces or propelled by hidden inner urges. Human functioning is understood as the result of a dynamic interaction of personal, behavioral, and environmental

variables from this theoretical approach. This three-way interplay of behavior, personal elements (in the form of cognition, affect, and bodily events), and environmental influences or situations is referred to as "triadic reciprocality" by Bandura (1986; 2000) which reflect the kind of interaction that underlines personal, behavioral and environmental relationship that underscores the Social Cognitive Theory postulated by Bandura.

Bandura (1986) adapted Social Learning Theory as SCT to include determinants of learning that were overlooked in the previous version: cognitive elements important to the learning process, such as thought (for example, anticipated outcome expectations) and feelings (for example, anxiety), are also taken into account. SCT is distinguished by interactions between social and cognitive learning elements as determinants of behavior (Pálsdóttir, 2013).'Reciprocal determinism' is the word for this (Bandura, 1971). The 'triadic reciprocal causation' causal model emphasizes the three sets of components that interact, and bear impact. There are three types of elements: (i) cognitive and other personal factors including values, goals, and beliefs; (ii) environmental influences; and (iii) behavioral factors. Personal characteristics, for example, influence how people model and reinforce behaviors they see in others. As a result, the behaviors that individuals exhibit in a learning setting are determined.

The importance of agency is also recognized by SCT. Individual human agency is twofold in this case: humans are regarded as dependent agents who are both products and determinants of the social system in which they live. They have individual agency to act individually in any situation, as well as collective agency when they rely on others to achieve collective performance through group efforts (Bandura, 2000). SCT also benefits from larger networks within social systems because they provide avenues for

the diffusion of behaviors among populations. The fundamental focus of SCT is learning, which is a social activity. According to SCT, information and abilities are acquired through 'enactive mastery experience,' which is direct experience with skills or activities, and ‘mastery modeling,’ which is observant learning from role models (Gong, Huang & Farh, 2009). The mastery of new skills and knowledge is more important in SCT than the learning process' end or goal.

To this end, Bandura (1977; 1997) highlighted four major factors/sources that influence self-efficacy: a) mastery experience; b) vicarious experience; c) verbal persuasion; and d) psychological and affective states. It has been noted that these four sources do not influence efficacy views separately, but rather in concert (Bruce & Ross, 2008). The term “mastery experience” refers to one's perception of success or failure in a certain scenario; victories strengthen efficacy beliefs, whilst failures weaken them (Bandura, 1997). Easy success has a minor impact on self-efficacy, which is rapidly depleted by failures, and perseverance is required for a sustained sense of efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Other scholars (e.g., Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Usher & Pajares, 2008) agreed with Bandura’s conclusion that mastery experience is the most powerful source of self-efficacy.

The second source of self-efficacy is vicarious experience, which entails seeing others execute in a demanding setting. However, vicarious experience has a smaller impact on self-efficacy than mastery experience (Bandura, 1977). It has been suggested that the impact of vicarious experience on self-efficacy is influenced by group norms and one's relationships with the observed model (Bandura, 1997). Vicarious experience, for example, may have a higher influence on a person’s efficacy belief if the model has similar personal qualities (e.g., age, gender, and ethnicity) and/or a similar ability on

the task (Bandura, 1997; Usher & Pajares, 2008). Symbolic modeling via television or other media, as well as self-modeling via a number of tools such as VHS recording, are all examples of vicarious experience (Bandura, 1997).

Verbal persuasion, the third source, can be defined as evaluative feedback and appraisal from others (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura (1997), verbal persuasion alone may not be effective in raising self-efficacy; but positive appraisal mixed with real performance can enhance efficacy belief. Negative feedback or appraisal, on the other hand, might erode self-efficacy (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). The fourth source is psychological and affective states, which are defined as emotional arousal elicited by a stressful and demanding circumstance (Bandura, 1977). Anxiety and vulnerability are two emotional responses to stress that might influence one's assessment of one's capability (Bandura, 1997). Although the negative aspects of psychological and affective states are frequently explored in the literature (Morris, Usher, & Chen, 2017), the affective state can also have positive benefits; for example, excitement can improve efficacy belief. Based on this theory, self-efficacy beliefs among the Social Studies teachers could be determined by various factors such as their emotional intelligence and other factors which are likely to impact their job performance.

2.1.1 Relevance of the social cognitive theory within the context of this study

This theory is relevant within the context of this study for a number of reasons. First, because people are more inclined to stick with and choose activities in which they feel competent, while avoiding those in which they don't, indicating how self-efficacy influences teachers behaviour is crucial. Self-efficacy beliefs is significant because it influences which activities people choose to perform, how much effort they put into them, and how long they stick with them. Additionally, the relevance of this theory

within the context of the current study lies in the fact that teachers' self-efficacy, or their belief in their ability to effectively handle the responsibilities, obligations, and obstacles associated with their professional activity, have a significant impact on critical academic outcomes (e.g., students' achievement and motivation) and workplace well-being. Besides, it is vital to emphasize that self-efficacy is not about a person's actual skills; rather, it is about how valuable he or she thinks his or her skills are (Bandura, 1986). People's feelings, thoughts, motivation, perseverance, decisions, and behavior are considered to be governed by these ideas (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Wessels, 1994).

According to SCT, human functioning is the result of a complex interplay of personal, behavioral, and environmental factors. This three-way interplay of behavior, personal elements (in the form of cognition, affect, and bodily events), and environmental influences or situations is referred to as "triadic reciprocality" by Bandura (1986, 2000). Students' academic performance (behavioural variables) is determined by how they themselves are affected (cognitive factors) by instructional tactics (environmental factors) in the classroom, which accumulates in a cyclical pattern. Bandura suggested the cognitive personal element of self-efficacy, which relates to confidence in one's ability to plan and carry out the steps necessary to achieve specific goals. As opined by Bandura, the environment has an impact on self-efficacy, which has an impact on behavior. Consistently, Neves (2018) maintained that children have opinions about what's going on in the world. Besides, they possess developed beliefs to make sense of their daily lives, yet these ideas frequently clash with scientific viewpoints. Therefore, students must be seen as intelligent individuals with views that must be challenged and elicited.

According to Lekhu (2013), the most significant single aspect impacting learning is what the student already knows. As for the efficient teaching of Social Studies, knowledge of topic and methodology is insufficient on its own (Taimalu & Oim, 2005). Comprehending concepts in Social Studies necessitates procedural competence, which allows for the creation of linkages between scientific information and areas of experience (Traianou, 2006). Another important part of the interaction is the learner's understanding and traits. Another important part of the interaction is the understanding of learners and their qualities. As a result, assessing the degree of understanding and efficacy of teachers is critical in order for learners to be taught appropriately for meaningful learning to occur. Self-efficacy beliefs, could, therefore, be described as the most important of all the thoughts that affect human performance and are at the heart of the Social Cognitive Theory.

Furthermore, teachers' self-efficacy is thought to influence their level of effort and perseverance when mastering difficult tasks. Teachers who doubt their own efficacy will try to avoid dealing with academic issues and instead focus on themselves to alleviate their emotional distress. Teachers with high efficacy stuck with low-achieving students longer and employed more effective teaching tactics to help them learn faster (Ahmmed, Sharma, & Deppeler, 2012). Moreover, because efficacy beliefs are self-referent and focused toward perceived abilities given a specific task, they are powerful predictors of behavior. People's beliefs about what course of action to take, how much effort they will put into specific endeavors, and how long they will persevere in the face of challenges and failures are all influenced by their beliefs. The relevance of this theory is also captured in the argument that teachers with a high level of teacher self-efficacy have been demonstrated to be more resilient in their teaching and more likely to persist in helping all students attain their academic potential in challenging times. Hence, it is

believed that a teacher who assumed strongly in his or her own efficacy would be resilient, capable of solving challenges, and, most importantly, learn from their mistakes (Ross, Perkins & Bodey, 2016). In this thesis, therefore, the relevancy of SCT is contained in the argument that a teacher with low self-efficacy beliefs cannot be effective in the contemporary classrooms, which is why studying the nexus between teachers self-efficacy beliefs and job performance is so important.

2.1.2 Application of the social cognitive theory within the context of this study

Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory is valid in the context of this study because, it represents a paradigm shift from theory to practice. In applying this theory to the study, it could be said that when teacher educators feel their activities will result in the desired end, they are more likely to act and persevere in the face of challenges or when influe nced by other personal variables. When teacher educators do not believe that their activities will result in the desired outcomes, they are less likely to endure or act in the face of adversity. The success of Social Studies Curriculum depends on job performance of the teachers which is influenced by self-efficacy beliefs. Self-efficacy beliefs are, therefore, believed to constitute personal factors affecting teachers job performance in teaching.

Self-efficacy produces personal determinates in this causal structure, and it plays a critical role since it influences adaptation and change in the structure through its impact on other determinants (Bandura, 1997, 2001). Self-efficacy, for example, influences one's ability to think (e.g., pessimistically or optimistically) and self-control of motivation, which determine one's willingness to take on challenges, the amount of work exerted, and the patience with which one faces problems (Bandura, 2001). Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory has been used extensively by researchers in diverse fields of endeavors. Many organizational studies in domains such as sport, politics,

health, and academia were prompted by the introduction of this notion. The rationale for this is that, self-efficacy beliefs influence people's actions and are an important concept for understanding human behavior in many situations (Bandura 1986; Bandura 1997). It also has a significant impact on people's decisions, efforts, and tenacity in the face of adversity (Bandura, 1986).

In arguing for the choice of this theory in education, Waweru, Kihoro and Gachunga (2021) stated that self-efficacy has recently gotten a lot of attention in the world of education because it has been discovered to be one of the most essential variables continuously linked to positive teaching behaviors like dedication. This is due to the fact that teachers with higher teaching efficacy find teaching interesting and gratifying, expect students to succeed, have a good attitude toward themselves and their students, feel in control, and share their goals with students. According to Bandura's theory, teachers' self-efficacy influences their actions in the classroom (in the context of this thesis, their actions and beliefs during social studies instruction) and their behavior in order to achieve desired outcomes for students. 'People's judgments about their skills to organize and execute courses of action required to achieve recognized sorts of performance' is how the concept is defined (Bandura 1986). According to Bandura and Evans (2006), teachers' self-efficacy can be influenced by factors beyond their control, affecting their classroom performance as a result (Bandura 1997).

2.2 Teacher Efficacy and Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs Explained

Literature has shown that the concept of teacher efficacy can be distinguished from teachers' personal/self-efficacy beliefs. As a result, Lekhu (2013) identified two strands of efficacy, thus, teaching efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. This view is supported by the position of Wyatt (2018) who maintained that in spite of the fact that

the terms have been used interchangeably by many researchers, efficacy beliefs and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are two independent constructs. Whereas teachers' efficacy or feeling of efficacy relates to their belief in their ability to influence student performance, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs refer to teachers' belief in their ability to accomplish certain instructional tasks at a set level of quality in a specified situation.

According to a review of the literature, more research into the concept of self-efficacy, which is linked to positive improvements, is needed. Self-efficacy beliefs and behavior changes and results are significantly associated, according to researchers; and self-efficacy is a good predictor of behavior. It also demonstrates that it is not merely a question of one's ability, but also of one's belief in one's ability. Hence, scholars have proffered various delineations of the concept of self-efficacy beliefs. In the view of Fu and Wang (2021) self-efficacy beliefs of teachers denotes their beliefs in their own capability to achieve certain teaching tasks. This definition suggests that teachers' self-efficacy is discussed in relation to their confidence, in their ability to execute instructional practices in the classroom that has the potential to influence students' learning and development. Therefore, in the school setting, teachers' self-efficacy belief is the extent to which teachers' faith in their ability to assist learning in a variety of cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social ways in varied task, domain, and context-specific ways.

Emily, Jody, Pauline and Patricia (2018) supported the view of Fu and Wang (2021) when they described self-efficacy as the belief in one's own ability to be successful in a particular circumstance. This definition further validates the earlier argument conceiving self-efficacy as one's belief in one's capability to exercise control over his or her own functioning and over environmental event. Conceivably, self-efficacy belief

relates to the level of confidence an individual has in his or her ability to execute certain course of action or to achieve specific outcomes. Ozturk and Ertem (2017) also asserted that self-efficacy is an individual's belief in the ability to achieve an expected outcome. Teacher self-efficacy beliefs are defined as teachers' confidence in their ability to do the necessary actions in order to successfully complete the teaching assignment. A teacher with a developed self-efficacy belief is very likely to have students with enhanced self-efficacy views. In fact, teachers who believe in their own abilities deliver more effective learning than others (Kaçar, 2016; Ekici, 2018). It is the belief teachers have of themselves that they possess the ability to deal with any instructional/classroom related issue and be successful in them. Therefore, teacher self-efficacy is the belief of teachers that they can successfully accomplish any instructional or classroom related task.

Yilmaz (2020) unveiled two main criteria for determining teacher-efficacy, thus, teachers who possess substantial confidence in their efficacy are described with terms such as confidence, a positive sense of teacher-efficacy, or more efficacious; those with moderate or low levels of efficacy are branded as possessing less confidence, doubtful of their efficacy, having a low sense of teacher efficacy, or less efficacious. According to Yilmaz (2019), highly efficacious teachers believe that they can influence learning outcomes of learners; the less efficacious teachers believe that there is little that can be done to affect learners' outcomes, or that they personally lack the skill to do so. In essence, perceived self-efficacy influences how well goals are achieved by affecting how much effort and perseverance a person will put in when confronted with challenges. That is, the higher our self-efficacy, the more active our attempts will be. Higher self-efficacy is also linked to more perseverance, a personality attribute that permits us to gain corrective experiences that strengthen our self-efficacy.

Previous research has mostly characterized teachers' self-efficacy as their confidence in their ability to do professional duties that may have an impact on student learning (Klassen, Tze, Betts, & Gordon, 2011; Morris et al., 2017; Locke, Whitehead & Dix, 2013). Teachers' efficacy beliefs have been found to have context-specific qualities and are linked to instructional competencies and tasks (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). As a result, cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes have been identified by researchers. Within the cognitive processes, high self-efficacy contributes to the adoption of higher goals, enhanced commitment, and the assumption that goals will be met despite failures along the way. Through motivational processes, high self-efficacy persons assume responsibility for the results of their actions through motivational processes, attributing success and failure to their own efforts rather than events outside their control whereas within the context of the affective process, those with strong self-efficacy acquire coping skills that allow them to turn off negative thoughts that impair performance. For the selection processes, self-efficacy influences the activities and settings that people choose (Bandura, 1993). It could be deduced from these postulations that people do not just acquire and hold beliefs about their own self-worth and ability to achieve goals and overcome challenges. As a result, it is critical for Social Studies teachers to foster enthusiastic and optimistic self-efficacy perceptions in their students, because people with optimistic self-efficacy perceptions are more likely to engage in challenging activities, to be more steadfast in their pursuit of their goals, and to demonstrate both cognitive and affective resilience in the face of setbacks. Those who have low self-efficacy views, on the other hand, have attributes that are detrimental to their performance (Steyn & Mynhardt, 2008). In this study, Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is conceptualized as their confidence, competence and enthusiasm in selecting suitable instructional activities, organizing lessons and being able to handle

challenging instructional situations in the classroom so as to trigger and foster students learning.

2.2.1 Dimensions of teacher efficacy beliefs

Evidence in literature has revealed that two main research strands have dominated the field of teacher-efficacy: Rotter's (1954) locus of control theory and Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. Rotter's (1954) locus of control theory is the earliest teacher-efficacy theory to be formalized, and it dominated teacher-efficacy studies from the 1950s-1980s. The Rand Corporation conducted the first efficacy studies, which were based on Rotter's social learning theory. The Rand researchers, whose work spurred interest in teacher efficacy, cite an article by Rotter (1966) titled "Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement" as their inspiration for integrating the two efficacy items in their questionnaire. Teachers who agree that the environment's effect overwhelms a teacher's ability to influence a student's learning believe that reinforcement of their teaching efforts is out of their control or external to them. Teachers who believe they can teach tough or uninspired pupils believe that the reinforcement of instructional activities is under their control or is internal.

2.2.2 Indicators of teachers self-efficacy beliefs

Following the number of unanswered and unresolved issues that continue to perplex and mystify researchers working in the area of teacher-efficacy, there has been the need to examine the conceptual understanding of the real constituents of the concept of self-efficacy beliefs. Accordingly, this study associates and therefore employs Bandura's definition of self-efficacy to provide clear dimensions and indicators of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. To this end, in seeking to demystify and clarify the confusion surrounding the concept of teacher efficacy, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) have

comprehensively reviewed literature and have offered a very refined indicator(s) of the concept of teacher self-efficacy beliefs that is well grounded and rooted in the socio-cognitive theory postulated by Bandura and, therefore, outlines three main dimensions/indicators of teacher self-efficacy, which are efficacy for student engagement, efficacy for instructional strategies and efficacy for classroom management. Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) further articulated that their model is reflective of the triadic and reciprocal relationship between the individual, the environment and their behavior which is the focal point underlying the socio-cognitive theory by Bandura.

2.2.3 Student engagements

Given the critical role of teachers in increasing student engagement, a number of researchers have attempted to investigate the effects of teacher-related factors on learner engagement. The majority of these studies, on the other hand, have focused on teacher interpersonal variables such as self-efficacy and their links to student engagement (Derakhshan, 2021; Zheng, 2021). Student engagement can be defined as a condition of emotional, social, and intellectual willingness and preparedness to learn characterized by curiosity, participation, and the drive to learn more (Abla & Fraumeni, 2019; Zhen et al., 2017). It also relates to the involvement, keenness, attentiveness, and desire of students that keep them in touch with their learning (Bery & Stanikzai, 2018). The relationship between self-efficacy convictions and student involvement was investigated by several researchers. Teacher self-efficacy for student engagement is a measure of how confident teachers are in their ability to motivate students (Van-Uden, Ritzen, & Pieters, 2013). Teachers that have a high level of self-efficacy believe that they are significant and that their curriculum is meaningful, which encourages students to come to class, show interest in classes, and expand their learning options (Martin et

al., 2012). Teacher efficacy beliefs in student involvement can also influence a teacher's approach to instruction and impact a teacher's professional achievements (Martin et al., 2012). Better levels of teacher self-efficacy have been linked to higher levels of student engagement, according to studies (Van-Uden, Ritzen, & Pieters, 2013).

Student engagement refers to how actively students engage with course information, other students, and the instructor by thinking, talking, and interacting with it (Dixson, 2015). There is a link between student engagement, student behavior, and academic accomplishment, according to correlations (Sullivan et al., 2017). Teachers may impact student involvement by offering caring surroundings, structured classes, and student support, according to research (Skinner et a., 2016). Measurement of student engagement has been found to be useful in identifying at-risk students in the classroom (Freire et al., 2019). Attending school, following instructor directions, completing tasks, and having a positive attitude about class are all examples of ideal student engagement behaviors (Finn & Zimmer, 2012). Actively engaged students are alert, participate in class discussions, and are eager to learn, while boosting participation and reducing disruptive behaviors frees up time for education (Reeve, 2012).

Available literature presents different kinds of student engagements. Abla and Fraumeni (2019), for instance, identified three kinds of student engagements: behavioral, emotional and cognitive. A behavioral engagement delineates students' interactive and emotional dispositions to school. This construct of student engagement is conceived to be easier to make out as compared to cognitive and emotional forms of engagement. Abla and Fraumeni hold the view that emotional engagement includes student feelings of interest, anxiety, happiness, sadness and boredom. According to Abla and colleague, cognitive engagement which is closely related to student

motivation manifests in students' desire and ability to engage in a variety of strategies to self-direct learning. Likewise, Cataudella et al., (2021) articulated three delineations of behavioral engagements. The first includes positive behavior, such as following the rules, and the absence of disruptive behaviors such as skipping. A second definition reflects involvement in learning which includes behaviors such as effort, persistence, concentration, and attention while the third definition involves participation in school-related activities.

Studies have revealed that effective student engagement is a prerequisite for effective teaching and learning amongst students (Hallman, 2020; Leob, 2020). Practitioners have observed that engaging students effectively in the instructional delivery process is the gate-way for creating safe learning atmosphere that are respectful and inclusive for the learning benefit of their students. According to Franklin and Harrington (2019), a teacher's job entails much more than simply conveying curriculum results to students: they must also provide them with the tools they need to achieve social and academic success both inside and beyond the classroom. To develop into critical independent thinkers, teachers must provide children with the tools to critically analyze the world around them. Students must be skilled in using abilities associated with higher levels of thinking, which will provide them with the ability to detect, analyze, and evaluate the unlimited number of data available in our fast-changing digital environment.

Aligned to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2007) principle of effective student engagement, Pressley and Ha (2021) espoused that teachers must provide secure, courteous, and inclusive learning environments for their students' benefit. Pressley and Ha further articulated that teachers with high sense of self-efficacy are able to show kindness, empathy, and understanding to their students and remember that these are just

a few of the character attributes that contribute to this secure learning environment for a successful student engagement. These, therefore, suggest that teachers are to engage with students on a more personal level. Teachers must have a solid understanding of their students, including how they learn and what they are interested in, in order to provide effective instruction. Teachers are therefore, required to plan lessons to maximize engagement and promote autonomy and ownership of learning, where students choose excellence and mastery as their educational outcome, by acknowledging that all students approach learning differently and have a variety of preferences for instruction (Sokal, Trudel & Babb, 2020).

Extant studies have validated that positive school environments engender positive outcomes across students of all ages (Kim et al., 2015). These studies reckoned that well-defined organizational structures in the classroom promote student engagement, positive self- concept, and adaptive behaviour (King, Jennifer & Gaerlan, 2014). Stipek (2012) observed that even though teachers' anticipations for student success are not the same as teachers' self-efficacy, they are related in that students' success is to some degree a consequence of teachers' ability to produce positive learning outcomes. Efficacious teachers are usually more experienced teachers who are confident in their abilities to use various strategies to build relationships and engage students in a supportive learning climate. In their interviews with teachers and students, Peterson et al. (2011) found evidence to support the value placed on relationship building by both students and teachers, with teachers in particular endorsing the importance of teacher-student relationships.

In his study on students with learning difficulties, Lloyd (1995) provided an opportunity to respond to a question about what could be done to make things easier for them from

the perspective of the students. The outcome of the study revealed that the personal interactions and engagement teachers have with their students was instrumental in overcoming the difficulties students have in their learning and development. Lloyd's study further revealed that the teacher who took time to encourage, provided scaffold are the ones who get the best out of their students. Teachers who got frustrated because a student was slow in completing a task were discovered to have had a major impact on how students felt about themselves and about their work in general. Deductively, teachers are to use creative ways to motivate students so as to instill a sense of pride in students as they succeed at tasks.

Kangas (2010) also noted that besides emotional security, critical component of effective student engagement calls for the creation of classroom environment that contribute to student's physical, cultural, and socio-emotional well-being. Lekhu (2013) added clarity to this viewpoint when he observed that in creating such an environment, especially in challenging circumstances, the teacher's own personal abilities relative to their self-efficacy may be tested and that instances of doubts about their self-efficacy in such circumstances could render the teacher destitute.

Findings from Rubie-Davies et al., (2012) study revealed how the pedagogical beliefs and self-reported practices of high and low expectation teachers differed in substantive ways. In this study, high-expectation teachers were discovered to value the social climate of the classroom (Rubie-Davies, 2007). It was further again revealed that such teachers actively and directly engaged with students and promoted cooperative learning, they reported encouraging their students to work with a variety of their peers. It could be construed that though students ought to be given some ownership for their learning, teachers must monitor their students' progress closely, provide them with

feedback about their learning, and set clear learning goals with students. Therefore, efficacious teachers must ensure that the tasks students complete are exciting and interesting so as to foster effective engagement with their students.

Teachers who have a high sense of efficacy have been found to be less critical of student mistakes, work harder with struggling students and are willing to be more persistent and willing to take risks, such as trying new strategies, due to a lower fear of failure (Marsh et al., 2018). Teachers with poor self-efficacy are more likely to send difficult pupils for special education services in comparable scenarios (Tschannen-Moran, Hoy & Hoy, 2007). According to Gebbie et al. (2012), teachers must have strong efficacy beliefs in order to remain resolute and persistent in the face of adversity. Students with more efficacious teachers had higher academic achievements, motivation and higher student self-efficacy (Lazarides, Buchholz & Rubach, 2018; Fackler & Malmberg, 2016), and self-efficacy. According to Tschannen-Moran, Hoy and Hoy (2007), teachers with high self-efficacy in student engagement show higher planning and organization, are more constructive in their responses to students' failures, and are more tenacious when facing challenges while also being more receptive to new ideas and teaching techniques. These, therefore, suggest that teachers must possess good level of self-efficacy beliefs for better and improved student engagements in the classroom so as to reap in the benefits therein. Hence, teacher self-efficacy in student engagement is a theoretical concept that is highly relevant in the teaching context.

Student engagement is a critical component of keeping students engaged in the classroom as well as their learning (Cerit, 2019). However, studies have shown that throughout adolescence, student participation begins to wane, and by the time students enter high school, half of them say they do not take school seriously (Pianta, Hamre, &

Allen, 2012). Students will not learn unless they are fully involved in the classroom's academic work (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). As a result, a student's ability to learn is determined by how involved he or she is in class activities (Reyes et al, 2012). Hence, students are more likely to stay engaged in learning if their teachers deliver rich instruction and relevant material, therefore, calling for the need for increased and continual student participation which has been identified as a feasible way in ensuring active participation in the classroom and dropout prevention strategy that could be deployed in schools (Fredricks et al., 2019).

Students who are disengaged in school have more discipline problems, lower grades, are less likely to pursue higher education possibilities, and are more likely to drop out (Reyes et al., 2012). Disengaged teenagers are also more prone to skip school, join gangs, and engage in risky sexual activity (Furrer, Skinner, & Pitzer, 2014). Furthermore, disengaged students are resentful and believe they are incompetent (Skinner & Pitzer, 2012). Furthermore, students who are disengaged and in need of positive relationships are less likely to build these ties with their professors (Van Ulden et al., 2014). More data collection and study on student engagement have resulted from greater interest and knowledge of the link between disengagement and dropout rates.

Despite the importance of teachers' perception of efficacy (individual and collective efficacy) in increasing student engagement (Papa, 2015; Khong et al., 2017), few studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between these variables. Furthermore, no review study has been conducted within the Ghanaian context on the concepts of Social Studies teachers self-efficacy, teacher collective efficacy, and student engagement, as well as the relationship between these variables. In light of the aforementioned issues, the current study aimed to close this gap by examining the level

of Social Studies teacher-efficacy beliefs as reflected in student involvement and engagement during Social Studies instruction.

2.2.4 Instructional strategies and methods

The growing student need and diversity in today's classroom environment makes it imperative for teachers to be efficacious who can design and adopt instructional strategies, methods, techniques as well as materials so as to meet the diversity in the classroom. Kim, Raza and Seidman (2019) added clarity to this viewpoint when they posited that in an era where the development of competencies known as 21st-century skills are garnering increasing attention, having efficacious teachers with good sense of instructional strategies and methods is considered as a means of improving teacher instructional quality. With this line of thought, Ozkal (2019) posited that instructional strategy and resources have been identified as a potent technique for improving teaching and learning.

The value of good instructional resources in teaching and learning can be shown by how well they are used in the classroom. This, therefore, suggests and calls for the need to develop the 21st century teaching skills that will be nourished with a range of competencies, including critical thinking, problem solving, creativity, meta-cognition, communication, digital and technological literacy, civic responsibility, and global awareness. Kim, Raza and Seidman (2019) argued that in order to develop 21st-century students, attention must be focused on teachers' 21st century skills and re-conceptualize how we can evaluate and train teachers. Understandably, to achieve this calls for an invocation of the constructivist understandings of what go on in classrooms and, in particular, teachers' effectiveness in their classroom practices such as their instructional strategies and methods, which are measure of their efficacy beliefs.

Instructional strategies are the approaches, methods, and abilities that teachers use in the teaching and learning process (Ofodu, 2012). In addition, instructional techniques can be defined as approaches for organizing content, delivering knowledge, and carrying out activities that help students learn better (Rizwan & Khan, 2015). As a result, classroom teachers must be well-versed in a variety of teaching styles in order to address the unique needs of each student (Crider et al., 2014). Instructional tactics should be part of a teacher's everyday routine, providing a platform for all students to learn and thrive (Lourenco, Goncalves, & Elias, 2015). Teachers who are efficacious must plan well, apply tried-and-true instructional tactics, and combine research-based teaching strategies (Williams, Sullivan, & Kohn, 2012). Student outcomes, the connection between instruction and instructional strategy, and the skills and information taught to accomplish desired learning outcomes are all addressed in instructional methods (Abdelaziz, 2012). As a result, teacher knowledge is critical in choosing the best tactics for kids (Thomas & Green, 2015).

Teacher self-efficacy has a significant impact on instructional practices (Sandholtz & Ringstaff, 2014). Furthermore, teacher self-efficacy beliefs have an impact on the planning and selection of instructional tactics in the classroom (Tarkin & Uzuntiryaki, 2012). Highly effective teachers are more inclined to implement and use novel instructional approaches because they are confident in their ability to teach (Shoulders & Krei, 2015). The sort of techniques utilized to impart education has been proven to be influenced by a teacher's level of efficacy (Rubie-Davies, Flint, & McDonald, 2012). According to Chang (2015), there are two aspects of teaching efficacy that are linked to instructional tactics. Whereas the first is course design, the second is instructional tactics, which the teacher uses to ensure that students learn well. The teacher is in charge of selecting and implementing instructional tactics, and being able to meet this

commitment in the classroom has been linked to greater levels of teacher-efficacy (Bedir, 2015). Furthermore, high teacher self-efficacy is a quality of professionalism that may be enhanced through professional development (Holzberger, Philipp, & Kunter, 2013).

Teacher's efficacy in instructional strategies relates to his/her ability to plan, prepare, and deliver academic teaching in a way that creates optimal learning settings (Pas, Bradshaw, & Hershfeldt, 2012). According to Pas et al., teacher-efficacy has been linked to effective instruction, proactive and positive classroom management, and student academic progress. Even in difficult conditions, when teachers' efficacy for teaching is high, they are likely to use a variety of instructional tactics from their repertoire that are autonomy-supportive and favorable for student engagement and achievement outcomes. Teachers with high efficacy feel they can successfully create and teach children who are at risk of failing in school due to their behavior, family background, or other external reasons (Gibson & Dembo, 1984, cited in Pas et al., 2015).

High efficacy teachers are more likely to acquire and implement new teaching ideas and strategies as a result of this, while also adapting individual students' understanding of what is being taught. Professional learning activities that provide adequate time for teachers to analyze their views and behaviors about student diversity are critical in assisting instructors in developing such effective classroom practices (Buxton, Salinas, Mahotiere, Lee, & Secada, 2013). Evaluation and reflection throughout training and staff development programs are components of learning and experience that enable high efficacy teachers stay ahead of the curve, avoiding potentially harmful situations.

2.2.5 Classroom management

The most effective classroom management tactics are those that may prevent problematic behavior from becoming a problem in the first place (Andreou & Rapti, 2010). Classroom management is one of a number of critical abilities and duties that instructors must have in order to accomplish the educational goals of schooling (Brouwers & Tomic, 2000). According to O'Neill and Stephenson (2011), one of two major task structures in classrooms is establishing and maintaining order and control, with the other being learning or instruction. Teachers who can manage their classrooms in the face of adversity, according to Dibapile (2012), become excellent classroom managers. Classroom management is an important skill to learn if you want to be a successful teacher (Sivri, & Balc, 2015). Indeed, classroom management has been identified as the most influential factor influencing student learning and engagement (Johansen, Little, & Akin-Little, 2011). According to Stefaniak and Tracy (2015), positive student behavior benefits both teachers and students, and positive relationships lead to positive classroom environments and positive student behaviors and that classrooms that are well-managed inspire teachers to become more motivated and improve their job performance, which increases job satisfaction and work attitude.

For a variety of reasons, not every student would enter a classroom equipped and ready to learn in the same manner that others will. Children living in and affected by poverty and related settings are more likely to develop disruptive behavioral problems as a result of their circumstances, hence, teachers must be able to use a variety of tactics to control disruptive behavior in the classroom in order to be effective (Dibapile, 2012). In their view, Morningstar et al., (2015) argued that teachers with strong self-efficacy, will work harder and endure longer when teaching challenging pupils, in part because they believe in their own teaching talents as well as their students' abilities. They employ

positive management tactics that have previously proven effective; they aid low-achieving students; they improve student academic self-efficacy; they create attainable goals for their students; and they persevere when faced with student failure. Key elements include encouraging student participation and boosting engagement. Instructional activities and projects that grab students' attention and engage everyone in participatory learning have been reported to lessen discipline problems (Pankowski & Walker, 2016).

Effective teachers provide safe, secure, and welcoming learning environments that result in fewer discipline issues, improved student involvement, and higher academic accomplishment (Andersen, Evans, & Harvey, 2012; Mitchell, Bradshaw, & Leaf, 2013). According to Cleveland-Innes and Campbell (2012), while teaching, it is not just about following the rules; it is also about figuring out what would encourage involvement at various levels. When it comes to devising appropriate instructional activities that can increase student engagement, researchers emphasize the need of getting to know students as individuals (Morningstar et al., 2015; Cleveland-Innes & Campbell, 2012; Dibapile, 2012). Children are generally happy and engaged in such learning environments, love being in class, and feel emotionally comfortable and safe (Andersen et al., 2012). A variety of classroom circumstances might lead to issues with behavior control. The knowledge gained from training and staff development programs, according to researchers, will equip instructors for successful classroom management and boost the likelihood of students participating and learning in the classroom (Johansen, Little, & Akin-Little, 2011; Pankowski & Walker, 2016). Therefore, effective training that assists teachers gain the skills needed to deal with problems is a key step toward preparing teachers for chaotic classrooms.

The ability of a teacher to properly manage a classroom has an effect on student achievement (Shoulders & Krei, 2015). Classroom management concerns appear to have a causal effect on student achievement, according to research (Weeks, 2012). According to Unal and Unal (2013), classroom management is the most critical component in determining student academic progress, and student behavior is one of the top three issues in public schools. Garland et al., (2013) also believes that instructors who are excellent in behavior management create classroom conditions that encourage children to learn and perform better (Garland et al., 2013). The social-behavioral milieu of a school has an impact on academic performance (Spaulding, Irvin, Horner, May, Emeldi, Tobin, & Suguai, 2010).

To protect students from harassment, bullying, racism, negative stereotypes, and abuse, teachers must critically analyze their own stereotypes and prejudices, as well as be aware of any underlying negative views in the classroom (Krause, Boucher, Duchesne & McMaugh, 2010). For improved learning outcomes, teachers and students must collaborate and cooperate in a shared environment that supports diversity and fosters curiosity about others. Professionalism in thinking, action, and communication are non-negotiable demands and criteria for teachers in their job as educators. Teachers ought to model desirable and proper behaviors to their peers, parents, and children on a regular basis, since their reactions and inactions, responses, and negotiations are all observed and relayed. Teachers' behaviors reinforce and set the expectation for student behavior: if teachers are disorganized, late to class, and unprepared, they cannot expect their students to behave in the same way.

Accordingly, the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL, 2014) has provided a framework which outlines a clear set of principles for teachers

relative to the responsibilities they have toward their students and their own professional knowledge. According to the framework, if a teacher's role is to instruct, then supreme to this role is to instruct in a manner that reaches every student, improving educational outcomes and promoting personalised learning for all students, regardless of their background, level of advantage or disadvantage, or where they sit along the learning continuum (Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA), 2008).

The classroom social environment presents an interesting and dynamic interplay between what the teacher and the students perceive as positive, conducive to learning and mutually beneficial. In some ways, classrooms can be likened to an open economy of producers and consumers. Teachers aim to produce a product that will engage, motivate and attract focused and sustained attention, so in this sense, students are everyday consumers: if the environment or product on offer doesn't meet their needs or demands, then students will simply disengage. It is imperative to know therefore what our students want, and to identify where the similarities and differences lie in what teachers perceive to be ideal classroom environments.

Researchers have observed that because kids are more engaged and enthused about learning, teachers who establish a sense of community, respond to students' needs, and foster positive relationships are more likely to promote academic achievement (Reyes, Brackett, Rivers, White, & Salovey, 2012). Teachers will see changes in classroom behavior and a decrease in hostility as a result of improved connections (Alderman & Green, 2011). Teachers in good classroom environments, according to MacSuga-Gage, Simonsen, and Briere (2012), consistently implemented scientifically supported classroom management plans (MacSuga-Gage et al., 2012). MacSuga-Gage et al.,

(2012) goes on to suggest that when teachers use positive classroom interventions, student-teacher relationships will automatically arise. Higher student involvement, a focus on teaching, and a healthy classroom climate that supports student achievement are also advantages of positive student-teacher interactions (De Jong etal., 2014). In a favorable classroom environment, student motivation is also higher, which may contribute to increased student learning (Harjunen, 2012).

Teachers must cultivate a learning culture in both their schools and classrooms in order for students to achieve their maximum academic levels (Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004). Weeks (2012) defined the components of a learning culture as having the following characteristics: educators' and learners' attitudes toward learning, a school's level of dedication and commitment, administrators' and teachers' joint effort, educators' input, learners' personal characteristics, socioeconomic factors, and other social factors. According to classroom management studies, caring environments for kids can have an impact on student behavior results (Hulac & Benson, 2010). As a result, teachers must be able to create a pleasant learning atmosphere that encourages students to succeed (Eisenman et al., 2015).

According to Weeks (2012), there is a link between student motivation and caring teachers, and students who perceive their teachers care about them are more likely to be motivated to excel. Students in well-managed classrooms are more engaged, experience more academic success, have fewer behavioral concerns, and have more instructional time (Marquez et al., 2016). Teachers with bad classroom management skills, on the other hand, frequently respond to student misconduct with poor classroom management skills such vocal reprimands, threats, and humiliating statements (Reglin, Akpo-Sanni, & Losike-Sedimo, 2012).

Having established that teacher's self-efficacy beliefs comprise a range of complex socio-emotional and beahvioural competencies, it is not surprising that scholars have identified beliefs as a multidimensional construct. To some scholars, self-efficacy is the observable phenomena whilst others conceptualize it as the competencies, values and norms that serve as a glue that holds effective classroom instruction. Others also view teachers' self-efficacy as upholding the status quo, inspiring, being innovate, and mentoring students as well as ensuring participatory classroom environment. In sum, teachers' self-efficacy belief is the glue that welds both teachers and students together for the effective instructional delivery and the realization of educational goals, and the absence of this glue would bring about disastrous effects on the realization of educational goals and objectives. As such teacher self-efficacy can be construed to be malleable, multi-dimensional construct which combines three dimensions of student engagement, instructional methods and classroom management.

Importantly, the literature reveals a solid understanding of how teachers' self-efficacy beliefs influence student engagements, instructional method and classroom management, highlighting the view that the teacher's role as being paramount to ensuring students are able to experience meaningful instructional engagement. Therefore, this study adopted the indicators of the construct teachers' self-efficacy beliefs postulated by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) that teachers self-efficacy beliefs encompass teachers exhibiting competencies and showing prowess in student engagement, instructional strategies as well as their self-efficacy in classroom management. These elements were considered in the study because they relate well to the Ghanaian education context, and the results would have implications for effective classroom instruction in Social Studies learning.

2.3 Emotional Intelligence: Evolutions and Key Conceptions

The concept of emotional intelligence is not a new psychological construct and has in recent years gained popularity as a cross cutting issue that transcend psychology to other disciplines such as the field of education. The concept is traceable to Harlow (1848) who offered physiological evidence that suggested an idea of emotional intelligence in his medical case of Phineas Gage. When a 43-inch tamping iron travelled through his face and emerged from the top of his skull, removing the frontal lobe section of his brain, Gage was said to have sustained serious trauma to his frontal lobe. Gage appeared to be able to function physically and mentally upon his recovery, but his actions were described as irrational, erratic, and impetuous, with soaring tempers and excessive profanity. “The disruption of the equilibrium between his cerebral powers and the animal propensities” Harlow said of the injury's ramifications. His mental equilibrium was vanished" (pp. 339-340). Harlow's description of a balance resembles today's acceptance of the theory of emotional intelligence.

Indeed, the concept of emotional intelligence is also traceable to and takes inspiration from Goleman (1995) who quoted from Aristotle’s “The Nicomacbean Ethics” suggesting the idea of emotional intelligence: “Anyone can be angry-that is easy, but to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purposes, and the right way is not easy”. Recently, the popularity of the concept of emotional intelligence takes its roots to Thorndike’s (1920) social intelligence which he described as “the ability to understand men and women, boys and girls-to act wisely in human relations” (p. 228).

Thorndike also defined social intelligence as "the ability to recognize one’s own and others’ internal feelings, motives, and behaviors, and to behave appropriately on the

basis of that information" (as described in Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 187). According to some studies, social intelligence is merely the capacity to get along with people (Moss & Hunt, 1927). In 1930, the Bureau of Public Personnel Administration employed a partially standardized social intelligence measure and classified social intelligence as the "capacity to get people to do what he wants them to do regularly and voluntarily, and even enjoy doing it" (p. 73). Gardner (1983) defined intelligence as "the ability to solve problems and create products that are valued in one or more cultures" in the 1980s (p. x). Gardner claims that a single IQ test is incapable of measuring the wide range of intelligences that he defines as eight multiple intelligences: linguistic, logical mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalist intelligences. Gardner's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences (1999) would pave the way for more modern emotional intelligence theories.

Gardner defined interpersonal intelligence as "a person's capacity to understand the intentions, motivations, and desires of others and, as a result, to work effectively with others" (p. 43), and intrapersonal intelligence as "the capacity to understand oneself, to have an effective working model of oneself including one's own desires, fears, and capacities and to use such information effectively in regulating one's own life" (p. 43).

Goleman (1995), who featured on the cover of Time Magazine after questioning why some people with high IQs were not successful and others with lower IQs became very successful, promoted emotional intelligence. More recent conceptions of emotional intelligence in the 1990s stressed the premise that everyone experiences emotions. Individuals were able to correctly manage circumstances by being aware of their own emotions as well as the emotions of others. Early emotional intelligence ideas

emphasized the necessity for leaders to be aware of their own emotions as well as the emotions of their employees in order to build a cohesive team.

Although there are two schools of thought on the conceptual foundation of emotional intelligence, it is widely agreed that emotional intelligence is unique from Wechsler's (1955) IQ. Some emotional intelligence researchers believe that emotional intelligence is influenced by personality traits (Schutte et al., 1998). Others consider emotional intelligence to be a skill-based trait (Mayer, & Salovey 1993). A third group considers emotional intelligence to be a hybrid model that incorporates both ability and trait-based components (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 1995). The preceding paragraphs have given the trajectory leading to the concept of emotional intelligence. Below, an attempt is made to explain as well as conceptualize emotional intelligence relative to the study as well as the essence behind its inclusion in education.

2.3.1 Meaning of the concept of emotional intelligence

Literature is replete with varied descriptions of emotional intelligence, consequently, scholars have offered their definitions of emotional intelligence. However, to better appreciate and comprehend the meaning of emotional intelligence, an attempt is made to first explain the meaning of emotion and intelligence. Emotion which emanates from a Latin word “Emovere” literally means to be ‘stirred up,’ or ‘to stimulate’. Emotions literally jerk a person. Because emotion and feeling are so closely linked, the quantity of emotion rises as the intensity of feeling rises, and the body is prompted or stimulated. 'Emotion' is the term for this aroused state (Cherry, 2021).

According to Kuhakoski (2016), while emotion encapsulates a strong feeling arising from one's circumstances, mood, or relationships with others, intelligence relates to the ability to acquire and use knowledge and skills. Rehman (2020) defined emotional

intelligence (EI) as the ability to understand one's own feelings as well as those of others, the ability to channel negative emotions in a positive direction, and the rationale for using emotions in a productive and qualitative manner. Emotions involve various sorts of interdependent reactions at the same time, such as physiological, biochemical, cognitive, relational, and so on, making a coherent explanation of this phenomena challenging (Edara, 2021). Emotional intelligence is conceived as people's self-awareness of their feelings and wants, as well as their capacity to identify and combine them with their own long-term personal demands as well as the needs and feelings of others (Serrat, 2017). Likewise, Gómez-Leal et al. (2021) explain EI as an individual's capacity to perceive, value, and adequately express his/her emotion. The scholars also assert that the idea that emotion serves as the foundation for action is crucial because it enables comprehension of the idea that all human activities are founded on emotional responses. In furtherance to this line of reasoning, Usha and Solomon (2022) described EI as the ability to use, perceive, understand and control the emotions of oneself or another person.

Corroborating this view, Edara (2021) described emotional intelligence as individuals' ability to recognize and distinguish between distinct emotions and feelings in themselves and others, label them accurately, use them to guide thinking and conduct, and adapt them to diverse surroundings and contexts. The views of the preceding authors imply that the concept could be divided into four discrete yet related abilities: perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions. The definitions further suggest that given the emotional nature of teaching it is crucial for effective emotional management for effective teaching and learning. In the school setting, head teachers, teachers, and students have competing needs and ideas which create a notion of conflicts.

Houston (2021) conceptualized emotional intelligence as the ability to sense, grasp, and successfully employ the strength and wisdom of emotions as a source of human energy, information, communication, and influence. Lubbade (2020) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to sense, use, convey, identify, recollect, learn from, cope with, comprehend, and explain emotions. Tripathy (2018) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to recognize and understand emotions in oneself and others, as well as the ability to apply that knowledge to manage behavior and relationships. Evers, Verboon and Klaeijsen (2017) defined emotional intelligence as the drive to performance through an array of five skills and competencies, which include self-awareness, self-regulation, social skills, empathy, and motivation.

From the above discussion, it is understood that there are many scholars that have attempted to define emotional intelligence. Nevertheless, emotional intelligence is operationally defined in this study as the ability of the Social Studies teacher to control/regulate his/her emotions as well as those he or she engages with within the broad spectrum of the school environment which lead to enhancement in their overall instructional practices and the learning outcomes of students. Therefore, every teacher has and encounters emotions on a daily basis as he or she interacts with others. Thus, emotions cannot be avoided, but it is possible to manage them in a way when we recognize them. It is necessary to continuously track its nature with teachers. However, because we are not only unaware of our emotions but also lack a thorough understanding of them, becoming aware of them and controlling them effectively is all the more challenging. As a result, people study books, attend training programs, and even work with professional helpers to consciously participate in emotional awareness and management. Given the importance of the emotional aspect of human life and the need for skilled training to understand and manage one's emotions, this study attempted

to uncover the nature of emotional intelligence among Social Studies teachers in senior high schools in the Central Region of Ghana for effective emotional management.

2.2.2 Importance of emotional intelligence in teaching and learning

Like all other disciplines where emotions are inherent, educational institutions and for that matter teaching is no exemption. The school is composed of administrators, teachers, students, and non-teaching staff with divergent views, demands, opinions, and backgrounds. Since the individuals have diverse backgrounds and culture, their interests, goals and values may be incompatible, hence emotions become inherent and abounds, as such emotional intelligence advocates strongly favor its inclusion in schools especially for teachers to be emotionally competent in dealing with challenges they encounter in their attempt to realise educational goals and objecticves.

In the last decade, Weissbourd, Jones, Anderson, Kahn, and Russell (2014) maintained that educational stakeholders such as parents and teachers have expressed concern about our students' social well-being. The rise in violence, bullying, dropouts, and teenage suicide has sparked legitimate concern. Similarly, Jensen and Snider (2013) observed that classroom climates were found to be more negative and severe, with a lot of redirections and less praise. As such, Zeidner, Matthews, and Roberts (2009) have witnessed that a considerable number of today's students may have adequate cognitive capacity but are deemed to lack emotional intelligence.

Likewise, Abiodullah, Sameen and Aslam (2020) noted that working on classroom emotions has become increasingly important in recent years for students' emotional well-being and academic success. Successful instructors are expected to have a high level of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence predicts positive and successful outcomes in all areas of life, and as a result, it dominates all educational fields. Teachers

must be taught emotional intelligence in order to regulate their own emotions while assisting children. Emotional intelligence has become increasingly crucial for both instructors and students as a result of this (Singh, 2015).

Emotionally intelligent teachers demonstrate concern for their students, establish an emotional atmosphere in the classroom that fosters student learning, and assist teachers in becoming more effective in order to assure academic success. Teachers' emotional intelligence has been shown to influence their comfort level, self-efficacy, job happiness, and social relationships with students. Emotional intelligence, as a result, has a direct impact on the teaching and learning process (Romero et al., 2022). Passion is not an option in the creative, risk-taking vocation of teaching. It has been argued that no educational change will be effective until teacher quality is raised, hence, highly dedicated, enthusiastic, and passionate teachers are crucial and therefore make the best teachers (Salehpour & Roohani, 2020; Singh, 2015). It could be concluded that energetically, intellectual, and emotionally intelligent teachers are required to deliver the school and educational goals and objectives.

2.4 Models of Emotional Intelligence

Literature is replete with various theorists who have offered their respective models in conceptualizing emotional intelligence. In this section of the literature review, I dwell on emotional intelligence models propounded by different theorists who are highly revered and well respected as the pioneers of the models of emotional intelligence. According to the early proponents (Gardner, 1983; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) who pave the way for the contemporary scholars in the field of emotional intelligence, there are a number of models of the concept of emotional intelligence. However, each of the models conceptualize emotional intelligence based on a set of paradigm constellations.

Generally, literature has documented three (3) main models in explaining the concept of emotional intelligence. These are Salovey and Mayer's (1990) ability-based model of emotional intelligence, Bar-On (2006) and Goleman's (1995) mixed models of emotional intelligence as well as Petrides and Furnham's (2001) trait model of emotional intelligence.

2.4.1 Ability model of emotional intelligence

The ability model of emotional intelligence was propounded by Salovey and Mayer in the year 1990. Salovey and Mayer (1990) conceptualization of the ability model of EI took inspiration from both Thorndike's (1920) social intelligence and Gardner's (1983) intra and inter-personal intelligences (Kang, 2017). In their view, Salovey and Mayer (1990) described emotional intelligence as a subset of Thorndike's social intelligence which connotes one's ability to perceive their own and others' internal states, motivations, and behaviors, and to act toward them optimally on the basis of that information. On the other hand, Gardner defined intrapersonal intelligence as the capacity to recognize and comprehend one's own complex sentiments, while interpersonal intelligence was the capacity to observe and control the moods of others. Due to the knowledge of oneself as well as knowledge of others being included, this was very similar to the concept of emotional intelligence.

The ability model of EI by Salovey and Mayer (1990) presented that emotional intelligence is demonstrated within a complex set of skills, abilities and utilizations of emotions that affect the individual directly and indirectly. These scholars posited that, there are three determinants of emotional intelligence which they put together and conceptualized as ability model. The three main determinants of emotional intelligence relate to firstly, the basic skill of perceiving and appraising one's own emotions and the

emotions of others. It also discusses the one's ability to consciously regulate one's emotions and the emotions of others, and finally, one's utilization of emotional intelligence in order to solve problems.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) illuminated that being emotionally intelligent refers to "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). These theorists further perceive feelings and emotions as affective information, which permeates all people's daily actions and that it is this emotional information that needs to be digested by people, and some people are more adept at doing this than others. Salovey and Mayer claimed that individuals can develop the talent of processing affective information and then taking appropriate action. In 1997, Mayer and Salovey revisited and modified their earlier conceptualization of ability model of emotional intelligence. Consequently, these theorists postulated four main components of the ability model of emotional intelligence. These include perceiving emotions, using emotions to facilitate thought, comprehending emotions and managing emotions (Kanesan & Fauzan 2019; Mayer, Caruso & Salovey 2016).

Perceiving emotions relate to the act of identifying how people feel about an individual which involves the perception of emotions as well as an awareness of emotional clues internally and within others. Using emotions refer to ability to fully incorporate emotions into one's way of thinking since our moods have an effect on our thinking and actions because the ability to change one's mood is a useful skill. Understanding emotions refers to the capacity to understand the sources of one's own and other people's emotions. Managing emotions involve the strategic control and use of feelings to accomplish an objective (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

According to Alba-Juez and Pérez-González (2019), the ability model of emotional intelligence postulates that individuals are unique in their aptitude to process information with emotional orientation as well as relating emotional processing to a wider cognition. As a result, the ability model places an emphasis on emotional information, such as knowing how to control one's emotions, while also highlighting the importance of reasoning and other cognitive functions in the appropriate processing of such information. Nevertheless, the ability model of emotional intelligence has been criticized for conceiving emotional intelligence purely from the mental and cognitive abilities of an individual to the neglect of other areas of an individual's personality and this has been the shortfall of the ability model relative to other models of emotional intelligence. Yet, the ability model of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) emotional intelligence is appealing to researchers within the context of education researchers who are of the conviction relating to fact that emotional intelligence can be enhanced and learned.

2.4.2 Trait model of emotional intelligence

Petrides and Furnham's (2001) trait framework of emotional intelligence conceives the concept as the normal beliefs, experiences, and propensities of an individual with regard to their capacity to understand, express, and control their emotions in order to advance their own well-being and adaptability. Contrary to the ability model, the trait model of emotional intelligence holds that emotional intelligence is not a true intelligence and cannot be measured as an ability because emotions are inherently subjective (Petrides, Siegling & Saklofske, 2016). Likewise, Lea et al., (2018) explained that the trait emotional intelligence describes a constellation of emotional self-perceptions positioned at the lower levels of personality hierarchies and is believed to be situated inside personality frameworks.

In view of this, the proponents of the trait model termed it as trait emotional self-efficacy to the effect that emotions are subjective and emotional intelligence is quite simply, an individual's own perception of his/ her own ability to work with emotions. Furtherance in this regard, the theorists of the trait model of emotional intelligence maintain that there is no typical profile of an emotionally intelligent person because some features are adaptive, functional, and helpful in some contexts while the same attributes may be detrimental to people in others. Impliedly, it could be said that an individual who is reserved type, for instance, would be beneficial in a job or professional role that requires solitary research, but it might not be appropriate for a career role that requires social interaction and agreeableness, such as customer service.

The trait model of emotional intelligence, thus, emphasizes specific personality traits beneficial in understanding and controlling emotions. It places a strong emphasis on how one's emotional self-perceptions and emotional personality features affect one's level of emotional intelligence. Trait model of emotional intelligence is tested through measures of self-reporting such as inventories and questionnaires where personality traits and qualities ranging from relationships, adaptability, assertiveness, empathy, impulsivity, optimism, self-motivation, emotional self-perception, emotion regulation, emotion expression, self-esteem, happiness, and to social awareness are accessed (Perez-Gonzalez & Qualter, 2018).

Similar to ability of emotional intelligence, trait framework of emotional intelligence is measured using self-report tools but is not without drawbacks. Some have suggested that the trait framework of emotional intelligence is poorly defined and only represents an amalgamation of already existing personality constructs as a result of the multiple different conceptualizations of characteristics of emotional intelligence (Waterhouse,

2006; Andrei et al., 2016). Due to the lack of psychometric robustness, trait-based model of emotional intelligence has since received a great deal of criticism and skepticism (Barchard, Brackett, & Mestre, 2016; Brody, 2004). It has been discovered that results from trait EI assessments are too similar to those from well-known personality self-report measures, including the five-factor model of personality i.e., extraversion, neuroticism, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness; (Dimitrijevic et al., 2018; Parker et al., 2011). This implies that, the model is purposefully tailored towards measuring certain traits in teachers. However, Goleman (2019) argued that emotional intelligence is a combination of cognitive capacity and personality traits, and these two factors are crucial in determining job performance, hence, it is deficient in assessing other personality characteristics such as both ability and traits in teachers.

2.4.3 Goleman's (1995) mixed model of emotional intelligence

The mixed model of emotional intelligence incorporates two major models of emotional intelligence thus, trait and ability models of emotional intelligence. The mixed ability model was originally introduced by Goleman (1998) and was further expanded by Bar-On (1997). Goldman talked about the concept of emotional competence relating to a natural human ability that helps an individual to perform better. Goleman (1998) is described as an excellent example of promoting EI and is therefore, touted as an example in promoting EI throughout the world. Goleman's EI model is a hybrid that incorporates both mental abilities and individual characteristics (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Goleman identified the four main components of EI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management).

Furthermore, Goleman (1995) contends that emotional skills can be taught, learned, and developed, and that they are not inherent abilities. Individuals may have some of these abilities, but they can afford to develop them as they reach a certain age. Goleman prioritized self-awareness in this mixed model of EI. He believes that self-consciousness is a necessary component of EI as it provides the ability to consider our intrinsic minds, decisions, and perspectives. This model also explains how to improve emotional competence by increasing self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship development. Goleman (1998) defined EI as learned abilities, with the belief that every individual is born with some level of EI that can be polished and increased through skillful training. Therefore, the mixed model of emotional intelligence refers to a broader set of skills and abilities that are classified into four major categories: relationship management, social awareness, self-management, and self-awareness all within the context of the teacher.

Self-awareness refers to our ability to understand our own emotions, limitations, and strengths; it includes values and motivations, emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. Self-management also includes the ability to control difficult emotions and maintain control over them, as well as self-control, achievement, initiative, adaptability, and optimism. Social awareness is the understanding of other people's emotions and points of view, which include empathy, organizational awareness, and service. Relationship management (social skill) refers to the ability to manage relationships with others, which includes inspirational leadership, developing others, influencing, communicating, being a change catalyst, teamwork, collaboration, and conflict resolution. This model has been found to be more appropriate for academic workplace practice such as Senior High Schools, colleges and other higher educational institution (Parrish, 2015).

Emotional intelligence is viewed as an essential indication in occupational and professional domains of education by many scholars. If a teacher understands how to use emotional intelligence, it can lead to a valuable life. Teachers must comprehend the distinction between cognitive and emotional intelligence in order to achieve academic brilliance, but they must also focus on their students' emotional literacy, which will be evident when teachers assess their own emotional literacy (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2012). Activists of emotional intelligence like Zeidner, Matthews, and Roberts, (2012) echoed that the people who are aware of their emotions can spend their life more easily and happily and such type of people are more satisfied than other people.

It has also been discovered that schools do not have to choose between focusing on emotional intelligence or cognitive intelligence; both can be accomplished simultaneously (Hawkins, Smith, & Catalano, 2004). Goleman (1995) emphasized the need of including emotional intelligence in educational missions, particularly when it comes to student emotional intelligence development. According to Goleman's mixed ability model of EI, as family life no longer provides a secure foundation for a growing number of children, schools are left as the only place communities may turn for correctives to children's emotional and social competence shortcomings. Aligned with teaching and learning environment, practical experience is frequently combined with content knowledge and pedagogy. Practical classroom practices are linked to theories of growth and learning. However, the softer skills that are critical to any teacher's success are often overlooked: the emotional piece, which includes self-awareness of one's own emotions as well as awareness of others' emotions, and the cultural awareness piece, which includes effectiveness in culturally diverse situations.

More recently, it has been suggested that a greater emphasis on the soft skills needed for effective teaching has a major impact on student learning (Jones, Bouffard, & Weissbourd, 2013). In an attempt to provide a more comprehensive education for each student, school officials have advocated the adoption of tactics such as individualized instruction and creating relationships with students. Despite governments' efforts to evaluate student learning and progress solely by test scores, research has begun to uncover the huge benefits of building emotional intelligence in teachers and students, as well as linkages between emotional intelligence and student performance.

To this end, scholars like Abiodullah, Sameen and Aslam (2020) called on teachers to grasp the emotional aspects of learning, and continue to work on this. These scholars further maintained that teachers must apply their emotional intelligence in the classroom to ensure students' success and successes. Unfortunately, many teachers are unaware of the importance of emotional intelligence in the classroom. Teachers, despite their extensive personal and academic expertise, do not pay attention to emotional intelligence. For example, in order to keep kids focused in the classroom, teachers must address them by their full names. Positive possibilities or an engaged emotional learning environment in the classroom are required to improve learners' feelings. It will enhance the learning experience of both students and teachers (Neves, 2016).

It is apparent that in the educational field and in teaching, emotional intelligence plays a huge role. Emotional intelligence aids teachers in better understanding their students. Teachers can create a pedagogical plan to understand their students' needs and set goals for them. Empathy is the key principle or concept for teaching in emotional intelligence, and it is critical for teachers to communicate with pupils in order to comprehend their backgrounds and cultures.

2.5 Bar-On (2006) Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence

Bar-On is credited as the first person to use the term "Emotional Quotient" (EQ) in 1988. According to Bar-On (1997), EQ is defined as a set of no cognitive abilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures. The model proposed by Bar-On is known as The Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligences (ESI). According to Ifeoma and Ebenebe (2021), this model is situated within the mixed ability model of EI and it relates a set of abilities that enable people to understand others and themselves, as well as assess how effective they are at resolving challenges involving the needs and problems they face in their daily lives. These scholars further intimated that the nomenclature or the main emphasis of this model is on emotional and social skills and this is why it is called the mixed model.

Bar-On mixed ability model of EI consisted of five (5) composite scales: interpersonal relationship scale (with sub-scales: emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-regard and self-actualization), intrapersonal relationship scale (with sub-scales: empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship), adaptability scale (with sub-scales: problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility), stress management scale (with sub-scales: stress tolerance and impulse control) and general mood (with sub-scales: happiness and optimism) which are discussed in the sections below.

2.5.1 Intra-personal competencies

According to Ehondor (2017), intrapersonal relationship relates to one' ability to understand, know, and respond to emotions in a self-valued manner. This scholar further asserted that persons with strong levels of intrapersonal intelligence also have

high levels of self-esteem. According to Bar-On (2005), one's intrapersonal ability relates to being aware of oneself, to comprehend one's strengths and flaws, and to communicate one's feelings and thoughts non-destructively. The intrapersonal relationship angle of Bar-On mixed model of EI is of particular importance especially within the context of education since negative emotions can make teachers feel disempowered and demotivated, and they can harm their mental health, job satisfaction, and sense of self-efficacy, as well as their attitudes toward students (Aldrup, Carstensen, & Klusmann, 2022; Anastasiou, & Belios, 2020). As a result, such emotions may have an impact on students' feelings, teacher-student relationships, and learning (Perry & Ball, 2005).

Teachers, it has been suggested, must understand and successfully manage the above-mentioned cognitive and emotional challenges in order to remain effective while maintaining their well-being and work/life balance (Al-omari, & Okasheh, 2017). It has been documented that intra-personal EI competencies particularly emotional self-awareness, are critical for dealing with such challenges successfully. The intra-personal competency under Bar-On mixed model of emotional intelligence has the following sub competencies or scales:

2.5.1.1 Emotional self-awareness

Emotional self-awareness as a component of EI refers to the ability of an individual to comprehend his/her emotions, identify his/her strengths and flaws, and realize the needs and desires (Kovacs et. al., 2022). According to Goleman (2019), emotional self-awareness of an individual discuses an individual's capacity to change destructive feelings into positive ones as well as the ability to act and live in accordance with one's ideals and aspirations. In this sense, teachers with high levels of self-awareness are able

to see how their emotions affect their own, others', and professional performance. Deducing from this component of Bar-On model of EI, it could be said that teachers with high levels of emotional self-awareness are able to see how emotions affect their own, others', and professional performance. Researchers have discovered that emotional self-awareness enables teachers to recognize and understand their own emotions, as well as manage them in the classroom when confronted with the daily challenges in the classroom (Molero et al., 2022; Calero, Barreyroa & Injogue-Riclea, 2018).

Additionally, it has been revealed through empirical review that emotionally self-aware teachers are more likely to anticipate the effects of their own emotional expressions on interactions with others, and thus more likely to react appropriately to students (Maamari & Majdalani, 2017). Moreso, emotional self-awareness is essential for comprehending the emotions of others, developing successful relationships and are more effective decision makers (Goleman, 2019, Rechberg, 2019). Teachers who are emotionally self-aware are more likely to express interest, care, and empathy than their less self-aware colleagues (Ansari & Talan, 2017). Given the importance of the crucial role of emotional self-awareness in the effectiveness of teachers, it is extremely important that its level and nature is explored in context specific settings and with the paucity of literature on the Ghanaian context, this study on EI of Social Studies teachers becomes relevant.

2.5.1.2 Assertiveness

Typically, assertiveness is often described as the honest and proper presentation of one's own personal beliefs, needs, wants, and sentiments without rejecting or impinging upon the rights of others (Jimenez, Garcia-Buades & Riquelme, 2021). Assertiveness

has been shown to enhance leadership and communication abilities and enable more effective management of district nurses' increased workloads, having a significant impact on professional performance, creating strong team bonds, and providing adequate nursing care (Green, 2016; Guo et al., 2018; Yoshinaga et al., 2018). It has been documented that individuals with assertive prowess are apart from being honest and straightforward, also know how to demand for what they want, besides, they have extraordinary skills and leadership ability and are capable of standing up for their interests and views (Villanueva et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2021; Romeu, 2021). Literature has also shown that people who lack confidence in their assertiveness tend to withdraw even when they are right and find it difficult to say no and as a result regularly find themselves performing actions that they would rather avoid as well as typically preferring to be a member of a group rather than the leader (Kant & Shanker, 2021; Azorji, 2021; Naik & Kiran, 2018).

Being assertive involves appropriately expressing thoughts, feelings, and limits while respecting others' rights, maintaining positive relationship with other person, and considering the possible repercussions of the consequences (Villanueva et al., 2022). This component of Bar-On model EI combines both optimistic and gloomy expression and works to meet both personal and practical goals and the absence of assertive skill can exacerbate sadness and anxiety, but maladaptive responses to assertiveness might manifest as hostility. Examples of assertive behaviours include making demands, turning down unreasonable or absurd requests, expressing one's own privileges, positive and negative ideas, or positive and negative thoughts, as well as initiating, continuing, or leaving a conversation (Villanueva et al., 2022). These authors further submitted that assertiveness comes in two types, thus, admitting personal shortcomings, giving and receiving compliments, initiating and maintaining collaborations, and

expressing positive emotions are all examples of positive assertiveness while, offering opposing or divergent opinions, highlighting behavior adjustments, and declining absurd requests are all examples of negative assertiveness. From the foregoing, it is worth noting that assertive skills are crucial component of EI and ought to be given the attention it deserves. The evidence in literature appears to suggest negative assertiveness could have dire consequences on the job performance of teachers, hence, it is extremely significant to track the nature of teacher assertive skills in context specific and from time to time.

2.5.1.3 Self-regard

Self-regard has been conceptualized as the belief in one's ability to complete specified tasks at predetermined levels of performance (Goleman, 2019). Deductively, it could be gleaned that self-regard in teachers reflects their belief in their ability to execute their instructional practices to influence students' learning. Studies have shown that self-regard which relates to an individual's conceptions about themselves, forms a critical component and plays a very crucial dimension of Bar-On model of EI (Jumarie & Lyndon, 2022; Coulter, 2021; McCann et al., 2020). It has been demonstrated that having high self-regard or esteem can act as a catalyst for individuals to take on actions like actively engaging in interpersonal communication and improving interpersonal connections and is positively correlated with emotional intelligence (McCann et al., 2020). In essence, it could be said that teachers who demonstrate high levels of self-regard are able to demonstrate apposite level of EI which enhances their efficacy and efficiency.

Individuals with high sense of self-worth tend to communicate well and succeed in whatever they choose to accomplish. High levels of self-confidence in teachers have

been proven to designate confidence in one's own abilities, and have been linked to feelings of security, inner strength, fulfilment, and self-satisfaction more broadly (Wu et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020). Self-regard of teachers also connotes the overall value a teacher places on him/her selves can be viewed as a predictor of self-efficacy. According to Fteiha and Awwad (2020), teachers with low self-regard tend to be impatient, rigid, and punitive, focusing on students' weaknesses rather than their strengths. Hence, having positive self-regard is a measure of teacher self-esteem and self-efficacy which are deemed critical as one of the variables that contribute to job performance. While studies of the relationship between self-regard and teacher job performance are relatively rare in the context of Ghana, this current study is seen as one that could help in providing context specific settings in throwing more light on the role of self-regard in the job performance of teachers in Ghana.

2.5.1.4 Independence

Even though there are no direct links between this competency of emotional intelligence and effective teaching, the ability to be self-directed, free of emotional dependency, decisive, and risk-taking, as well as its suggested links with self-esteem and assertiveness (Stein & Book, 2000), suggest its relevance to teachers. Indeed, in a study of 347 secondary-school teachers, one of the five EI competencies positively correlated with self-reported professional success was independence (Stein & Book, 2000).

2.5.1.5 Self-actualization

The concept of self-actualization has its root in Maslow Hierarchy of Needs Theory and is explained as the pinnacle of the concept of self-motivation and fulfilment among humans (Sivakumar, 2019). This concept has been extensively utilized in explaining

the stages of human motivation and has attracted interest from many academics as a basis for eliminating competition and enhancing emotional intelligence among individuals such as teachers. According to Sivakumar (2019), teachers with excellent knowledge of self-actualization see themselves as individuals who do not compete with others but rather compete with him/herself and is optimistic in trying to outshine or surpass his/her own previous performance. It has been discovered that teachers with higher level of EI are also deemed to be self actualizers, hence, they see themselves as not anxious, accepted, loved, loving, and alive and certainly live a fulfilling life (Dezhbankhan, Baranovich, Abedalaziz, 2020; Sivakumar, 2019; Ordun & Arkun, 2017). These scholars further maintained that teachers who see themselves as self actualizers are teachers who are able to make accurate and honest judgments in all circumstances, accept their own human nature with all of its flaws, and are true to themselves rather than conforming to others' expectations, besides, they are independent and resourceful, constantly renew their appreciation of life's essentials, be at ease in solitude, and exhibit humanity.

Self-actualization has been linked to self-awareness, effective problem-solving, assertiveness, independent decision making, optimism, and the ability to follow through on personal decisions (Bar-On, 2010). It has been linked in teachers with the ability to fully enjoy work, become involved in extracurricular activities, and constantly strives for excellence. Some researchers believe that the self-actualization contribute to teachers' EI and job performance (Arslan, 2017; Yalda, 2014). A study by Sivakumar (2018) indicated an association between self-motivation, interest, confidence and above all self-actualization of teachers. Self-actualization in the context of this study refers to the ability of the teacher to fulfil their potential in becoming efficient in enhancing their job performance as well as the learning outcomes of students. In this study, self-

actualization refers to the self-motivation of teachers in enhancing their job performance.

2.5.2 Interpersonal relationship competencies

Scholars such as Dippenaar and Schaap (2017) intimated that interpersonal relationship competencies entail the capacity to handle and resolve conflict by and having the ability to comprehend, coax, as well as get along with others. Thus, interpersonal competencies of EI suggest that a teacher's interpersonal skills have the likelihood of impacting their task and abilities in performing or executing certain tasks in school. In a study by Borg and Johnston (2013) found an association between interpersonal competencies which is a component of EI, and sales performance. This research by Borg and Johnston adopted the ability-based model of EI in their investigation and discovered that an overall association exists between interpersonal competencies and sales performance and that this association was realized with some indicators of EI such as empathy, adaptive selling, relationship selling, and customer-oriented selling. In their findings, they incorporated an interpersonal competency as contained in EI model which attempted to conceptualize the role of interpersonal competencies of salesman in a business-to-business sales enterprise.

Likewise, within the educational setting, many studies have focused on the emotional and social dimensions of the teaching profession (Debes, 2021; Ismail, Nopiah, & Rasul, 2020; Okpala, Omojuwa, Elenwo, & Opoko, 2017; Dolev & Leshem, 2017) and have all concluded that interpersonal competencies of teachers are crucial in heightening the efficacy and effectiveness in the classroom. Additionally, teachers are placed as the focal axis of the educational community, and thus as coordinators for an extensive network of interpersonal connections and educational processes that exist within them.

The outcomes of these studies acknowledged and also suggested that teachers' capacity to build strong work relationships with other teachers, as well as administrators, board members, parents, and communities, has an impact on school and classroom climate and the learning outcomes of students.

Interpersonal relationships between teachers and students are crucially important within the context of teaching and learning. Scholars (Wyer Jr & Carlston, 2018, Khan et al., 2018; Bartholomew et al., 2018; Blegur 2019) have all stated that positive teacher-student connections are a crucial component of good education. Research findings have demonstrated that students who have positive relationships with their teachers perform better academically because a courteous, loving, and joyful learning environment which are antecedents of good student-teacher connection, enhancing the joy of learning (Lee, Worthington, & Wilson, 2019; Lee et al., 2019; Canales & Maldonado, 2018). Also, teachers with positive relationships with students were said to provide a stable, safe, supportive, and pro-social classroom environment (Wyer Jr & Carlston, 2018, Khan et al., 2018; Bartholomew et al., 2018; Blegur 2019).

Thijssen, Rege, and Solhiem (2022) noted that the fundamental to students' success in schools lies in the robust and sympathetic relationships between teachers and students for it is only when students sense or feel optimistic about a learning situation that chemicals such as endorphins and dopamine become energetic and lively which is crucial in retention of what is learned. More broadly, many researchers have claimed that EI improves teachers' ability to form and maintain effective interpersonal relationships with their students as well as provide them with a sense of self-worth and security (Shelton, 2021; Dolev & Leshem, 2017). Cognizance of the crucial role of teacher interpersonal relationship and for that matter EI, researchers (Abdel-Fattah,

2020, Amponsah, Kwesi & Ernest, 2019) have cautioned that interactions with teachers who are less emotionally intelligent can cause students to experience negative emotions such as anxiety, lead to inappropriate student behavior, and have a negative impact on students' well-being and self-efficacy. Besides, these scholars further opined that strained relationships between students and instructors can develop to hostility, fear of school, and, eventually, feelings of alienation and disengagement. In essence, I hypothesise that the kind of interpersonal relationship that exist between the Social Studies teachers involved in the study is crucial in improving their EI as well as their job performance. Additionally, with very scares research on interpersonal relationship of teachers within the context of Ghana. Therefore, this study was committed to unveiling the nature of Social Studies EI which is also inclusive of the kind of interpersonal relationship that among Social Studies and other school context actors. Interpersonal relationship involves the following competencies.

2.5.2.1 Empathy

Scholars in the field of EI proffer their definitions of the concept of empathy. Empathy as a concept in EI has been defined as the subject's amalgamation with the feelings of someone, whereas sympathy is defined as an awareness of the feelings of someone without being absorbed to them (Aldrup, Carstensen, & Klusmann, 2022; Neupane & Uprety, 2021; Korkman & Tekel, 2020). These practitioners further explained empathy as the ability to understand how another person feels and thinks by putting ourselves in their shoes. Researchers have noted that teachers' professional tasks include caring for students and fostering positive teacher-student interactions and that one feature of high-quality classrooms is the provision of high levels of teacher empathy which is characterised by emotional support, good emotional tone in the classroom, attentive

reactions to students' emotional, social, and academic needs, and awareness of their interests (Watt et al., 2021; Katungu, 2018).

According to Romeu (2021), empathy is measured by the ability to see the world through the eyes of another person or it is the ability to understand the desires and needs of others. This scholar further averred that teachers with high empathy are skilled in conversations and negotiations because they consider and evaluate the opinions of others such as students and colleagues with whom they contact. They are also able to put themselves in the shoes of others and comprehend how things appear to them. People with low scores have difficulty accepting other people's points of view hence, they are often selfless, not belligerent, and not self-centered. Empathic teachers understand that children may feel apprehensive when faced with difficult tasks, or ashamed and frustrated when they are consistently unable to answer the teacher's inquiries. Teachers' affective empathy should lead them to respond sensitively to their students' emotional needs, providing comfort and encouragement once they have identified negative affective states in their pupils (Weisz et al., 2017; Kanesan & Fauzan, 2019).

It has also been noted that empathic teachers will know that students may feel anxious when confronted with challenging tasks or embarrassed and frustrated when repeatedly unable to answer the teacher's questions. Having recognized negative affective states in their students, teachers' affective empathy should motivate them to react sensitively to their students' emotional needs, provide comfort, and encouragement (Weisz et al., 2017; Ishmail, 2020). In essence, Social Studies teachers must possess the competency of being able to empathize with students and that empathy is very cardinal in lifting up their job performance.

Contemporary scholars in the domain of EI among teachers have always maintained that understanding the causes of classroom disruptions may help with behavior control and that teachers that who are effective in classroom management set norms and use appropriate tactics to prevent student behavior problems (Weisz et al., 2017; Aelterman et al., 2019; Kanesan & Fauzan, 2019). Thus, competency in the concept of empathy is crucial in effective classroom management where a teacher is able to detect students' weariness which will prompt teachers to select an alternative instructional technique before students begin engaging in off-task activities. Hence, it could be said that empathy is a crucial component of EI because it helps teachers in classroom management.

2.5.2.2 Social responsibility

According to Sihem (2013), social responsibility necessitates that a teacher not only cares about his or her students, but also understands, prepares, and shows them how to fit into the future community. Sihmen further indicates that social responsibility of teachers mandates them to educate students to be good citizens, provide them with opportunities to assist the institution in becoming a good citizen while learning to be good citizens themselves as well as fostering to renew community trust in education. Herrera Torres et al., (2017) discovered that teachers with high EI relative to social responsibility of teachers which was also manifested in higher levels of job commitment as compared to their low-EI counterparts, a trait that could be linked to social responsibility. Parker et al., (2016) argued that teachers who are frequently driven by the desire to make a difference in the lives of their students exhibits the social responsibility of Bar-On model of EI while low commitment has also been linked to lower levels of social responsibility among teachers. However, Stone's et al. (2005) study showed that social responsibility did not distinguish between better and less

effective leaders among school administration staff. Hence, in the midst of this contradictory result, this study hopes to shed more light on the social responsibility component of EI in context specific context such as among Social Studies Senior High Schools in Ghana.

2.5.3 Adaptability Competencies

According to Romeu (2021), teachers with adaptability competency as a component of EI are teachers who are malleable to the demands of the teaching profession as well as demands of their personal lives. Besides, they are also flexible and open to new events and circumstances and enjoy diversity and change relative to the teaching profession. Romeu further intimated that teachers with low competencies in adaptability component of EI are resistant to change and find it difficult to adjust their career and lifestyle. Besides, they are usually rigid, with strong beliefs and points of view. Accordingly, this study set out to investigate the case from context specific setting like Ghana and also from the context of Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. The sub competencies outlined in the adaptability component of EI are described below:

2.5.3.1 Reality testing

Butler and Leahy (2021) posited that reality testing entails one's ability to objectively validate one's feelings and thoughts in relation to external reality. It also describes the ability to evaluate a situation for what it is rather than how it is feared to be. In their view, Urquijo and Extremera (2017) explained reality testing competency of teachers as the ability of teachers to evaluate their relationship between what is experienced, the subjective, and whether or not it exists in actuality, the objective. To these scholars, reality testing assesses the teachers' understanding of the world around them and that

reality testing is not about creativity; that is a personal trait that one can employ indefinitely. These definitions suggest that reality testing aims to assess the emotional literacy of an individual or how well an individual understands his/her own emotions and other people's emotional feelings. It has been documented that high competency in reality testing makes and individual realistic, well grounded, tuned in, keeps things in perspective in relationships, emphasizes what is practical and realistic, as well as adapting behaviour based on awareness of others (Dong et al., 2022; Butler & Leahy, 2021). Contrarily, it could be deduced that low competencies in reality testing among individual makes them assume team goals are unrealistic and may lose their objectives in support of seeing things differently. With the limited literature on reality testing as a component of EI from the perspectives of teachers in Ghana, this study aims to uncover the state of reality testing among Social Studies teachers from the context of Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

2.5.3.2 Problem-solving

Problem solving competence of an individual is the ability of the person to unravel a problem or generate a new solution by synthesizing the knowledge they have for thinking, being emotionally strong, not giving up on problem solving, and self-synthesizing (Peker, 2022; Safina et al., 2020). Extant literature has demonstrated that problem solving skills which is a component of Bar-On model of EI is crucial in enhancing teachers' job performance, their effectiveness and students' achievement (Jie et al., 2020; Nisa 2020), Huda et al. 2020; Andriani et al. 2018; Amalia & Saraswati 2018). In furtherance to importance of problem-solving skills on teacher effectiveness, Woods et al. (2013) submit that teachers with competency in problem-solving can read, comprehend, gather information, understand the problem and develop tactics for solving it, act appropriately without rushing, organized and flexible, think

systematically, take risks and are also open to managing stress. In line with the enormous benefits of problem-solving skills in ensuring teacher effectiveness, it is pertinent that studies are conducted in context specific settings so as to know the level of problem-solving skills of teachers for any remediation if required. Hence, problem solving skills was considered as one of the sub indicators of EI in assessing the level of EI among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

2.5.3.3 Flexibility

According to Mohajer, Bavaghar and Frrokhi (2020), flexibility refers to the practice of adjusting one's feelings, thoughts, and behaviours to changing conditions and circumstances. It again relates to the ability to adapt to emotions, thoughts and behaviours pertaining to unfamiliar terrain or events as well as unpredictable and dynamic circumstances or ideas. Scholars and practitioners have adduced evidence to the effect that one of the most demanding work environments is teaching, as such the profession of teaching is characterized by psychological conditions such as effects which requires teachers to be flexible and adapt to the challenges of the profession (Salinas-Falquez et al., 2022; Extremera et al., 2019). It has long been recognized that teaching necessitates a delicate balance of different perspectives, goals, educational processes, expectations, needs, and emotional levels and that teachers are frequently called upon to take multidimensional actions on the spur of the moment, adapting their knowledge and skills to changing demands (Skordoulis et al., 2020; Schlegel & Mortillaro, 2019). It could be deduced from these assertions that flexibility is critical in enhancing tolerance and enabling teachers to work effectively with varied groups of students. Given this significance, it is imperative that studies are conducted to throw more light on it due to its impetus of enhancing teacher effectiveness.

2.5.4 Stress Management Competency

Extant literature has demonstrated that the teacher and for that matter the teaching profession has been identified as one of the professions with excessive emotionally draining circumstances due to the many unavoidable conditions they encounter in their line of duty which acts as a stress catalyser (Kant & Shanker, 2021; Naik & Kiran, 2018). Accordingly, there is the need for teachers to be emotionally intelligent so as to manage the many stresses they encounter. Empirical studies have documented that being EI could be one of the many ways in dealing with and managing stress (Kant & Shanker, 2021; Romeu, 2021). Stress management relates to wide range of techniques, approaches and strategies employed in handling stress once it manifests itself (Romeu, 2021). According to Romeu (2021), individuals with good stress management skills exhibit effective coping skills that enable them to effectively handle pressure and have typically good emotional restraint which makes stress management easier for them. Conversely, individuals with low competencies in stress management are less likely to have learned stress reduction techniques which make them to completely avoid potentially stressful situations rather than deal with the stress that comes with it which makes them susceptible to stress. Hence, it is extremely important for teachers to be emotionally intelligent to be able to deal with many situations they encounter in the teaching profession that act as catalyzers for stress. Stress management as a measure of emotional intelligence as contained in Bar-On model has the following sub-scales:

2.5.4.1 Impulse control

Impulse control relates to the ability of an individual to control emotions and behaviours that have the propensity of affecting their well-being and output. Scholars have documented that impulse control which is a measure of emotional intelligence causes individuals the ability to manage stress, express emotions, be more assertive, maintain

positive outlooks, make better decisions, improve communication, positively influence others, improve work-life balance, and be emotionally resilient (Mustafa et al., 2020; Drigas & Papoutsi, 2020). Studies within the teaching profession have documented that psychological well-being of educators is often neglected and has, therefore, become an increasingly topical issue in recent times since stressful working situations can result in occupational sickness, which lowers one's quality of life and lowers motivation, self-efficacy, and job commitment in educators (Toropova & Tulupyeve, 2020; Viac & Fraser, 2020; Mahamba, 2021). These practitioners further indicated that teachers' higher competence in impulse control results in higher self-efficacy, experience less work-related stress, and are more focused on their students, which better prepares them to handle pressures from the outside world. Accordingly, teachers ought to be able to control the various impulses so as to improve their quality of life which is crucial in enhancing their job performance. With the very limited research on impulse control of teachers in Ghana and much less from the perspectives of Social Studies teachers, this study investigated the impulse control of Social Studies teachers which is a measure of emotional intelligence.

2.5.4.2 Stress tolerance

Stress tolerance refers to an individual's capacity to remain resolute and calm when exposed to the various catalyzers of stress (Salinas-Falquez et al., 2022). Teacher stress refers to a situation which exposes teachers to the undesirable environmental factors, either internal or external to the educational institution. These factors call for teachers to maintain composure in the face of intense feelings of stress. Hence, stress tolerance among teachers have become an increasingly important area of research because teaching is inherently an emotional venture and given the centrality of emotions in the teaching and learning process, teachers in the 21st century ought to possess high skills

of stress tolerance in dealing with the various stressors from both classroom and outside classroom emotional circumstances (Mustafa et al., 2020; Drigas & Papoutsi, 2020). In line with this call, this study hoped to ascertain the stress tolerance level which is a measure of EI among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana

2.5.5 General Mood Competency

The general mood component of Bar-On's model of EI evaluates a person's capacity to control his/her own emotions throughout the short, medium, and long term (Romeu, 2021). According to the model, individuals with competence in this theme are capable of modifying or maintaining positive emotions through dedication and hard work. Besides, they have a healthy psychological equilibrium and are able to bounce back from heartbreak or disappointment whereas persons with low competence are more likely to have emotional outbursts, extended bouts of anxiety, depression, struggle to control their feelings and are frequently depressed and furious. The general mood component of Bar-On's model of EI has the optimism which relate to the state of being hopeful, cheerful and expectant of good things happening irrespective of the circumstances and are not cynical and do not also see things as being negative (Romeu, 2021). Besides optimism, there is also happiness as a subscale of the general mood domain and this centres on the act of confidence in themselves and have strong desire of being successful no matter what.

In sum, it could be said that teachers are concerned about their students' overall development and want to give them with the core social, emotional, and academic abilities that will ensure their success in school and beyond. Indeed, today's schools are frequently expected to combine rational, systematic, and practical norms for standards,

competition, and accountability with a more humanistic, holistic, and socio-emotional approach to educational practices. Attending to students' individual differences and assisting students to overcome barriers to learning is critical for the realization of educational goals and objectives. Hence, teachers, in particular, are increasingly recognized as making a significant contribution to children's social-emotional development, and that improved emotional intelligence in teachers may influence this contribution. Accordingly, this thesis was carried out with the aim of assessing the nature of the various competencies of emotional intelligence proffered by Bar-On so as make the necessary recommendations and interventions for improved teaching and learning.

Given the unsolved problems about the construct validity of the ability/trait models of EI, the mixed model of EI appears to be more valid than the ability/trait model. The Bar-On EI model is the most commonly studied. Furthermore, among the three main tools used most commonly in empirical research, its measurement tool, the Bar-On model on EI is deemed more and the most reliable and valid as compared to others. Taking all available studies into account, the Bar-On model on EI was applied in this thesis, to assess Senior High Social Studies teachers EI in the Central Region of Ghana.

2.6 Concept of Teacher Job Performance

Extant literature has demonstrated that employee job performance is an antecedent to realizing organizational goals and objectives (Temmuz, 2020; Al-omari & Okasheh, 2017; Yousef & Abdullah, 2019). Therefore, the efficiency with which organizations manage, develop and inspire their employees is an essential foundation for their performance. Within the context of education, it is well-acknowledged that the teacher plays a critical role in nurturing the minds and the hearts of youth (Zhang, Zhao, Xu,

Liu & Wu, 2021), their job performance is therefore, crucial in the realization of educational goals. Academics and educational practitioners have proffered varied definitions about the concept of teacher job performance. Teachers' job performance could be described as the duties performed by teachers at a particular period in the school system in achieving school goals (Liyana & Nor, 2020). In this regard, it could be deduced that teachers' job performance is the ability of the teacher to combine relevant inputs for the enhancement of teaching and learning process.

Yerdelen, Sungur and Klassen (2016) described teacher job-performance as teacher observable behaviours related to outcomes which are relevant to educational goals. From the standpoint of Yerdelen, Sungur and Klassen (2016), teacher job performance relates to the noticeable duties that the teacher carries out, and which are appropriate in attaining educational goals. In this case, teachers' job performance is a goal-oriented behaviour, and should be visible by others. This argument implies that teacher job performance is not the same as teacher intentions, but an exhibition of the intentions into evident behaviours. Therefore, teachers' job performance could be described as the duties performed by teachers at a particular period in the school system in achieving school goals. More broadly, Stoll-Lollis (2015) argued that job performance is determined by the worker's level of participation in the day to day running of the organization. Thus, teachers' performance on the job is assessed by the extent to which the teachers are involved in the administration of the school by contributing meaningfully to teaching and learning.

According to Ghavifekr and Pillai (2016), job performance may be described as an act of accomplishing or executing a given task. This definition is similar to the previous ones; however, Ghavifekr and Pillai (2016) were emphatic that the task needs to be

accomplished to meet the criteria for job performance. In this way, job performance is the product of workers' behaviours consciously directed towards a goal. Teacher job performance could be described as the outcome of teaching and learning processes which is seen in the realization of educational goals. This argument is strengthened in the view that teacher job performance is the ability to combine skillfully the right behaviour towards the achievement of organizational goals and objectives (Forsythe, 2016). Jumarie and Lyndon (2022) defined job performance as the aggregate or the measurable behaviours, activities and outputs of employees that directly or indirectly contribute to further corporate goals. It could be inferred from this definition that job performance is the extent to which an individual is carrying out assignment or task. It refers to the degree of accomplishment of the task that makes up an employee's job. Relating this to teaching, a teacher's job performance is the degree to which he/she discharges duties as contained in the job description. Therefore, a teacher's job description is measured based on performance on both curricula and extra-curricular activities.

In their view, Banerjee et al., (2016) employee's job performance means the ability of employees to attain goals either personal or organizational by using resources efficiently and effectively. This definition is similar to Pan et al., (2015) which states that the term job performance expresses the range of measurements of efficiency of input and output efficiency. The above definitions suggest that job performance requires the judicious use of resources to maximize productivity. These resources could be animate (human) or inanimate (material). From this perspective, a teacher's job performance is the extent a teacher utilizes his knowledge, skills, attitudes, and time as well as material resources such as text books, furniture, computers, and school supplies to achieve the goals of the school.

Individual or an employee's performance is the foundation for the organization's performance, therefore, in order to create effective management, understanding the performance of individuals is very important. In this vein, Ibrar and Khan (2015) contended that good performance for individuals and groups is the centre of attention in an effort to boost the performance of the organization. Good performance is one of the objectives of the organization in achieving high productivity. Scholars have identified performance indicators of employees in an organization. Miner (1990) stated four aspects of performance:

- the quality of the results explained by the number of errors, timing, and accuracy in performing tasks;
- the quantity produced in terms of how many products or services that can be produced;
- working time which explains how the number of absences, tardiness, and tenure that has been undertaken of the individual employee; and
- cooperation which describes how individuals help or hinder the efforts of their fellow workers.

Benardin and Russle (1995) proposed six performance parameters that can be used to measure performance:

- quality, is the degree to which the process or the results of the implementation of near-perfection or close to the expected goals;
- quantity, the amount produced;
- timeliness, is the extent to which an activity is completed at a desired time taking into account other output coordination as well as the time available for the activities of others;

- cost effectiveness which is the degree to which the use of organizational resources (human, financial, technological and material) are maximized to achieve results or loss of each unit reduction in resource use;
- the need for supervision, is the degree to which a worker can perform a job function without requiring the supervision of a supervisor to prevent actions that are less desirable; and
- interpersonal impact, the degree to which employees maintain dignity, good name, and cooperation among colleagues and subordinates.

Motowildlo (2003) explains that:

> Job performance is the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioural episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time. Other than that, it is also an individual output in terms of quality and quantity expected from every employee in a particular job, this shows that an individual performance is most of the time determined by motivation and the will and ability to do the job (p. 42).

Other scholars support the above definition that defined job performance as all behaviors that employees engage in at work at a particular period in the school system in achieving organizational goals (Obilade, 1999; Jex, 2002). From the above definitions, it is evident that teacher job performance refers to the quantitative and qualitative accomplishment of tasks performed by the teacher, and the desirable behaviours that he or she portrays. Therefore, teachers' output of work in relation to lesson preparation, classroom teaching processes, regularity and punctuality, time on task, and interpersonal relationship constitute their performance.

Adejumobi and Ojikutu (2013) support this claim when they note that teacher job-performance is one of the main factors that determines and affects school outcomes which could be measured through observing teacher activities in real classroom

teaching performance, including lesson preparation, teacher commitment, extra-curricular, supervision, effective leadership, motivation and morale. The discussion on teacher job performance indicates that teachers are the backbone of an educational enterprise. Therefore, the success or failure of educational activities depends on their level of job performance which is directly linked to process and product of education. Therefore, the job performance of teachers is crucial to the accomplishment of educational goals and objectives. As such, it is crucial to evaluate the level of teacher job performance from time to time.

2.7 Empirical Review

2.7.1 Level of Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs

Researchers have adopted and adapted Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2007) model of teacher self-efficacy beliefs to investigate and unpack the nature of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs around the world. In Turkey, Balci, Sanal and Durak Uguten (2019) adopted Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2007) model of teacher self-efficacy beliefs and investigated pre-service English Language teacher's self-efficacy beliefs and it was concluded that even though these pre-service teachers had higher levels of teacher efficacy in the three subscales, teachers felt themselves as the most efficacious for instructional strategies, followed by classroom management and student engagement respectively. These results implied that the teachers were efficacious, involved their students in the instructional process, engaged their students effectively as well as demonstrated mastery in their classroom management.

Cankaya (2018) in research entitled "The exploration of self-efficacy beliefs of English language teachers" arrived at the conclusion that student engagement was dominant in view of teachers in the research sample than instructional strategies and classroom

management. Cankaya's (2018) findings support that of Baykara (2011) and Celik and Zehir Topkaya (2017) where even though teachers were discovered to have demonstrated moderately high teaching efficacy perceptions, they were unveiled as being most efficacious in student engagement than their efficacy in classroom management and instructional strategies. In Turkey, Ertas and Aslan-Tutak (2021) discovered that elementary mathematics teachers rated themselves as more effective in teaching tactics than in classroom management and student involvement. However, the findings of this study contradicted Klassen and Chiu (2010), who found that teachers had a high degree of self-efficacy in classroom management, instructional tactics, and moderate levels of student involvement. From these reports, it is evident that teachers had different and varied competencies in their efficacy beliefs in educational institutions. It is, therefore, pertinent that studies are carried out to ascertain the nature and levels of efficacy exhibited by teachers in their schools.

On the African context, Mathenjwa and Dlamini's (2020) studies on the level of the teacher-efficacy of beginning Senior High School agriculture teachers in Eswatini discovered moderate levels of self-efficacy among all the three indicators of teacher self-efficacy beliefs where self-efficacy beliefs in classroom management was rated higher than, instructional strategies and student engagement. On the Ghanaian scene, a study by Coffie and Doe (2019) investigated pre-service Science teacher self-efficacy beliefs in teaching Science at the basic schools in Ghana and concluded that pre-service science teachers had high self-efficacy beliefs in teaching science however, higher self-efficacy beliefs were reported amongst those enrolled in science programme than their counterparts in general science programme. Similarly, a study by Ngman-Wara and Edem (2016) entitled "Pre-service basic science teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and attitudes towards science teaching" disclosed that pre-service basic science teachers

have a high level of self-efficacy beliefs and a good attitude toward teaching basic science. These teachers, on the other hand, voiced worries about their abilities to facilitate hands-on activities and laboratory work in future scientific lessons. From a generalist perspective, Sarfo, Amankwah, Sam and Konin (2015) investigated teachers self-efficacy beliefs while exploring for the relationship between gender and instructional strategies, classroom management and student engagement in the Kumasi metropolis of Ghana. The findings of the study revealed that even though teachers demonstrated a relatively higher self-efficacy, they were ranked highest and demonstrated tremendous efficacy on their student engagement than classroom management while their efficacy in instructional strategies was ranked the least.

Additionally, even though research on Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs is rare within the context of Ghana, a recent study by Nyantakyi, Bordoh, Anim and Brew (2020) entitled Social Studies curriculum: "Teachers' conception and efficacy beliefs in Junior High Schools in Ghana" discovered that a large number of Social Studies teachers lacks appreciation and idea on what Social Studies is or should be. Teachers found themselves in a variety of concepts and definitions of the subject as a result of their position. The findings also admitted that majority of the Social Studies teachers rated their efficacy in terms of classroom management, instructional technique, and student involvement to be very high. According to the study, Social Studies teachers should devote adequate time to lesson planning, teaching learning materials, and other associated tasks in order to improve their efficacy in the subject's teaching effectiveness so as to positively impact learners' attitudes which is one of the cardinal areas of concentration of the subject.

It could be observed from the extant studies that varied and indeed several indicators are used in assessing the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers in various jurisdictions within and across different subject teachers. These studies have proven that there were inconsistencies in the results. This implies that assessment of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs should be supported by situation-bound evidence which calls for further research in diverse subject disciplines such as Social Studies teachers. Besides, it was evident from the discussion that while some studies revealed that student engagement was the most prevailing self-efficacy construct others also revealed different constructs being the most dominant as well as being relative to teachers of other subject disciplines other than Social Studies teachers. Based on these conflicting findings, this study was conducted to gather evidence on the nature of self-efficacy beliefs from the perspective of Senior High School Social Studies teachers in the Central Region of Ghana.

2.7.2 Demographic Factors and Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs

Several studies have investigated the influence personal factors of teachers has on their self-efficacy beliefs. The following section reviews gender, age, academic qualification and years of teaching experience as teachers' personal characteristics influencing their self-efficacy beliefs.

2.7.3 Gender and Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs

In this study, gender referred to a person's biological sex-related beliefs, feelings, and behaviors, whereas sex referred to a person's biological status as evidenced by sex chromosomes and external genitalia (American Psychological Association [APA], 2015). Because self-efficacy encompasses attitudes, feelings, and behaviors, the idea of gender was chosen as a variable rather than sex for this study. As a result, male and female genders were studied. In a study that investigated gender differences in primary

school teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in Albania, Lesha (2017) discovered that there were statistically significant differences in the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers where a considerable difference in student involvement and classroom management between male and female teachers, with male teachers being significantly better at classroom management and student engagement than female teachers.

Consistent to Lesha's (2017) revelation, Moalosi and Forcheh (2015) study on self-efficacy levels and gender differentials among teacher trainees in Colleges of Education in Botswana revealed that female teachers outstripped their male counterparts with respect to student engagement, but there were no significant gender differences with respect to instructional strategies and classroom management. Sarfo et al., (2015) found that male and female teachers differed in relation to their instructional strategies with female teachers on average have better instructional strategies efficacy than male teachers. On the contrary, both male and female teachers did not differ in terms of classroom management and student engagement efficacies. Butucha's (2014) study found that there were significant gender differences in self-efficacy in classroom management where male teachers exhibited higher efficacy scores than female teachers.

Contrary, Bilali (2013) found in his study that teachers' gender did not statistically significantly influence their self-efficacy beliefs in Albania. Moturi (2014) study on the relationship between self-efficacy and academic performance in mathematics and English language among secondary school students in Nyamira District Kenya, concluded that gender did not account for any statistically significant differences in the self-efficacy beliefs of Mathematics and Science teachers. Okenyi and Enyi (2015) study in Nigeria and Tenaw's (2013) study in Ethopia, disclosed no statistically

significant differences between male and female teachers on the various constructs of their self-efficacy beliefs.

The results of the above studies suggest that conflicting results exist on the influence of gender on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Due to the lack of agreement in the results, there is the need for further investigations on the extent to which gender influence teacher's self-efficacy beliefs in context specific settings. Therefore, the influence of gender on Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs would be explored in this study.

2.7.4 Age and Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs

There is a plethora of contradictory evidence on the influence of age on teachers' self-efficacy. Even though Bandura (1995) proposed that age has no bearing on efficacy because people's ability to manage their lives efficaciously varies widely. More recent studies have confirmed these findings, concluding that there is no significant association between age and levels of self-efficacy of teachers (Hicks, 2012; Voris & Bjork, 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). Hicks (2012) investigated how classroom management, teacher's age, and self-efficacy levels were associated in the area of teacher's age and self-efficacy levels. According to the findings of this study, there was insufficient evidence to suggest a link between self-efficacy and teacher age. According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007), there was no significant difference in the probable sources of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs based on their age. Voris and Bjork (2011) examined how self teacher efficacy is influenced by early career special education teachers' age and the findings disclosed that there were no statistically significant differences in the self-efficacy beliefs of the teacher due to their age. In Ghana, Arko's (2021) investigation of how confident social studies teachers disclosed that age did not influence their self-efficacy beliefs.

Conflicting research evidence exists to validate the influence of teachers' age on their self-efficacy beliefs. For instance, Jaggernauth and Jameson-Charles (2015) studied secondary school teachers' efficacy in Caribbean, and reported statistically significant differences in the instructional strategies (a subscale of teachers' self-efficacy) based on age group. Relatedly, Gunduz-Ozsoy's (2017) study in Turkey reported significant difference between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and age. Specifically, the results disclosed that teachers in the age group 41-50 had higher self-efficacy beliefs than teachers in age groups 21-30 and 31-40, thus, suggesting that teacher self-efficacy increases with age. However, refuting Gunduz-Ozsoy's finding Edwards and Robinson rather indicated that teachers who are younger in age are associated with stronger beliefs of self-efficacy and higher expectations.

In sum, while there are several studies that use teacher age as a demographic variable, there is a paucity of research that directly links age to self-efficacy. When looking at research that does have this association, the findings are incongruent. This inconsistency is to be expected, given that self-efficacy is constantly developing and evolving. Bandura and Wessels (1994) noticed that while age has no bearing on self-efficacy, life periods that correspond to specific age ranges do show regular changes in self-efficacy. These contradicting results call for context and subject specific research on the influence of age on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, hence, the current study.

2.7.5 Years of Teaching Experience and Teachers' Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Teacher's years of teaching experience has been a subject of investigation as being crucial in either bolstering or throttling their self-efficacy beliefs or otherwise. As such researchers have investigated the influence of teachers' years of teaching experience on their self-efficacy beliefs. For instance, in his study, Frazier (2021) reported that there

was no statistically significant association between teachers' years of experience and their total teacher self-efficacy in implementing self-regulated instructional approaches. Similarly, prior studies have all disclosed that years of teaching experience do not affect teachers' self-efficacy views, (e.g., Güzel-Candan, & Evin-Gencel, 2015; Tweed, 2013; Gowrie & Ramdass, 2014; Phan & Locke, 2015; Jameson-Charles & Jaggernauth, 2015; Alrefaei, 2015). Likewise, in Turkey, Karanfil, and Ari (2016) looked at the predictors of teachers' self-efficacy and discovered that years of teaching experience is not an important predictor of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Similarly, Edwards, Green, and Lions (1996) found a negative relationship between teacher experience and teaching efficacy. These results suggest that years of teaching experience do not influence the efficacy levels of teachers. Interestingly, Edwards, Green, and Lions observed that while teachers advance in years of teaching experience their self-efficacy rather declines.

Contrary to the above findings, previous studies such as Arko (2021) in Ghana, found that Senior High School Social Studies teachers with 11-15years and 16-20years of teaching experience had higher self-efficacy score as compared to other teachers. This finding therefore suggests that years of teaching experience matters in bolstering the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers. Wang'eri and Otanga (2014) affirmed this finding when they also reported that teachers with 11-15 years teaching experience reported higher levels of teaching self-efficacy than teachers whose length of teaching spanned 10-15 years and those between 1-5years. The discussion has also indicated that researchers differed in their findings on the influence of years of teaching experience on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. Hence, studies are required to explore these variables in other contexts like the Central Region of Ghana.

2.7.6 Academic Qualification and Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs

Teachers' academic/educational qualification has been acknowledged to be one of their sources of variation in their self-efficacy beliefs. Indeed, Shaukat, Vishnumolakala and Albustami's (2019) study on the impact of teachers' characteristics on their self-efficacy and job satisfaction found that teachers' background characteristics like academic education had significant influence on self-efficacy beliefs and job satisfaction. In a survey conducted by Mona, Sofie, Hilde, Geert and Saabrina (2018), it was discovered that academic qualification of teachers is a crucial predictor of their self-efficacy beliefs and that of self-efficacy beliefs and academic qualification of teachers are inextricably linked.

Specifically, Mona et al., (2018) revealed that overall innovation ability and teaching innovation among postgraduate teachers was significantly higher and above than teachers those of undergraduate and below teachers. Xiong, Sun, Liu, Wang and Zheng (2020) corroborated the preceding finding that Physical Education teachers' academic qualification is critical in enhancing their self efficacies in their work input and creative thinking. Hence, there is enough evidence to validate the assertion that teachers' academic qualification is a crucial antecedent to their self-efficacy beliefs.

Despite the inextricable nature of teachers' academic qualification and their self-efficacy beliefs as indicated by the preceding studies, other studies have documented no link between academic qualification of teachers and their self-efficacy beliefs. In Iran, for example, Akbari and Moradkhani (2010) compared the efficacy of teachers with English-related teaching degrees to those with general degrees, finding that only teachers' efficacy to engage with students was impacted, but only by a small amount, indicating that degree type had little impact on self-efficacy. In Thailand, teachers with

higher levels of education or academic qualification did not have stronger self-efficacy, and this had no significant impact on their self efficacy beliefs (Crook, 2016).

However, all three TSES subscales, as well as a study-specific factor of Oral English Language Use and a more general personal teaching efficacy (PTE) factor, were all positively connected to teachers' highest degree attained in Korea, showing that higher level academic qualification may be beneficial (Lee & Tsai, 2010). As a result, when considering academic qualification and teacher self-efficacy, outcomes appear to differ somewhat between situations, comparable to experience. Hence, it could be concluded that although studies reveal a general impact, it is not always positive and obvious, and there is currently no clear explanation as to how/if higher-level degrees can boost instructors' sense of efficacy in the classroom. The findings from these studies show that there is lack of consensus on the influence of teachers' academic qualification on teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. The existence of contradictory findings on these variables informed the formulation of the hypothesis in the study.

2.8 Studies on the Level of Teacher Job Performance

Owing to the revelation that teacher job performance is a prerequisite for the realization of educational goals, the level of teacher job performance has become an issue of concern to education stakeholders. Several researchers have investigated the level of teachers' job performance in different contexts of the world. In Nigeria, Adeyemi (2011) discovered that the level of teachers' job performance in senior secondary schools was moderate. Out of the 240 respondents, 92 respondents representing 38.3% reported that teachers' job performance in the schools was moderate level whiles 87 respondents (36.3%) rated the level of teachers' job performance as low. These findings suggest that teachers' job performance in the schools was not at its best. More

specifically, the findings showed that more than half of the respondents (n=130, 54.2%) claimed that teachers' performance was at a moderate level while 68, 28.3% reported that teachers' performance in the school was at a low level. The results further disclosed that 104 (43.3%) reported that lesson preparation by the teachers was at a low level, 115 (47.9%) reported that teachers evaluated their teaching, 110 (45.8%) of them rated that teachers' monitoring of pupils' work was at a moderate level. Besides, 104 (43.3%) reported that the disciplinary ability of many teachers was at a low level. Consistently, Imhangbe, Victor and Osarenren-Osaghae's (2020) study entitled "teachers' classroom job performance: How teachers' tasks impact their classroom job performance in Edo Central School District, Nigeria" showed that classroom job performance of public senior secondary schools teachers in the school district was generally low.

In another study conducted in Mogadishu, Ali, Dahie and Ali (2016) showed that there was low level of job performance among the staff. The results above revealed that there are conflicting results on the level of teacher job performance which suggests that further investigation into this issue is required. With the low level of performance, it could be inferred that secondary school teachers in the Klang District were less likely to carry out the given tasks as expected. In another study conducted in Mogadishu, Ali, Dahie and Ali (2016) showed that there was high level of job performance of library personnel. In another study in Nigeria, Bolarinwa (2002) discovered a moderate level of teachers' job performance which showed that the teachers' performance was below expectation which resulted in ineffective teaching and learning in the schools. In Malaysia, Selamat, Samsu and Kamalu (2013) investigated the levels of job performance among teachers in Klang District. The findings revealed that 91.9% showed low level of job performance, and 8.1% of respondents showed moderate level

of job performance. The results showed that none of the teachers showed high level of job performance.

In another study, however, Usop, Askandar, Langguyuan-Kadtong and Usop (2013) concluded that the teachers of Division of Cotabato City, Philippines, displayed a high level of performance. The findings of this study indicated that teachers in the study area discharged their responsibilities and exhibited appropriate behaviours that resulted in the realization of the schools' aims. Similarly, Amin, Shah, Ayaz, and Atta (2013) established that teachers' level of job performance as expressed by themselves was high. Likewise, previous studies (Hassan & Ibourk, 2021; Anastasiou & Belios, 2020; Darmody & Smyth, 2016; Sokmen & Kilic, 2019) have all indicated high levels of teacher job performance in Morocco, Greece, Ireland and Turkey respectively.

In Kenya, Kingoina, Kadenyi, and Ngaruiya (2015) evaluated teachers' instructional duties vs teachers' academic achievement in public primary schools in Marani Sub-County, Kenya, in an attempt to establish a link between their work assignments and their classroom job performance. The findings revealed that teachers' instructional task of preparing lessons before class was not only completed correctly and effectively, but also contributed considerably to informing students' academic achievement levels. Several researches (Omiko, 2016; Ikegbusi & Eziamaka, 2016; Nwite, 2016) looked at the role and influence of the composition and/or configuration of instructional task assignments on general instructors' instructional task performance levels in different parts of Nigeria, Africa, and Asia. The research findings revealed a favorable and moderate level of job performance. In a related studies on the level of teacher job performance, Ejidike and Oyelana (2015) and Adu-Ebenezer and Ade-Ajayi (2015) discovered in their respective studies that teacher job performance was high. Other

studies (Nwite, 2016; Omiko, 2016) also worked on the issue of teachers' classroom task assignment and subsequent job performance reported that there was a low level of teachers' classroom job performance, particularly in the areas of classroom management and related assignments that affect teaching and learning processes.

On the Ghanaian scene, report appears to suggest that the level of teacher job performance is worrying. A report disclosed that about 90 per cent of teachers in the Talensi and Nabdam Districts of the Upper East Region were absent from school without permission between 2012 to 2013 (Ghanaweb May, 2013). This report implies that teacher absenteeism is prevalent in some parts of Ghana. Using regularity as an indicator of job performance, it could be argued that teacher job performance is low. However, a recent study by Bentil (2021) investigated the influence of school climate on teacher job performance in Ghana and concluded that basic school teachers in Shama District was rated very good. Similarly, a study by Appiah and Esia-Donkoh (2018) on supervisory styles and teacher job performance among headteachers and teachers in public basic schools in Mankessim education circuit rated teachers job performance to be very good. Studies have shown that results of the level of teacher job performance are inconsistent. This makes inquiry into teacher job performance open to further investigations.

The results above reveal some findings that call for discussion. First, it could be observed that even though these preceding studies were conducted with range of teachers from both basic and senior high schools, these teachers are not social studies teachers thereby warranting further studies on subject specific teachers such as social studies teachers so as to get a comprehensive picture on the level of teacher job performance across different subject specialisms. Also, it could be deduced that there

are inconsistent results on the level of teacher job performance which suggests that further investigation into this issue is necessary; hence, the current study.

2.9 Relationship between Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs and Job Performance

Previous studies have investigated the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their job performance. Studies have shown that there is a relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and job performance among teachers (Kasalak, & Dagyar, 2020). For instance, Waweru et al. (2021) noticed that self-efficacy is positively correlated to their job performance. These scholars postulated that teachers with high efficacy beliefs are able to adopt techniques and strategies to tap the creativity of students thereby making learning easier. Besides, their classroom environment is characterized by open-minded, combine energy, ideas and knowledge of diverse people in a highly constructive manner.

In a survey by Tarajova and Metruki (2020), it was confirmed that a significant positive association between the teacher's self-efficacy and job performance. The findings of these studies suggested that self-efficacy beliefs were vital in determining the job performance of teachers, and that enhancing their efficacy beliefs are crucial antecedents their job performance, because, their performance increases as their efficacy improves. Therefore, it is important that teachers analyze the kind of efficacy beliefs they adopt if they desire to increase employee performance in their schools.

Yusdarti and Aulia (2020) discovered that self-efficacy beliefs correlate and impact the relationship among their job performance. Specifically, studies have documented a positive and statistically significant relationship between self-efficacy and teacher job performance (Ishak &, Jamian, 2021; Gilkes, 2020). Consequently, most teachers must endeavor to improve and enhance their efficacy prowess to deal with difficult instances

in their classrooms to promote and improve their performance. Several previous studies have shown that having enhanced or improved efficacy is an important predictor of teacher job outcomes, and that teachers who are highly efficacious are patient, caring, kind, lead productive relationship and have adequate knowledge about their learners which inure to the benefits of the students, (Wenberg et al., 2013; Griffioen, De Jong & Jak, 2013; Khurshid, Qasmi, & Ashraf, 2012; Ozder, 2011).

However, differing results exist as well. In a recent study, no statistically significant relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and job performance was identified (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2019). This result suggested that job performance of teachers is not contingent on their self-efficacy beliefs. In their study, Hassan and Ibourk (2021), to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and their performance of teachers, and discovered that there was an inverse relationship among the variables.

The literature has demonstrated that there are conflicting results on the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and teachers' job performance. It is documented that majority of the studies reported a positive relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and job performance among teachers. It is apparent from these studies that some degree of self-efficacy is essential for desirable job performance among teachers. Hence, it has been confirmed that self-efficacy beliefs heighten teachers' job performance. However, some researchers reported no relationship between self-efficacy and teachers' job performance. The existence of these contradictory findings call for further studies to shed more lights on the linkage between self-efficacy and job performance in specific settings.

2.10 Effects of Emotional Intelligence on Job Performance

The effect as in connection between EI and employee job performance has been a subject of several investigations by previous researchers throughout the world. In Poland, Rogowska and Meres (2022) conducted a study on the mediating role of job performance in the relationship between emotional intelligence and life satisfaction among teachers during the COVID-19 pandemic. Generally, the findings of the study revealed that emotional intelligence is a significant positive predictor of job performance and life satisfaction of teachers. It was further revealed that job performance of teachers is a strong positive predictor of their life satisfaction. Hence, the study concluded by reinforcing the need to implement training to improve emotional intelligence and increase job performance and the general well-being of teachers. Even though this study provided a justification on the need for EI in enhancing teacher job performance of teachers, the researchers did not report the magnitude of the effect of the overall effect of EI on job performance of the teachers.

Durdu and Sarhin (2018) investigated effects of EI on teachers' ability to create a good classroom climate in Izmir city of Turkey. The researchers adopted the quantitative methodology in undertaking the study by adopting the Bar-On model of EI, and the findings showed that, the teachers who had high EI and experienced low burnout and were found to be energetic and were able to create a good classroom climate that engendered good academic achievement among the students. Hence, the study concluded that teachers who had high EI were able to develop and protect a regular classroom environment for effective learning and teaching. In other words, teachers having high EI can create positive, coherent relational-social satisfaction environment.

In Pakistan, Asrar-ul-Haq, Anwar and Hassan (2017) conducted a study on the impact of emotional intelligence on teachers' performance in higher education institutions of Pakistan by adopting the quantitative methodology where Smart PLS was employed to analyse the research questions and hypotheses. The findings of the study disclosed that emotional intelligence has a significant impact on the teachers' job performance. Specifically, the findings further disclosed that indicators of EI such as emotional self-awareness, self-confidence, achievement, developing others and conflict management had a positive and significant relationship with the teachers' job performance.

In Nigeria, Akhigbe and Abimbola (2020) investigated the emotional intelligence and job performance in Nigerian Paramilitary Forces in Port Harcout and River State. In using quantitative methodology, the findings showed that there was substantial effect between the measures of job performance and the emotional intelligence components such as self-awareness, self-motivation, self-management, and relationship management as well as task behaviour and interpersonal behaviour. The findings also showed that the correlation between emotional intelligence and job performance was positively influenced by organizational climate. In the light of the findings, the study came to the conclusion that employees perform better on the job, which naturally translates into greater organizational performance, and higher emotional intelligence. The study consequently suggested, among other things, that programs for training and development be put in place to raise staff members' emotional intelligence levels, which would then result in improved job performance.

In the Greater Accra Region of Ghana, Butakor, Guo and Adebanji (2021) used a structural equation modeling to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, professional identity, and work engagement among

teachers within the Adentan Municipality. The findings of the study revealed that teachers' emotional intelligence positively predicted their professional identity directly and indirectly through job performance. The study, therefore, concluded by making recommendation for Ghanaian teachers to develop and improve their emotional intelligence due to the critical role it plays in their job performance. Contrary to the aforementioned studies that concluded that EI predict the job performance of teachers, Aghdasi, Kiamanesh, Ebrahim (2011) did not find any significant effect between organizational commitment, job performance, and EI of teachers. This contradictory finding suggests that the effect of EI on the job performance of teachers is open to further scrutiny from context and subject specific settings which provided the impetus for the study.

The conclusion drawn from previous studies is that EI is critical in the discussion of the variables that predict the job performance of teachers. This implies that teachers with a strong EI boosts their job performance, and a weak level of EI represses teacher job performance. Therefore, it is pertinent that a strong EI is developed among teachers in educational institutions so as to boost job performance, and lead to the realization of educational goals. Even though studies like that of Butakor, Guo and Adebanji (2021) was conducted on the Ghanaian scene, there is very petite literature on the effect of EI on job performance of subject specific teachers and also from the context of Social Studies teachers in the senior high schools in the Central Region of Ghana, hence, this study is relevant.

2.11 Level of Teachers' Emotional Intelligence in Educational Institutions

Researchers carried out studies to find out the level of EI among teachers in various jurisdictions of the world. For instance, Chapagain (2020) investigated the level of EI

among university-level teachers in Nepal by employing the Bar-On model of EI. In this study, the quantitative methodology was utilized and the findings of the study showed a moderately high level of EI among the university level teachers. The study further showed that emotional awareness was ranked highest followed by emotional acceptance, emotional attitude and emotional action respectively. Likewise, a study by Stami, Ritin, and Dominique (2018) in Australia and Pooja and Kumar (2016) showed a moderately high level of EI among radiation therapists as well as the education and banking sector workers involved in the respective studies.

In a related study, Angayarkanni (2021) examined the level of EI among private school teachers in Tambaram, India, and reported higher level of EI in all the five dimensions of EI: self-awareness, motivation, empathy, self-regulations and social skills. The findings showed that these teachers prioritise the development of their effectiveness and professionalism and through teacher knowledge, teacher values skills and professional practice. In a study on the sociodemographic-professional profile and emotional intelligence in infant and primary education teachers in the Manabi province of Ecuador, Arteaga-Cedeño et al., (2022) employed quantitative methodology in analysing the research questions identified in the study. The findings of the study showed that primary education teachers in the Manabi province of Ecuador exhibited high levels in all the three levels of EI (emotional regulation, emotional understanding and emotional perception) as outlined in the study.

Agbelie and Aliyu (2022) conducted a study on the level of EI among middle-level Ghanaian insurance industry. These researchers adopted the quantitative methodology and the findings showed that middle level managers possessed high levels in all the indicators of EI such as self-awareness, self-management, motivation, social skills, and

empathy even though competency in social skills was ranked highest followed by empathy, motivation, self-awareness while self-regulation was ranked the least. This result demonstrates that middle level managers in the Ghanaian insurance sector have the ability to use information from one's own emotions as well as those of others, comprehend how these are expressed in actions and thoughts, and use emotional information obtained to control one's judgment and behavior.

Contrary to the evidence from the aforementioned empirical studies that showed moderately high levels of EI, Lahore and Nazly (2021) conducted a study on the EI of secondary school teachers in the Vehari District in Punjab, Pakistan and the findings showed a generally low level of EI in all the five levels of EI, thus, self-awareness, managing oneself, managing emotions, empathy, and social skill even though teachers reported slightly better EI in empathy and social skills components of EI. Likewise, in a recent study Dampson (2021) conducted an investigation on headteachers emotional intelligence in Senior High Schools in Ghana showed that headteachers had low level of EI.

The conclusion drawn from these previous studies is that the level of teacher job performance has been the subject of several investigation and evidence from around the world has shown different levels of EI. While some studies revealed high levels of EI among teachers, findings from other studies also revealed low levels of EI among teachers with Ghana being inclusive. As noted earlier by scholars such as Arteaga-Cedeño et al., (2022), the dangers of low EI among teachers include loss of working hours as a result of unpleasant circumstances and situations, low job performance and commitment as well as increase in attrition and turnover intentions. This implies that teachers with high level of EI boost their job performance whereas low or weak level

of EI represses teachers' job performance. Therefore, it is pertinent that the level of EI among teachers are continually tracked from context and subject specific context, hence, this study becomes relevant.

2.12 Demographic Factors and Teachers' Emotional Intelligence

Demographic characteristics of teachers thus, teachers' gender, age, academic qualification, years of teaching experience and among other variables have been explored by researchers as being indicators or influencing their emotional intelligence. As such, the following section presents empirical review on the influence of teachers' demographic characteristics and how they influence their emotional intelligence.

2.12.1 Gender and Teachers' Emotional Intelligence

Evolving body of literature has indicated that gender impact of the level of emotional intelligence of people in varied disciplines. Jorfi et al. (2011) maintained that gender is a complex set of interwoven cultural values that influence an individual's perception of himself or herself as a woman or man, an individual's typical expectation of women and men, and the type of results an individual expects to achieve. As such, gender has been proposed as a predictor of people's aspirations, perspectives, behaviors, and attitudes in the literature (Jorfi et al., 2011; Pooja & Kumar, 2016; Shukla & Srivastava, 2016). Shukla and Srivastava (2016) conducted an independent Pearson correlation on retail employees and discovered significant differences in their emotional intelligence scores based on respondents' gender, with female respondents scoring higher than their male counterparts. Female employees in the Indian service sector also outperformed male employees in terms of EI (Pooja & Kumar, 2016). Frank, Baron-Cohen, and Ganzel (2015) attributed female's higher EI scores to their traditional primary roles of

child caregiving, which provide them with awareness and responsiveness to human nonverbal expressions and emotions.

In education, Ponmozhi and Ezhilbharathy (2017) found a strong and significant positive correlation between teachers' emotional intelligence and gender. In Ghana, Dampson's (2021) study on headteachers emotional intelligence in Senior High Schools in Ghana revealed that gender significantly influenced headteachers level of emotional intelligence. Specifically, the study disclosed that female headteachers were more emotional intelligent than their male counterparts. Consistent with Dampson's findings, Bar-On and Parker (2000) identified substantial disparities between males and females in terms of total emotional and social competence. In Bar-On and Parker's (2000) study, females appeared to be more aware of emotions, showed more empathy, had stronger interpersonal relationships, and acted more socially responsible than males. Males, on the other hand, have higher self-esteem, are better at stress management, problem solving, and are more self-reliant, flexible, and optimistic than women.

Despite the fact that many studies found significant differences based on gender, other studies were unable to find these statistically significant differences between gender and the level of emotional intelligence (Faith, 2022; Delgoda & Weersinghe, 2021) and has, therefore, yielded conflicting results. This is because gender roles are convergent, putting both men and women in similar situations where they may adapt similarly. Thus, the influence of gender on the level of EI in individuals is still being studied, and as research on the subject of EI continues, a trend on gender influence may become visible in the future (Kumar & Muniandy, 2012). Furthermore, as men become more involved in caring for their children and other dependents, a neurological adaptation to

social skillfulness may be observed in the coming years, and the gender influence may become more complex (Gunkel & Schlaegel, 2013).

2.12.2 Age and Teachers' Emotional Intelligence

Sergio, Dungca and Gonzales-Lim-Ormita (2015) asserted that older members of society are assumed to have experienced far more adversity than their younger counterparts, and thus to have developed greater flexibility and adaptability in their social interactions and in dealing with their own emotions. Accordingly, researchers have uncovered that the level of emotional intelligence reflected in social adaptability and awareness is thought to be related to age (Frank, Baron-Cohen & Ganzel, 2015). Kumar and Muniandy (2012) discovered that emotional intelligence of persons rises with age up to 50 years and tends to decline as the subjects grow older than 50 years. Jorfi et al. (2011) supported this positive relationship between age and EI in their literature review on educational administrations in Iran. Chen, Peng, and Kirk (2015) discovered that age was positively related to emotional appraisal and regulation in self and negatively related to emotional appraisal and use in others in a study of Chinese and American adults.

Evidence from these studies in the preceding paragraph suggest that teachers' level of emotional intelligence appreciate with the teachers' age and that the more an individual advances in age, the more teachers become emotionally intelligent. Nevertheless, evidence from other studies (Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009; Mishra, 2013) suggests that age is not a factor in determining the emotional intelligence of individuals. The results of the above studies suggest that conflicting findings exist on the influence of age on teachers' emotional intelligence. Due to the lack of agreement in the results, there is the need for further investigation on the extent to which age influences the

emotional intelligence of teachers. Therefore, the influence of age and emotional intelligence were explored in this study.

2.12.3 Years of Experience and Teachers' Emotional Intelligence

The number of years that an individual spends in a specific field of profession is important for the individual to become exposed, acquainted, and versed in the dynamics of the profession (Shukla & Srivastava, 2016). It has been argued that the longer an individual works in a profession, the more experienced, adaptable and knowledge he or she gains. In this regard, it is assumed that individuals with more work experience have higher levels of emotional intelligence than those who are new to the respective profession. According to Jorfi et al. (2011), employee work experience is positively related to emotional intelligence, which means that emotional intelligence increases with the number of years one has served in a profession in Malaysia. This finding is backed up by Kumar and Muniandy (2012), who discovered that emotional intelligence varies significantly with years of experience.

Emotional intelligence value increases with years of work experience and reaches a peak when the employee has worked for around 16-20 years, with an increase in years of work experience causing the emotional intelligence value for the employees to fall (Pooja & Kumar, 2016). Sergio et al. (2015), on the other hand, argued that work tenure, which translates to work experience, has no significant relationship with emotional intelligence among call center employees in the Middle East, Iran, Pakistan, Russia, India, and the Philippines. Despite mixed findings on the influence of years of teaching experience on emotional intelligence of teachers, years of teaching experience can be considered an important aspect in today's work environment that requires good social skills and sound self-management to achieve goals (Sergio et al., 2015; Shukla &

Srivastava, 2016). Based on these findings, it is obvious that years of teaching experience influence teachers' emotional intelligence. This calls for further studies into the influence of teachers' years of teaching experience and their emotional intelligence in subject specific context such as Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

2.13 Effects of Teachers Self-Efficacy Beliefs on Job Performance Mediated by Emotional Intelligence in Educational Institutions

The effect of teacher's self-efficacy beliefs on job performance mediated by emotional intelligence have been studied in educational institutions around the world, and different kinds of relationships have been identified. These effects depict a web of connection among the different beliefs teachers have about themselves in executing instructional activities while also being able to manage their emotions and that of others. Hence, Masoumparast (2016) has observed that there is a growing body of literature pointing to the fact that there exists a correlation between self-efficacy and emotional intelligence and this translates into the job performance of employees. For instance, Wu et al., (2019) examined the mediating role of teaching performance on teachers' EI and self-efficacy in China and the findings showed that EI was not only directly connected with teachers' levels of self-efficacy, but also indirectly correlated with teachers' levels of self-efficacy through teaching performance, thus, encouraging EI is a key strategy for boosting instructors' self-efficacy. In their study, Bing et al., (2022) used a Structural Equation Modelling to investigate the mediation role of self-efficacy beliefs on the influence of emotional intelligence and job performance of teachers in China and the results demonstrated that teacher emotional intelligence mediated the self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of teachers.

Likewise, Sokmen and Sarikaya (2022) carried out a study on the mediating role of self-efficacy beliefs between emotional intelligence and job performance of primary school teachers in Eastern Anatolia Region of Turkey by utilizing the structural equation modelling analytical technique with the assistance of AMOS programme. The study showed that self-efficacy and emotional intelligence of teachers positively and significantly predicted their job performance. In other words, the primary school teachers' level of emotional intelligence also reflected their high levels of self-efficacy and job performance. Consistent with these findings, I posit that the influence of self-efficacy on job performance is mediated by emotional intelligence. In another study in Pakistan, Saddique, Bibi and Taseer (2020) examined the relationship between EI and job performance of teachers in secondary schools in the Punjab province and the findings showed that, there was a strong and statistically significant relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence and job performance. Besides, the findings of the study further revealed that teachers' emotional intelligence had a crucial predictability towards the job performance of teachers. Therefore, the study concluded that, EI is a vehicle for improving the job performance of teachers.

Hameli and Ordun (2021) also conducted a study on the mediating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance among teachers in Kosovo. The findings of the study disclosed that organizational commitment and self-efficacy were both positively correlated with emotional intelligence. Furthermore, the outcomes of the mediation study support the notion that self-efficacy serves as a mediator in the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance. In Nigeria, Salami (2007) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in secondary school teachers' attitudes in South Western Nigeria. The study's findings revealed a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and

secondary school teachers' self-efficacy. These relationships portray the interaction between teacher's self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence and that each complements the other. Sutton and Wheatley (2003) suggested that if a teacher's efficacy varies significantly, it may be due in part to differences in the teacher's emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence, according to Chan (2004), has a significant impact on self-efficacy beliefs. Morris et al., (2013) discovered that people with high levels of emotional intelligence were also able to manage with changing situations around them, whereas people with low levels of emotional intelligence struggled to deal with change.

According to Penrose et al. (2007), there is a link between self-efficacy and emotional intelligence. Salami (2007) found a similar association between instructors working in secondary schools in Southwest Nigeria. In Hong Kong, Chan (2008) investigated the association between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy in pre-service and in-service teachers. His research focused on the connection as a source of both active and passive coping mechanisms. He discovered that people who had excellent emotional control acquired high levels of self-efficacy. Based on these findings, it is obvious that self-efficacy influences the emotional intelligence of employees and the fact that different emotional intelligence models exist, it is crucial that studies are conducted to ascertain if the self-efficacy beliefs with mixed model of emotional intelligence would relate with job performance. As such further studies are required within the context of educational environment such as the Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana; hence, the current study.

2.14 Demographic Characteristics and Emotional Intelligence of Teachers

Previous studies have investigated the influence of teachers' demographic variables like gender, academic qualification, and years of teaching experience on their EI in various jurisdictions around the world. For instance, Angayarkanni (2021) examined the impact of demographic variables on EI among private school teachers in Tambaram, India. In this study, Angayarkanni analysed the data by employing the One-way between groups ANOVA. The findings showed that, demographic variables of teachers such as age and academic qualification statistically significantly influenced their EI. These findings imply that other demographic variables such as gender and years of teaching experience is not a determinant of differences in EI among the teachers in Tambaram, India. Contrary to this finding, Sharma and Siddiqui's (2018) study on the influence of certain demographic variables on EI of university teachers in India disclosed that even though no statistically significant differences were realised in other demographic characteristics, both male and female teachers were found to possess similar levels of EI construct and was statistically significant.

Likewise, in Dampson's (2021) study in Ghana, the researcher investigated the level of teachers' EI as well as comparing if the teachers differed significantly in their perception of EI based on demographic variables such as sex, age and academic qualification. In analysing the hypotheses set for the study, the researcher employed multiple regression analysis and the findings of the study established that there was a statistically significant difference in the various levels of EI between male and female while academic qualification did not statistically significantly influence the perception of headteachers on their EI. These findings suggest that while sex and age of the headteachers influenced their EI, academic qualification did not impact the perception of headteachers on their EI in Ghana. In a contrary study in Ghana, Butakor, Guo and

Adebanji (2021) used a structural equation modelling to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, professional identity, and work engagement while also exploring the influence of teachers' demographic variables. Specifically, the independent samples t-test results revealed no statistically significant mean differences between male and female teachers in terms of their EI.

A study on Indian service sector employees by Pooja and Kumar (2016) revealed that the demographic variables such as gender, age, educational qualification, and work experience statistically significantly predicted their EI where female employees were found to possess significantly higher EI than their male counterparts as well as employees with high age (51-60 years), non-technical education, and long work experience (16-20 years) also possessing significantly higher EI than the other categories. Likewise, a study by Stami, Ritin, and Dominique (2018) in Australia revealed significantly higher levels of EI among radiation therapists having a higher level of education, and among female, and young radiation therapists. Contrary, Yoke and Panatik's (2016) study among public school teachers in Malaysia did not reveal any statistically significant differences in the levels of EI based on gender and work experience. In a similar study in India, Karthikeyan and Lalwani's (2019) study among bank employees revealed that there were no statistically significant differences in the EI of the employees based on gender, age, educational level, and work experience.

It is interesting that certain studies have presented mixed but yet conflicting results. For instance, Birol, Atamturk, Silman, and Sensoy's (2019) study among teachers in Turkey revealed that whereas age and work experience statistically significantly predicted the EI, gender and education level of the teacher had no significant effect on their EI. Jayakody and Dharmasiri's (2017) study on the education and banking sectors workers

of Sri Lanka revealed a positive association between academic qualification and EI, but no association was realized between gender and EI, and an inverse association between work experience and EI.

A critical look at these empirical findings have revealed that few studies focused specifically on teachers from Ghana with no study on Social Studies teachers. Besides, majority of findings in extant literature were carried out in a variety of settings other than among Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in Ghana. With the contradictory findings where some studies observed mixed and statistically significant effect of demographic variables on EI, this study was carried out to provide context specific findings so as to shed more lights on the influence of teachers' demographic variables on their EI thereby expanding the frontiers on knowledge on the field.

As most of the studies were conducted in the different settings and very few were specifically on teachers. Keeping in view the importance of emotional intelligence and the role of demographic variables in the field of teachers, the present research was conducted to assess the influence of Social Studies teachers personal characteristics such as gender, age, academic qualifications and years of experience on their level of emotional intelligence.

2.15 Gaps in Literature

Evidence from the literature review shows that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance are crucial antecedents in the realization of goal 4 of United Nations Millennium Development Goals. Positive correlation has been observed in literature between self-efficacy beliefs and job performance and EI and job performance. However, there are context (basic schools and not senior high schools), methodological and discipline (subjects) related gaps in the body of knowledge in the

context of Ghana and more so among Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. This study would enhance the body of knowledge by exploring these variables so as to fill the context, methodological and discipline (subjects) related gaps in the context of Ghana. On a general note, besides analyzing teachers self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance, the study also examined whether interventions would be required such as training on EI, self-efficacy, and whether these effects are sustainable over time in improving the job performance of teachers.

With context gaps, empirical studies on self-efficacy beliefs in Ghana have concentrated on only kindergarten and basic schools, pre-service teachers and not Senior High Schools (Nyantakyi, Bordoh, Anim & Brew, 2020; Coffie & Doe, 2019; Boateng & Owusu-Sekyere, 2018; Abroampa, Rotimi, & Asante, 2017). Besides, only few studies investigated self-efficacy beliefs in other subject areas such as Ghanaian Language, Science and other subject discipline and not Social Studies (Coffie & Doe, 2019; Ngman-Wara & Edem, 2016; Antwi, Anderson & Abagali, 2016 with the few studies on self-efficacy beliefs among teachers in Senior High Schools in Ghana were conducted in Kumasi (Sarfo, Amankwaa, Sam, & Konin, 2015). Hence, this study hoped to fill the gap in literature by providing evidence to the research world, the perspectives of Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

On emotional intelligence, evidence from literature in Ghana has focused on its relationship on other constructs such as job satisfaction, professional identity, work engagement (Butakor, Guo & Adebanji, 2020; Owusu-Fordjour, Azure & Koomson, 2021; Kuyini, Desai & Sharma, 2018) with the most recent study focusing on only

headteachers (Dampson, 2021). On methodological gaps, these aforementioned studies looked at the study variables such as distinctive variables and were again conducted with different philosophical considerations and approaches (mostly pragmatist and interpretivist paradigms) other than the positivist paradigm which this study utilized. Therefore, this study sought to fill these gaps in literature from the Ghanaian scene.

2.16 Conceptual Framework of the Study

Conceptual framework of a study outlines the concepts or variables with their connections displayed in a figurative way (Creswell, 2021; Creswell & Poth, 2018). In their view, Collis and Hussey (2021) described a conceptual framework as a scheme of interconnections between concepts that is necessary to recognize and comprehend the nature of these concepts involved in a study. According to Khatri (2020), a conceptual framework contains a figurative and logical association of relationship between and among variables involved in a study. Hence, a conceptual framework describes a network of relationships and effects among variables that are operationalised to guide a researcher(s) in a particular study. In this direction, scholars such as Hair et al. (2021), therefore, encouraged researchers to draw their conceptual frameworks from the literature they have read so that they have solid evidence for why the links exist. From these definitions, I confer with other scholars and explain a conceptual framework as a list of all the variables under investigation and their relationships as operationalized in the study.

The conceptual framework guiding the study is outlined in Figure 2.1.

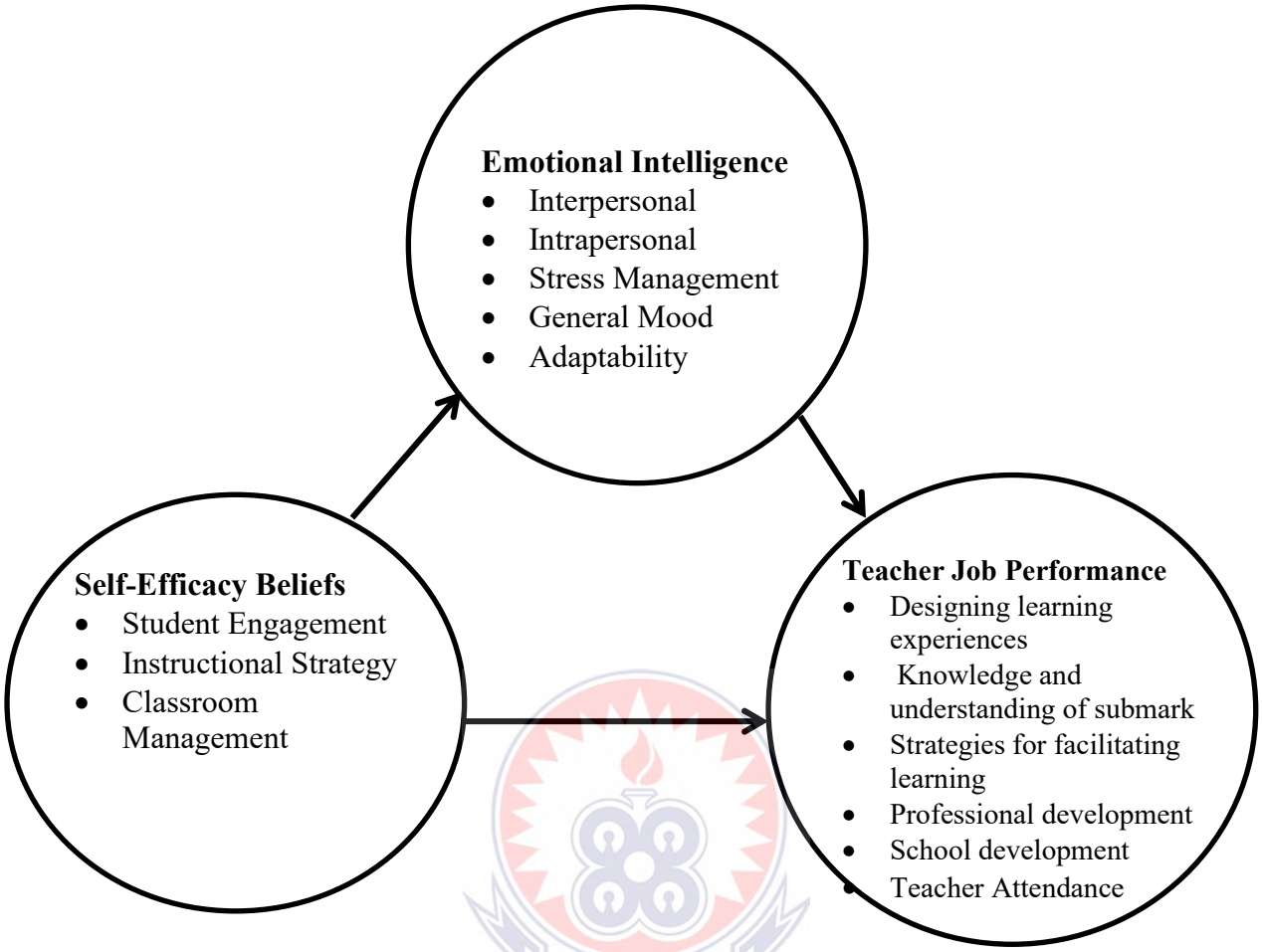

Figure 2.1 Mediation effect of Emotional Intelligence on the influence of Self-Efficacy beliefs and Teacher Job Performance

Source: Researcher's own Construct (2023)

As outlined in the conceptual framework, there are three sets of variables, including teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence, and job performance of Social Studies teachers being independent, mediating and dependent variables respectively. This framework is conceived based on the assertion that, investigations on the direct effect of teacher self-efficacy beliefs on other outcome variables like their job performance has shifted to the effect of mediating and moderating variables (Saddique Bibi & Taseer, 2020; Hameli & Ordun, 2021). As such, new trends in research regarding the causal effect of teacher self-efficacy beliefs on other variables is to assess

its indirect effect as in mediation and moderating studies. Hence, I assumed that the effect of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on their job performance could be mediated by teacher emotional intelligence.

The introduction of teacher emotional intelligence as a mediating variable in this study stems from two underlying assumptions. Firstly, I assumed that teacher self-efficacy beliefs outlined in Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2007) model of teacher self-efficacy beliefs are executed by the teachers themselves who are muti-faceted individuals with varied socio-economic background and make-up which are likely to inform their self-efficacy beliefs. The second assumption is that, teachers directly interact with students in the classroom and other stakeholders in the educational enterprise, hence, engagements by the teachers affect their efficacy and output in the discharge of their duties. Meanwhile, there is empirical evidence that teacher emotional intelligence affects their job performance (Rogowska & Meres, 2022; Durdu & Sarhin, 2018), hence, the introduction of emotional intelligence is to find out if it mediates the effect of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on their job performance. Therefore, I assumed that teachers' emotional intelligence directly and indirectly influences the effect of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on their job performance.

As outlined in the conceptual framework, teacher self-efficacy beliefs constituted the independent variable, emotional intelligence is the mediating variable, and teacher job performance is the dependent variable. Creswell (2019) differentiates between independent and dependent variables, where there is a presumption that the independent variable would affect the dependent variable, but the connection is not inverse. Other researchers (Civelek, 2018; Karakaya-Ozyer & Aksu-Dunya, 2018) defined an independent variable as a variable that is manipulated to determine how it affects a

different variable (dependent variable). In this study, the independent variable (teacher self-efficacy beliefs) comprises three dimensions, efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional strategy, and efficacy in classroom management.

A dependent variable is a variable that is affected or changed as a result of the manipulation in the independent variable (Civelek, 2018; Karakaya-Ozyer & Aksu-Dunya, 2018). Similarly, Hair et al., (2022) defined a dependent variable as the variable whose values are affected by other variables (independent variables). These definitions suggest that, a dependent variable is the one which is altered by the changes that occur in the independent variable of a study. In this study, teachers' job performance is the dependent variable which also consisted of five domains such as designing learning experiences for students, knowledge and understanding of subject matter, strategies for facilitating learning, professional development, school development, and teacher attendance.

A mediating variable which is also described as an intervening variable, is that variable through which the independent variable affects the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2022; Khatri, 2020). These scholars further intimated that an independent variable influences a mediator, which in turn influences the dependent variable, rather than the dependent variable itself. This implies that, the independent variable indirectly influences the dependent variable through the mediator. In relating this concept to the study, I hypothesised that emotional intelligence of teachers directly and indirectly influences and or mediate the influence of teacher self-efficacy beliefs on their job performance.

2.17 Summary of Chapter

The chapter was devoted to the literature review which was presented in three thematic areas. The literature review began with a discussion on the theoretical framework underpinning the study as well as a description of significant and key models and concepts relevant to the study. The Social Cognitive theory postulated by Bandura (1977) served as theoretical basis for the study, while Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) teachers self-efficacy model, Bar-On (2007) EQ-I Model on Emotional Intelligence and National Council of Educational Research and Training (2013) of New Delhi's model on teachers' job performance helped in contextualization and explaining the dimensions of self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance respectively. According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) model, self-efficacy beliefs of teachers manifest itself in three thematic areas, thus, self-efficacy beliefs in student engagement, self-efficacy beliefs in instructional strategy as well as self-efficacy beliefs in classroom management. The main thrust of this model is that every effective and efficient teacher must possess efficacy beliefs in these three areas so as to impact students learning positively for improved learning outcomes among the students.

Bar-On (2007) EQ-I Model on Emotional Intelligence comprises five dimensions, including interpersonal relationship, intrapersonal relationship, stress management, general mood and adaptability. Intrapersonal relationship encompasses five functions, including self-reward, emotional awareness, self-actualization, independence and assertiveness. Interpersonal relationship involves three functions: empathy, social responsibility, and social relationship. Stress management has two functions, including stress tolerance, and impulse control. General mood has two functions: optimism and happiness while adaptability has three functions including reality testing, flexibility and

problem-solving. Even though different models exist in the explanation and promotion of emotional intelligence, Bar-On (2007) model of emotional intelligence was considered in this study because it has been widely and extensively researched and used by researchers, besides, the domains in this model related well within the school context in Ghana and broadly entails an open conceptual understanding on emotional intelligence. For teacher job performance, criteria used by National Council of Educational Research and Training (2013) of New Delhi comprised designing learning experiences for students, knowledge and understanding of subject matter, strategies for facilitating learning, professional development, school development, and teacher attendance. This model was considered useful for the study because it related well to job indicators of teachers in Ghana and, therefore, deemed as central as a measure of teachers' job performance in Senior High Schools in Ghana.

Afterwards, the review of literature delved into the meaning and models of teacher self-efficacy beliefs. In this study, I operationalized teacher self-efficacy beliefs as the confidence a teacher has in his/her ability to execute a broad spectrum of instructional practices both in and out of the classroom that has the potential to influence students learning and development. Therefore, in the school setting, teachers' self-efficacy belief is the extent to which teachers' faith in their ability to assist learning in a variety of cognitive, metacognitive, affective, and social ways in varied task, domain, and context-specific ways. The review on self-efficacy beliefs also delved into the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs, its relevance and how it was applied within the context of the study. The theoretical review also involved the conceptual review and meaning of emotional intelligence, its trajectory and the various models that are used in explaining the concept of emotional intelligence. Here, a justification on why the Bar-on (2007) model was adopted and used in the study was given. In this study, I

operationalised teachers' emotional intelligence as an umbrella term which embraces teachers' competencies in managing their emotions and that of their students so as to get the best out of their learners so as to realize educational goals and objectives.

Furthermore, the conceptual review centred on the various models used in explaining the concept of teachers' job performance. Specifically, the study employed the National Council of Educational Research and Training (2013) of New Delhi. In this model, teacher job performance involves all the actions and obligations which the teacher executes in the classroom and outside the classroom under the auspices of the school. From the views, I conceptualized teacher job performance to encompass entails behavioural, observable, and quantifiable constituents that are needed to ensure attainment of educational goals. I operationalised teacher job performance as the results that teachers and indeed students acquire through designing learning experiences for students, knowledge and understanding of subject matter, strategies for facilitating learning, professional development, school development, and teacher attendance.

The second thematic area was the empirical review, which delved into the review of primary information reported by researchers in peer review journal articles. This component of the review was based on the research questions and the hypotheses outlined in the study. The review centred on the nature of self-efficacy beliefs of teachers, level of emotional intelligence among teachers, relationship and effect of teacher self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence on the job performance of teachers, the mediation role of emotional intelligence on the effect of self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of teachers as well as the demographic characteristics that account for differences in self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence of teachers.

The empirical review, which examined the analysis of original data presented by academics in peer-reviewed journal papers, was the second theme area captured in the literature review. The research questions and hypotheses presented in the study served as the foundation for this section of the review. The review focused on the use of self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence as well as how Social Studies teachers' demographic variables influence their perception of their self-efficacy beliefs and job performance. The empirical review ended with a discussion on the gaps identified in the review which this study sought to fill. These included evidence, methodological, knowledge, practical-knowledge, population, theoretical, and empirical gaps. Lastly, the review dwelled on the conceptual framework of the study. In this review, Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs conceptualized as independent variable which was presumed to influence teacher job performance. Teacher emotional intelligence was the mediating variable, while job performance among Social Studies teachers was the dependent variable. The next chapter of the thesis captures the methodology applied in conducting the study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter describes and gives a detailed account on the methodology that was utilized in carrying out this study. Methodology encompasses all the key decisions a researcher makes concerning the entire approach in conducting a study, including philosophical issues, and methods (Urcia, 2021; Kuranchie, 2021; Corrigan & Onwuegbuzie, 2020), while methods denote the precise techniques that a researcher adopts in the collection of data the purposes of analysis, discussion as well as its interpretation which is consistent with a chosen methodology (Bonache & Festing, 2020; Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Scholars maintain that in any scientific investigation, a researcher must delineate how the methodology and methods that lay the fulcrum leading to how the investigation will be conducted in order to make the results acceptable and credible for theory and practice (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Lincoln et al., 2018). Accordingly, the chapter delved into the philosophical or the paradigmatic stance that underpinned the methodological decisions made in the study. Additionally, the research approach, research design, setting of the study, population, sample size, and sample and sampling technique were also discussed. Besides, this chapter also detailed the data collection instruments, its development and how it was pre-tested and used for data collection and analysis. Test of assumptions that informed the usage of statistical tools for statistical analysis in answering the research questions and hypotheses, as well as the ethical considerations are all explained in this chapter.

3.1 Philosophical Underpinning of the Study

The choice of research methodology and methods is underpinned by contrasting constellation of beliefs regarding social reality and knowledge, therefore, there are varying schools of thought about the extent to which the philosophical perspective of a researcher is or is not an important consideration (Kuranchie, 2021; Rieger, 2019; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). According to Thomas (2021), the term philosophy emanates from two Greek words, 'Philein' and 'Sophia', where 'Philo' originates from 'Philein' which means 'to love', and 'Sophy' from 'Sophia', meaning 'wisdom' hence, philosophy originally refers to 'the love of wisdom' (p.34). Additionally, Erciyes (2020) traced the history of the term philosophy to Kuhns (1962) monograph titled "The Structure of Scientific Revolutions" where Kuhn explained philosophy to connote a particular way of thinking that is shared by a community of scientists in solving problems in their field and second to embody the commitments, beliefs, values, methods, outlooks and so forth shared across a discipline.

Furthermore, different scholars have used different terms to describe research philosophy. For instance, Denzin and Lincoln (2018) referred to these beliefs as 'paradigms', Creswell and Poth (2018) conceptualized them as 'worldview', Silverman and Patterson (2022) used the term 'models' whiles Collis and Hussey (2021) and Hegde and Salvatore (2021) considered these belief systems (philosophies) as worldviews or paradigms. Hence, it could be deduced from these assertions that research philosophy is also referred to as the paradigms, belief systems, worldwide views as well as the models that orient researchers in their choice of methodological approach and methods, the legitimacy of knowledge that is produced through research, and the relationship between the researcher and social realities in the research process. Extant literature have argued that in the discussion of philosophy, paradigm, belief

system, world view, models etc, it is critical for researchers to clearly articulate their epistemological, ontological, axiological, and methodological stances and that these philosophies, paradigms as well as belief systems of inquiry in research could be differentiated based on their epistemological, ontological, axiology, and methodological orientations (Collis & Hussey, 2021; Hegde & Salvatore, 2021; Erciyes, 2020). Hence, researchers ought to declare their philosophical stance that entails their epistemology, ontology, methods and axiology viewpoints.

In its etymological sense, the term 'epistemology' springs from the Greek word 'Episteme', meaning knowledge (Thomas, 2021; Ghauri, Gronhaug, & Strange, 2020). In research, epistemology is conceived as one of the branches of philosophy or paradigm that centers on what establishes or institutes true or reliable knowledge, and how people perceive and access knowledge (van Thiel, 2022; Collis & Hussey, 2021). Epistemology is the study of how we come to know reality or the truth and focuses on the types of human knowledge and understanding that researchers might be able to pick up in order to be able to extend, broaden, and deepen understanding in their research field (Nguyen, 2019; Creswell & Poth, 2018). Researchers have noted that epistemology involves the foundation, nature, and scope of what is construed as human knowledge (Thomas, 2021; Scharrer & Ramasubramanian, 2021; Eden, Nielsen, & Verbeke, 2020). In essence, epistemology strives to answer questions relating to what knowledge is acceptable, and the procedures involved in acquiring it and also helps researchers in asking the crucial question of "how we know what we know" which is crucial for researchers to comprehend the epistemological component of any paradigm. The two opposing epistemological disputes center on the question of whether true knowledge originates from systematic processes that apply to the natural sciences or if it results from people's subjective perceptions (Bell, Bryman, & Harley, 2019). In

essence, epistemology as a branch of research philosophy is significant in research inquiry since it influences how researchers will approach gaining knowledge in a research context and helps them to decide how much trust to place in their results.

On the other hand, ontology as a branch of research philosophy is contingent on the nature of social reality (van Thiel, 2022; Collis & Hussey, 2021; Matias, 2021). It aims to determine if social reality is constructed by humans to be subjective or whether it is external, objective, and independent of the social players (Bell et al., 2019; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). Ontology makes assumptions about the nature of social reality, what is there to know about the world or phenomenon, and its relationship with humans by debating on whether or not there is a social reality that exists independently of human conceptions and interpretations (Khatri, 2020; Lincoln et al., 2018). In this direction, Bell, Bryman, and Harley (2019) identified two ontological positions: objectivism and constructionism. According to Bell and colleagues, ontological objectivism conceptualizes social reality as external and independent of the researched, and, therefore, it can be accessed through natural scientific approaches as in physics, chemistry and biology that are objective in nature. In light of this, ontology is crucial to a researcher's ability to understand the elements that make up the known world and also assists the researcher in focusing his/her methodological and epistemological beliefs in relation to the study problem in order to aid in the resolution of that problem.

Moreover, methodology is research paradigm's key component which addresses the question of how-related are the elements of the inquiry process. According to Khatri (2020), the term 'methodology' is used broadly to describe the study design, methodologies, approaches, and procedures employed in a carefully and well-planned research inquiry. Also, methodology as a division of research paradigm is a collection

of practices and techniques for knowledge creation that are essential in giving a study direction (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Lincoln et al., 2018). The methodology segment of a paradigm or research philosophy articulates the lucidity and flow of the organized processes followed in the conduct of a research inquiry in order to acquire comprehensive knowledge about a research problem. It does so by detailing the assumptions made, limitations encountered and how they were mitigated or minimized (van Thiel, 2022; Collis & Hussey, 2021). Likewise, the methodology part of a research philosophy tries to figure how the entire research would be carried out by asking questions such as: how shall a researcher go about obtaining the desired data, knowledge and understandings that would enable the researcher to answer the research questions and thus make a contribution to knowledge? In a similar vein, Denzin and Lincoln (2018) noted that the methodological aspect of a researcher paradigm asks how can the researcher go about finding out whatever he or she believes can be known? Accordingly, the methodological component of a research paradigm guides the researcher to the process of knowing through which the research questions are answered. Hence, researchers must clearly comprehend the methodological presumptions that are to trigger during a research inquiry.

Axiology as a component of a research philosophy is often regarded as a theory of value and concerns itself with the ethical issues that need to be earmarked and addressed as well as paradigmatic decisions on the value of right and wrong decisions in a study (Khatri, 2020). According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), the concept of axiology entails establishing, assessing, and comprehending ideas of appropriate and inappropriate behavior in relation to the research. Besides, axiology takes into account the values that researchers ought to ascribe various components of their research, thus, the participants or respondents, the data, and the audience with whom they present their research

findings. Axiology also asks the question of what principles should a researcher follow to uphold the rights of each participant as well as the moral concerns and traits that ought to be consideration while undertaking a study? Also crucially an important question in axiology centers on which moral, cultural, and intercultural issues arise in a research inquiry and how a researcher ought to address them while also aiming to avoid or minimize risk or harm, be it physical, psychological, legal, social, economic etc (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Hence, it could be said that, in axiology, conceptions of right and bad behavior related to the research are defined, assessed, and understood. In conclusion, choosing a paradigm for a research project indicates that the research will be nested in a specific epistemology, ontology, and axiology because each paradigm is supported by distinct assumptions. Therefore, I deduce from the afore mentioned components of research philosophy and conclude that it is incumbent on researchers to indicate their own paradigmatic view and how it influences their research strategy in order to best address the research subject at hand.

3.2 Research Paradigm

Based on the preceding discussion and the purpose of the current study, the researcher chose the positivist paradigm/philosophy of research. The root of this philosophical thought can be traced to French Philosopher Auguste Comte whose research that dominated the second half of the nineteenth century occasioned the worldwide acceptance of positivism (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019; Nguyen, 2019). Contrary to the tenets of interpretivist philosophy which postulates that social reality lies in the subjective construction of human beings based on their individual interpretation (Gemma, 2018), researchers within the positivist philosophy hold the belief that social reality is objectively and empirically independent from the researched or social actors; as such, the purpose of research is to discover that social reality (Mehra, 2021; Lennox

& Hurdi-Hage, 2017; Makombe, 2017). This implies that researchers and the researched have no influence on the constructs under study.

Accordingly, for the positivist to study and understand social reality, positivist researchers try to give an accurate and vivid description of social phenomena through measurement (Mariani & Zenga, 2021; Portney, 2020). To this end, by using a series of logical analyses and excluding personal beliefs and cultural ideas from the investigation, researchers with positivist orientation contend that social existence has patterns that can be comprehended objectively (Carr et al., 2018; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018). The social reality that is the subject of the research is assumed to be pre-made and unconstructed from the perspective of positivist researchers. In essence, positivism asserts that there is an objective reality that is distinct from one's perception of it and that this objective reality may be reached through observation. In order to account for social entities in a way that is value-free and where researchers are objective observers of reality, research is, therefore, created. Therefore, positivist researchers use scientific methods found in the natural sciences like Biology, Chemistry, and Physics to determine and describe reality (Coolican, 2019; Liamputtong, 2019). To support this position, Bryman and Bell (2019) and Cohen et al. (2018) argued that positivism provides the idea that only that which is empirically observable can be considered absolute reality and that science provides a method for acquiring true knowledge. Social phenomena, it follows, are those that can be empirically observed and examined, and the scientific method is the most trustworthy way to account for knowledge and understand social reality or phenomena.

The positivist paradigm has been critiqued by opposing researchers as one of the undisputable lenses through which knowledge and social phenomena can be

understood. Scholars in this regard have noted that conducting research in a value-free environment is untenable and practically impossible because researches are not conducted in vacuum and that all concluding decisions in research revolves around the researched or the individuals who cannot go unnoticed (Liamputtong, 2019; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). These viewpoints censure the position that researchers within the positivist worldwide view which disapproves subjective knowledge as seen in the interpretivist paradigm. Also, it could be noted in the argument espoused by the preceding author that the sort of experiential information and data collected, analysed as well as the time of a study are derived from biased choices and decisions of the researcher. In addition, the researcher argues that the traditional scientific method is inadequate for examining social innovations since it is rigidly structured and impervious to change. It could, therefore, be construed that the claim by researchers within the positivist orientation that the scientific process of inquiry is worthless without researchers is unworkable and unfit for groundbreaking research that goes beyond empiricism.

Likewise, scholars have argued that positivism is unable to recognize and appreciate the subtleties and uniqueness of human beings, who are not inherently law-like inorganic objects that submit to structured procedures that natural scientists follow which is undeniably true in studies involving human beings (Gonzalez-Salzberg & Hodson, 2020; Bryman & Bell, 2019; Cooligan, 2019; Cohen et al., 2018). These scholars further professed that human behaviour is centered on emotions and cognition, and that social reality which is a subject of human emotions and creations cannot be understood without interacting with them to comprehend the world from their subjective interpretations and perceptions. Hence, researchers within the positivist paradigm posture of assuming a reductionist and mechanistic study of multifaceted

nature of social reality is untenable and would, therefore, be difficult to comprehend. Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2018) noted in particular that it would be challenging to apply the positivist ideology in educational settings that prioritize teaching and learning as well as human interactions. This, therefore, suggests that social phenomena should be examined when the researcher enters the lives of the people being studied and that knowledge is created by interpreting social phenomena through the perspectives of social actors.

Moreover, scholars (Bachman & Schutt, 2020; Peters & Fontaine, 2020) have observed that social reality that exists in the world is a conjecture that cannot be unequivocally substantiated and established which opposes the viewpoints upheld by researchers with positivists positioning. This suggests that since the social world is a postulation originating in people's brains, it is difficult to fully understand the world and all of its elements. Inferring these postulations that positivist researchers have a perception that the information gleaned from their studies reflect the whole truth because, the nature of reality discovered within the positivist framework is a microcosm of the social world and cannot be seen as a reflection of all knowledge. Bachman and Schutt (2020) further contended that researchers with positivist ideology examine and analyse their empirical data through the use of their thought processes and this makes it difficult to prove that their conception and understanding of reality is incontrovertible unlike the interpretivist position which accepts the meaning people give to the social world. Consequently, it could be presumed that different researchers studying the same phenomenon in the same context are probable to arrive at divergent conclusions through the application of the positivist school of thought.

In spite of these drawbacks associated with the use of positivist philosophy, other researchers consider its use to be very central in research, arguing that, researchers espouse that it projects much more significance that has transcended over decades. Fellows and Liu (2015) backed up the claim that positivism continues to make a significant contribution to the research community despite some researchers advocating that social science research should not be conducted through the prism of the natural sciences and that the standards for determining the robustness of methods and techniques should not be limited to positivist principles. Strunk and Locke (2019) argued that rigor in research is instead achieved by adhering to and conducting investigations according to positivist principles rather than interpretivist ideologies. Hence, my decision to follow the positivist tenets and principles in this research, therefore, would assist in achieving rigour in investigating Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance in an era of curriculum reforms in Ghana.

Additionally, the focus of this study aligns perfectly with the foundations of positivism whose focus is on theory testing that leads to a concise description of effects and relationships and laws which is quite different from the interpretivist philosophy which is less concerned with the testing of a priori theories, as well as experiential observation and verification which are often deemed invalid (Bryman & Bell, 2019; Rosen, 2019; Peters & Fontaine, 2020). Moreover, my decision to go positivism as a philosophical foundation is contained in the argument by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2017) that positivism is firmly based on a scientific empiricist methodology that produces accurate data and facts free from bias or human interpretation which is closely related to quantitative methods. Likewise, positivism offers researchers the opportunity to examine relationships and effect among variables within the quantitative approach so

as to forecast the impact of one or more variables on another variable through structured observation of the variables and measurement (Bachman & Schutt, 2020; Cassell, Cunliffe, & Grandy, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Leavy, 2017).

Ontologically, thus: on the question of what is the nature of reality, positivists hold that there is a single, tangible reality that is relatively constant across time and setting otherwise referred to as naïve realism and that reality is objective and independent of the researcher's interest in it. It is measurable and can be broken into variables (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2017; Shah & Al-Bargi, 213). Hence, the adoption of methods within the natural sciences is preferred because reality does exist but maintain that it can be known only imperfectly because of the researcher's human limitations which is the focus of this current research.

Epistemology: For the positivist, the nature of knowledge is inherent in the natural science paradigm and conceive knowledge to be those statements of belief or fact that can be tested empirically, can be confirmed and verified or disconfirmed, and are stable and can be generalized (Bryman & Bell, 2019; Rosen, 2019). To the positivist, knowledge constitutes hard data, and is objective and, therefore, independent of the values, interests and feelings of the researcher and that researchers only need the right data gathering instrument or tools to produce absolute truth for a given inquiry (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018; Searle, 2015). The research approaches align closely with quantitative approaches and designs which include experimental, quasi-experimental, correlational, causal comparative, and survey designs. The techniques of gathering data are mainly questionnaires, observations, tests and experiments. Accordingly, this study utilized questionnaire in the collection of data for analysis so as to answer the research questions that guided the study.

Axiology*:* For the positivist, all inquiries should be value-free and call on researchers to adopt and make use of the scientific methods of gathering data that ensures objectivity and neutrality during the inquiry process. Post-positivists theorists, however, modified the belief that the researcher and the subject of study were independent by recognizing that the theories, hypothesis and background knowledge held by the investigator can strongly influence what is observed, how it is observed and the outcome of what is observed (Thomas, 2022; Gemma, 2018).

Methodology*:* In the positivism/post-positivism paradigm, the purpose of research is to predict results, test a theory, or find the strength of relationships between variables or a cause-and-effect relationship. As such, quantitative researchers adopt deductive form of reasoning by resorting to the use of methodologies that include designs that are experimental, quasi-experimental, correlational, causal comparative, quantitative and randomized control trials research. Data gathering instruments include questionnaires, observations, experiments and tests (Coolican, 2019; Liamputtong, 2019) which is consisted with the purpose of this study which sought to ascertain the influence of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance while also assessing the mediating role of emotional intelligence on the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance among Senior High Social Studies teachers in the Central Region of Ghana.

Accordingly, in this study, the effect of Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence on job performance was investigated, hence the study falls within the positivist framework. Besides, I align with the positivist reasoning that quantifiable data could be objectively gathered and analyzed statistically through surveys without interactions with research participants (Flick, 2018). Therefore, the use of structured instruments and techniques in this study to collect data in numbers for

statistical analysis and interpretation in relation to self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance in the study setting.

Furthermore, in this study, the nature of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence among the Social Studies teachers as well as their job performance leans towards the positivist thoughts. Curini and Franzese (2020) lent credence to this assertion that positivism, apart from examining relationships and the testing of theories, facilitates description of social phenomena through a detached observation of the constructs. Following the principles of the positivist philosophy, I was a distant investigator which enabled me conduct an analytical description of the variables under study.

3.3 Research Approach

Consistent with the positivist philosophy, this study followed the quantitative approach. Even though there is controversy that the positivist school of thought is not exclusive to the quantitative approach (Carr et al., 2018), methodological purists uphold that positivism leans more towards the quantitative approach than the qualitative approach (Coolican, 2019; Carr et al., 2018). This approach, which burgeoned from the 1920s to the mid-1970s, involves the collection of numerical data for analysis and interpretation through measurements as opposed to the qualitative approach which supports the collection and interpretation of data in the form of words, pictures, and symbols (Bryman & Bell, 2019; Coolican, 2019).

Several rationales inform the choice of the quantitative approach in this study. Firstly, contrary to the qualitative approach which requires researchers to principally collect textual data that is difficult to analyse statistically (Bachman & Schutt, 2020), the quantitative approach affords researchers the opportunity to employ structured instruments to collect numerical data for analysis and interpretation (Bachman &

Schutt, 2020; Portney, 2020; Roni, Merga & Morris, 2020). These authors added that, due to the statistical data collected, researchers within the quantitative approach are able to determine the extent to which variations occur in social phenomenon in terms of quantity and magnitude. Therefore, Bachman and Schutt (2020) stressed that the goal of quantitative research is mainly descriptive as opposed to the exploratory within the qualitative domain. These assertions fit the purpose of the current study which sought to determine the degree to which Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence as well as the extent of teacher job performance through the collection of quantifiable data. Again, due to the numerical data collected, Hair, Page and Brunsveld (2020) observed that data in the quantitative approach are organized and presented in tables and pictorial forms to give graphic representation of the findings. Therefore, data generated in this study was illustrated in charts and tables to provide bird-eye representation of the variables.

Secondly, the quantitative approach is deductive, involves testing of hypothesis predict associations among variables, and requires researchers to provide a conceptual relationship among the variables under study prior to the commencement of the study (Portney, 2020; Roni et al., 2020; Bryman & Bell, 2015). This study, therefore, sought to test a teacher's self-efficacy theory to predict its effect on their job performance. In addition, quantitative research allows researchers to establish cause and effect relationship, which specifies that a change in one condition results in a corresponding change in another (Hair et al., 2020). To demonstrate the cause and effect relationship, the application of the hierarchical multiple regression is useful (Hair et al., 2020; Roni, Merga & Morris, 2020). In this study, therefore, self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence was treated as the cause of job performance which is the effect. Finally, the quantitative approach permits researchers to generalize their findings to a larger

population and context (Roni et al., 2020). Accordingly, in this study, the data was collected from a large sample of Social Studies teachers which made the attributes of the sample being representative of the population and also generalized to the wider population.

3.4 Research Design

After situating research within a particular philosophical tradition, researchers ought to indicate their research design and this design should be consistent and aligned to the paradigm adopted. A research design is a plan that describes the conditions and procedures for collecting and analyzing data (Silverman & Patterson, 2022; Mukherjee, Makarius & Stevens, 2021). Similarly, a research design refers to a detailed plan of how a research study is to be conducted by operationalizing variables to be measured, selecting samples of interest, process of data collection to answer research questions and testing hypothesis, and the analysis of data (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). A research design is a plan that outlines a general framework for conducting a study (Zimmerman, 2022; Leedy & Ormrod, 2021; Bell, Bryman & Harley, 2019). These authors further explained that a research design specifies the processes and techniques that a researcher applies in carrying out a study, the sources and nature of data, and instruments for collecting the data, and the analytical procedures for data analysis and interpretation. Therefore, research design serves as a blueprint that guides a researcher on the process of collecting, analyzing and interpreting data. Creswell and Creswell (2018) argued that the decision to adopt a particular research design lies in the worldview assumptions the researcher brings to the study; procedures/strategies of inquiry; and specific methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation.

Corroborating this view points, extant literature proposed that researchers ought to indicate their chosen research design and justify their decision to subscribe the chosen design for a plethora of reasons. In their view, Leedy and Ormrod (2021) and Mukherjee, Makarius and Stevens (2021) posited that the research design serves as a framework that safeguard and inform researchers at every stage of the study towards the realization of the purpose and objectives outlined in the study. These scholars also mentioned the importance of the design in determining the number and kind of data to be gathered in accordance with the objectives of the study, as well as in the analysis and interpretation of the data. Kline (2020) also contended that the research design offers an indication as to the approach needed for a study. In order to achieve methodological consistency, it is critical that a study design matches the ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological ideas and intent of the researcher which in effect gives the standards to access the validity of research findings (Bell et al., 2019; Hothersall, 2019).

This study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. This design involves collecting data at one point and over a short period to provide a 'snapshot' of the outcome and the characteristics associated with a population at a specific point in time (Cohen et al., 2018). Cross-sectional descriptive survey also focuses on providing a precise description of the characteristics of a situation. The focus is not to only look out for cause-and-effect relationships but rather, describe the existing variables in a given condition and sometimes, the relationship that exists among those variables (Coolican, 2019). This design seeks to describe and interpret what exists in its present condition, attitudes, practices and beliefs (Mehra, 2021). This design was deemed appropriate for the study because this thesis investigated the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and Social Studies teachers' job performance. Another rationale for the choice of the

cross-sectional descriptive survey design is based on the view that it allows researchers to collect data regarding the opinion of participants on a particular topic, and it is used to investigate the existence of relationships (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The rationale for the adoption of a survey design was that it relies on large-scale data from a representative sample of a population with the aim of describing the nature of existing conditions (Cohen et al., 2018).

Babbie (2020) contended that survey research in general offers advantages in terms of economy, the amount of data that can be collected, and the chance to sample a large population. The justification for the adoption of the cross-sectional survey design is also contained in the argument of Coolican (2019) that cross-sectional surveys can be conducted using any mode of data collection including telephone interviews in which landline telephones are called, telephone interviews in which cell phones are called, face-to-face interviews, mailed questionnaires. Therefore, the choice of a survey design is consistent with the quantitative approach as argued by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2017) that cross-sectional descriptive surveys use questionnaires to collect standardized and quantifiable data from a large population in an economical way and allow an easy comparison. In addition, the cross-sectional descriptive survey design allows the researcher to collect data and then analyze it using descriptive and inferential statistics. Accordingly, this design assisted in shedding light on self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence of the teachers, and its effect on their job performance.

3.5 Population of the Study

A research population relates to a whole group of individuals or elements which a researcher focuses on as the subject with whom a researcher gathers information from in a study (Daniels & Minot, 2020; Coolican, 2019). Other scholars (Hegde &

Salvatore, 2021; Burns & Veeck, 2020; Hair, Page & Brunsveld, 2020) considered population in research as the entire set of individuals or elements that possess analogous characteristics and attributes about which a researcher anticipates to make inferences based on the information collected in the form of data in a study.

A research population is defined as a group of individuals or people with the same characteristics and in whom the researcher is interested in collecting data from and drawing conclusions on which informs policy, practice and development of theory (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Population in research is the entire group of persons or objects that is of interest to the researcher that meets the criteria which the researcher is interested in studying (Harrison et al., 2017). Therefore, it could be deduced from the aforementioned definitions that population in research circles connotes the subjects, objects and the entire participants which the researcher uses in terms of data gathering so as to get findings to answer the earmarked research questions and hypotheses. Again, members in the population have shared traits, and hence identical on a chosen variable.

Scholars like Roni et al. (2020) have identified target, accessible and sample to be the different categories of populations identified in research. Whereas target population connotes the total number of subjects of interest to the researcher, and to which the researcher wishes to generalize the study findings (Hair et al. 2020; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018), accessible population refers to the projected elements or participants with whom the researcher hopes to select to participate in a study; and sample population refers to those elements and participants that are drawn from the target population and included in a study (Portney, 2020, Cohen et al., 2018). Additionally, target population refers to the entire group of individuals, objects, item, cases, articles or things with common attributes or characteristics from which samples are taken for investigation. Therefore,

the target population refers to the entire homogenous group of individuals or elements from which the sample is selected for a study. The target population is, therefore, a subset of the total population (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Deductively, it could be said that sample population is a sub-set of the target and the accessible population.

The accessible population, on the other hand, is reached after taking out all individuals of the target population who not participate or who cannot be reached at the study period (Bartlett, Kotrlik & Higgins, 2001). It is the final group of participants from which data is collected by surveying either all its members or a sample drawn from it. According to (Bartlett et al., 2001), the accessible population represents the sampling frame if the intention is to draw a sample from the target population. Contrary to these views, Portney, (2020) observes that the sample is actually derived from the accessible population, and this sample should be representative of the accessible population. This study's target and accessible population were the same in that the study sought to sample all trained Social Studies teachers in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana during the 2021 academic year which consisted of 412 teachers who have worked for least one year in their schools for at least a year. The one-year inclusion criterion was crucial to the study because the researcher beliefs that one year is adequate for fair assessment on their self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance outlined in the study.

3.6 Sample and Sampling Technique

A sample in a research context is a subset of elements drawn from a larger population for a study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). A sample is those who the researcher selects to actually represent the population and participate in the study. The choice of a sample suggests that it is difficult for researchers to study the entire population, and it is more

practical and economical to work with samples rather than with large target populations. Therefore, conclusions drawn from the sample reflects the population. In this study, the target and accessible population included all the 412 public Social Studies teachers who have been teaching the subject for at least one year. The researcher was convinced that the one-year inclusion criteria was enough for the teachers to report on their self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence and how they influenced their job performance.

Sampling technique refers to the procedure that a researcher follows to choose a sample for a study that exemplifies the characteristics of the larger population (Daniels & Minot, 2020). Likewise, Eisend and Kuss (2019) describe sampling as a process by which a researcher selects a portion of individuals from a defined population. Hart (2012) defined sampling as the process of selecting a sub-set of a population which can be representative of the population. Therefore, findings related to the sample can then be used to make inferences about the wider population. Sampling means a process of selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as representative of that population such that any statements made about the sample should also be true of the population (Celik, 2019). These definitions connote that sampling involves activities whereby a research employs techniques and procedures to choose individuals to participate in a study. In this study, sampling refers to the processes adopted to select the Social Studies teachers for the study.

Many researchers pointed out the relevance of sampling in studies. For instance, researchers have (Tracy, 2020; Burns & Veeck, 2020) have enumerated the importance of sampling which includes ensuring that there is no bias or subjectivity in the selection process; it helps the researcher to work with reasonable size of elements since it is

difficult to do so with the entire population; and it saves time spent on each research as well as reduces cost of research operations. Gravetter et al. (2021) delineate that, in sampling each unit in the population or stratum has an equal likelihood to be selected for the sample. These scholars further advance that the stratified random sampling technique is applicable when a researcher notices that the population comprises distinct groups, and aims to select members in each group to form the sample.

In this study, the census sampling technique was used in selecting the Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. Census sampling refers to the thorough and selection of all members in a confined population for a study (Hair et al., 2021; Scharrer & Ramasubramanian, 2021). This implies that in census sampling, the researcher includes and gathers information from the complete population as it is specified in a study. According to researchers, census sampling is rarely used in studies since it is impractical to include the complete population in a study due to its size, making it impossible for the researcher to reach every member of the community (Scharrer & Ramasubramanian, 2021; Daniels & Minot, 2020). The use of this sampling technique, the authors continued, is expensive both financially and in terms of time. Scholars advise using the census sapling despite the difficulties involved since it best represents the characteristics of the population as a whole, ensuring generalization of results to the population as opposed to when a sample is utilized (Scharrer & Ramasubramanian, 2021). Hair et al. (2021) also maintained that, the census sampling is the best technique in eliminating sampling error, hence it enhances the internal validity of findings. Therefore, in this study, data was collected from all the 412 Social Studies teachers in the public Senior High School in Central Region of Ghana.

3.7 Data Collection Instrument

Data collection instruments are tools used to collect information in research or the methods employed to collect research data (Connor & Reimers, 2019). These authors further explained that data collection instruments are the means of eliciting the feelings, beliefs, experiences, perceptions, or attitudes of some sample of individuals. This implies that data collection instruments are the specific means by which data are gathered from participants in a study. According to Gaur et al., (2020), a research instrument is a tool used to collect data or one designed to measure attributes such as knowledge, attitude and skills. Likewise, Polit and Beck (2017) also defined research instruments as devices for obtaining information relevant to research. The main instrument used in the collection of data in this study was a structured questionnaire. A questionnaire according to Babbie (2020) is a document containing questions and order items designed to elicit appropriate information for analysis. Kothari and Garg (2019) described a questionnaire as a document that consists of a number of questions printed or typed in a definite order on a form or set of forms. Thus, questionnaires contain systematically prepared documents of questions designed to elicit responses from respondents for the purpose of understanding the nature of the research problem under study.

Researchers support the use of the questionnaire as a quick, convenient and inexpensive method of collecting standardized data in a study (Zhu, Sari, & Lee, 2018). In addition to these advantages, the questionnaire was preferred in this study because it allowed respondents freedom to bring out their views independently, hence, there was no opportunity for interviewer bias (Rech, 2016). Park, Konge and Artino (2020) supported the use of the questionnaire as probably the single most common research tool that is relatively well understood, and has the advantages of simplicity, versatility

and low cost. Based on the views of Polit and Beck (2017) that close-ended questionnaires reduce the burden of respondents providing their own answers, and facilitate quick collection of quantifiable data for statistical analysis, the researcher used the closed-ended questionnaire in this study.

However, the choice of questionnaire as a data collection instrument is not without weaknesses. The shortcomings in using the questionnaire include incomplete responses, and the risk of dishonest responses (Polit & Beck, 2017). In the case of incomplete responses, the researcher explained the process required to respond to the questionnaire items by providing clear instructions to the participants. This helped to reduce the incidence of incomplete responses. The researcher also encouraged the participants to provide honest answers to the items contained in the questionnaire so as to reduce the issue of insincere responses. Scholars like Gaur et al., (2020) recounted the merits of questionnaire such as low cost in terms of both money and time involved, and wider coverage of participants and it is also an efficient way to collect statistically quantifiable information (Cohen et al., 2018).

The choice of questionnaire was influenced by Denzin and Lincoln's (2018) argument that it is relatively low cost, structured information leading to straightforward analysis, quick results as well as its stable, consistent, and uniform method of collecting data. However, structured questionnaire has been criticized that it is limited to literate population and does not provide an opportunity to collect additional information (Rahman, 2017). This limitation, however, did not affect the study because participants were literate which made the choice of the questionnaire in this study more appropriate. The structured type of questionnaire was used. A structured questionnaire contains a fixed set of items, worded in a uniform way, and presented in the same order for every

respondent (Leedy & Ormrod, 2021; Kline, 2020). This type of questionnaire was chosen because it has prospects of enhancing uniformity in answers provided, and aids statistical analysis (Bell et al., 2019). Daniels and Minot (2020) also support the use of the structured questionnaire because it allows the collection of data on both continuous and categorical variables. In this study, therefore, the bio-data of the participants was collected (categorical data) as well as their opinions of their self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance. Likert-scale was used to collect data on self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance. This type of scale is suitable for collecting data on people's opinions, and attitudes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2021; Kline, 2020).

The questionnaire contained information on the three variables that were considered in this thesis (self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance) which were put together into one questionnaire with four sections (A, B, C & D) as shown in Appendix A. The Section A of the questionnaire collected bio-data of the participants. These included gender, age, academic qualification, and work experience. Participants were required to tick an option to each variable to reflect their characteristics. Section B was devoted to gathering data on Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs. Section C of the questionnaire collected information on Social Studies teachers' emotional intelligence, while Section D focused on Social Studies teachers job performance. All the items in Section B were measured on a 5-point Likert Scale such that 5 = Always, 4 = Usually, 3=Sometimes, 2 = Seldom, 1= Never. Section C which had items on the emotional intelligence also was measured on a 5-point Likert Scale such that 5 = Very often true of me, 4 = Often true of me, 3 = Sometimes true of me, 2 = Seldom true of me, 1 = Not true of me. For job performance of teachers as captured in Section D of the questionnaire was measured on a 5-point Likert scale such that 5 represents strongly

agree, 4 represents agree, 3 represents neutral, 2 represents disagree, and 1 represents strongly disagree. Respondents were required to circle an option to represent their opinions on items in the four sections of the questionnaire.

The self-efficacy beliefs of the Social Studies teachers were reflected in students' engagement efficacy, instructional strategies, and classroom management were examined as postulated by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy, (2001). Besides, Social Studies teachers emotional intelligence focused on Bar-on (2007) model which consisted of five (5) composite scales: interpersonal scale (with sub-scales: emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-regard and self-actualization), intrapersonal scale (with sub-scales: empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship), adaptability scale (with sub-scales: problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility), stress management scale (with sub-scales: stress tolerance and impulse control) and general mood (with sub-scales: happiness and optimism).

In this study, the Social Studies teachers' job performance was assessed based on the model developed by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (2013) of New Delhi as well as the indicators of job performance postulated by Underwood (2004). This model discusses teachers' job performance in relation to designing learning experiences for students, knowledge and understanding of subject matter, strategies for facilitating learning, professional development, school development, and teacher attendance.

3.7.1 Pre-testing of the questionnaire

Pre-testing of an instrument involves a mini and a probationary measurement of an instrument prior to the main study with the aim of identifying problems with the instrument, and addressing them (Beatty et al., 2020; Dawson, 2020). Therefore, the

purpose of the pretest is to generate information that will help in reshaping and making corrections to the instrument for the actual study. According to Dawson (2020), the aim of pretesting an instrument in studies with quantitative orientation is to discover the validity and reliability of the instrument. Similarly, Babbie (2020) contended that pre-testing refers to testing the questionnaire on a small sample of respondents to identify and eliminate potential problems before the main study is conducted.

Conducting a pre-test to check the questionnaire for potential misunderstandings or problems, and consequently correct possible weaknesses and inadequacies is recommended before the actual data collection commences (De Moraes, 2020). To achieve this, the participants in the pretest should have similar characteristics to those who will actually participate in the main study (Hair et al., 2020). The instrument was pretested among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in Shama and Atebubu. These teachers were deemed okay for the pre-testing because they have similar characteristics with their counterparts in the three districts which were used for the study. The choice of the number of participants to include in the pre-testing of the instrument should be consistent with the rule of thumb that 5% to 10% of the sample size is adequate in pre-testing of instruments (Harrison et al., 2021). Besides, Abu-Bader (2021) recommended a minimum of 30 participants to be adequate when pre-testing an instrument. In line with these recommendations, 50 respondents participated in the pre-testing of the questionnaire.

3.8 Validity

Validity is the degree to which a measurement instrument truly measures the construct(s) in a study (Roni, Merga & Morris, 2020). Polit and Beck (2020) defined the validity of a questionnaire as the degree to which the instrument measures what it

aims to measure, and that a questionnaire should adequately address all aspects of the issues being studied. Thus, validity assesses how well an instrument measures the phenomenon it is designed to measure. Face validity, content validity, and construct validity were all determined in this study. Face validity refers to the degree to which an instrument seems to be measuring the construct it is designed to measure (Portney, 2020). Face validity is also defined by Ahmed, Opoku, Olanipekun, and Sutrisna (2022) as the degree to which items or variables are related to their respective construct based on their perceived face value by reviewers (s).

In accordance with the recommendation that face validity be determined by non-expert judgment (Taherdoost, 2016), I distributed the questionnaires to the Social Studies teachers who were sampled from some public Senior High schools in Shama and Atebubu and, therefore, not part of the actual study. These teachers were asked to comment on whether the instruments appeared to be measuring self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance from the perspectives of Social Studies educators. Besides, the questionnaire was again given to colleague students on the PhD programme and some retired Social Studies teachers within the study area to express their opinion on whether or not the instrument appears to be measuring self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance. Besides, they would also check grammatical and spelling errors as well as ambiguities thereby crucial in fine-tuning the instrument.

To accomplish this, one questionnaire responded to by one of the Social Studies teachers was to rate his agreement to each item on the questionnaires by indicating "Suitable" for agreement or "Not Suitable" for disagreement as indicated in (Appendix C). Then, with the aid of SPSS, the Kappa coefficient was computed to determine the

degree of agreement. Kappa coefficients are within one, with +1 indicating high agreement, -1 indicating disagreement, and 0 indicating no agreement (Morling, 2021). Besides, kappa coefficient criteria proposed by Landis and Koch's (1977) was used. In using Kappa coefficient criteria, kappa coefficients above 0.80 indicate excellent agreement, coefficients between 0.60 and 0.80 indicate substantial agreement, coefficients between 0.40 and 0.60 indicate moderate agreement, and coefficients below 0.40 indicate poor agreement. Nevertheless, the authors believe that a kappa coefficient of at least 0.60 indicates acceptable face validity and the results in Table 3.1 show a kappa coefficient of 0.821, indicating a significant agreement. It could be concluded in line with this finding that face validity of the instrument was fulfilled.

Table 3.1: Cohen's Kappa Coefficient Results

			Rater2		Total	Measure of Agreement Kappa	
			Not Suitable	Suitable			
Rater1	Not Suitable	Count	1	2	3	Value	0.821
		% within Rater1	68.5%	31.5%	100.0%	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	0.302
		% within Rater2	100.0%	1.7%	4.8%	Approx. T[b]	7.654
		% of Total	3.1%	1.6%	4.8%	Approx. Sig.	0.000
	Suitable	Count	0	90	90		
		% within Rater1	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%		
		% within Rater2	0.0%	98.5%	97.7%		
		% of Total	0.0%	97.7%	97.7%		
Total		Count	2	88	90		
		% within Rater1	3.1%	96.9%	100.0%		
		% within Rater2	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%		
		% of Total	3.1%	96.9%	100.0%		

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

Content validity checks that there are enough relevant questions covering all aspects being studied, and that irrelevant questions are eliminated through expert judgement (Jo, 2018). Content validity refers to the extent to which the measuring instrument shows that it fairly and comprehensively covers the variables that it purports to measure (Cohen et al., 2018). According to Babbie (2020), content validity of an instrument is ensured through expert judgment. This, therefore, suggests that content validity evaluates whether an instrument measures all dimensions of a construct. It could be deduced from the preceding scholars that, content validity is determined by experts in the field of study, who rate the instrument's items as passing the content validity test. Therefore, content validity of the instrument was granted by supervisors and other lecturers who are experts and therefore have knowledge on the issues of the study. These scholars evaluated the extent to which the instruments could produce data consistent with the variables under investigation.

Additionally, scholars such as Nunkoo, Teeroovengadum, and Ringle (2021) and Portney, (2020) have proposed Item Content Validity Index (I-CVI), and Scale Content Validity Index (S-CVI) to be the two crucial ways of approaching content validity in quantitative studies. In following these approaches, my two supervisors were issued item relevance assessment form (Appendix B) where each supervisor rated each item on a 4-point rating scale on the questionnaire based on how they (supervisors) deemed it as relevant in contributing to the assessment of content validity. The ratings of my two supervisors were recorded and coded such that 1 and 2 were coded as 0, while 3 and 4 were coded as 1 which was entered into the supervisor's column of agreement. Afterwards, computations on the average rating of the supervisors in agreement for each item and the mean entered in the I-CVI column. Following that, I added the means for each item in the I-CVI column and divided the total by the number of items to get

the I-CVI score. For S-CVI, I determined whether the item was relevant (1) or not relevant based on the unanimous agreement of the two supervisors (0). Then I added up each item's scores and divided the total by the number of items. Results showed that I-CVI>0.81 and S-CVI>0.83 scores were relevant and, therefore, acceptable based on the suggestion by Nunkoo et al. (2021), hence, content validity of the instrument was achieved.

Construct validity assesses how well an instrument measures a construct's theoretical dimensions (Roni, Merga & Morris, 2020). Thus, construct validity evaluates an instrument's ability to reflect the variables specified in a theory. In this study, the construct validity of the questionnaire was determined using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). In conducting exploratory factor analysis, the procedures outlined by Mariani and Zenga (2021) and Harrison et al. (2021) were followed. Among these are determining the data's suitability for factor analysis, factor extraction, and factor rotation. To determine the suitability of the data for factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, which tests the amount of variance within the data that can be explained by factors, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were used. KMO should be 0.6, and Bartlett's statistic should be significant (p0.05). Then, factor extraction determines how many factors should be retained for rotation. This was accomplished through the use of the Kaiser's measure and the scree test. Using the Eigenvalue rule of 1 or greater, Kaiser's measure identifies the variance contributed by a factor. As a result, all factors with eigenvalues of 1 or greater were kept. The scree test calculates the variance of each factor (component). The Varimax rotation technique was used for factor rotation. This method assumes that the variables are unrelated. The Varimax rotation technique is appropriate due to the exploratory nature of factor

analysis. All variables with cross loading on two or more variables were removed from the questionnaire.

According to researchers (Hair et al., 2021; Mooi et al., 2018), the EFA is suitable for developing questionnaire to measure new scales or construct, hence, its use in the development and assessing constructs of various construct in this study was relevant. Additionally, my choice of EFA to assess teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance of the Social Studies teachers was because of the changes I made which was consistent with my intention to investigate how well the factor structure in the original questionnaire applied in the Ghanaian context. The results (Table 3.2) indicated that the KMO value was 0.788, and the Bartlett's test of sphericity value were statistically significant ($p<0.05$), which established that the data were suitable and therefore adequate for EFA.

Table 3.2: Test of Suitability of Data for Factor Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.788
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	15205.560
	Df	4005
	Sig.	0.000

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

After determining the smallest number of factors to be retained for rotation through the use of factor extraction, I employed the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) process or strategy to extract the factors, and this was done with the hope of reducing a collection of variables by cataloguing those that are correlated with one another (Harrison et al., 2021). Based on the recommendations of scholars such as Pallant, I used the Kaiser's criteria, the scree plot, and Monte Carlo PCA for Parallel Analysis to determine the number of factors to extract. Because of challenges such as the retention

of too many factors for rotation associated with each technique, this researcher suggests that two or more factor extraction techniques be used in the same study. According to the preceding authors, Kaiser's measure identifies the variance contributed by a factor using an eigenvalue rule of 1 or greater. As a result, as shown in Table 3.3, all factors with eigenvalues of 1 or greater were retained for rotation.

Table 3.3: Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

s/n	Factor Names	Factor Loadings
1.		0.644
2.		0.688
3.		0.674
4.		0.718
5.	Student Engagement	0.641
6.		0.699
7.		0.751
8.		0.632
9.	Instructional Strategy	0.674
10.		0.674
11.		0.715
12.		0.647
13.		0.780
14.		0.754
15.		0.717
16.		0.716
17.	Classroom Management	0.695
18.		0.541
19.		0.783
20.		0.688
21.		0.679
22.		0.617
23.		0.651
24.		0.673
25.		0.638
26.		0.723
27.		0.748
28.		0.659
29.		0.713
30.	Intrapersonal	0.776
31.	Relationship	0.676
32.		0.718
33.		0.723
34.		0.644
35.		0.596
36.		0.640
37.		0.719
38.		0.672
39.		0.672
40.		0.714
41.	Interpersonal	0.708
42.	Relationship	0.685
43.		0.674
44.		0.677
45.		0.736
46.		0.712
47.		0.757
48.		0.710
49.	Stress Management	0.741
50.		0.716
51.		0.578
52.		0.644
53.		0.682
54.		0.756
55.	General Mood	0.624
56.		0.697
57.		0.747
58.		0.749
59.		0.683
60.		0.691
61.	Adaptability	0.724
62.		0.722
63.		0.702
64.		0.752
65.		0.610
66.		0.750
67.		0.652
68.		0.707
69.		0.702
70.	Designing Learning	0.671
71.	Experiences	0.747
72.		0.703
73.		0.669
74.	Knowledge and	0.700
75.	Understanding of Subject	0.610
76.	Matter	0.665
77.		0.686
78.	Strategies for Facilitating	0.650
79.	Learning	0.710
80.		0.740
81.		0.637
82.	Professional	0.550
83.	Development	0.703
84.		0.686
85.		0.671
86.	School Development	0.703
87.		0.774
88.		0.728
89.	Teacher Attendance	0.674
90.		0.744
% of Variance		**2.987**
Cumulative %		**76.366**

The findings in Table 3.3 show that the exploratory factor analysis for all the 14 factors collectively contributed a total of 76.366 variance. Besides, evidence from scree plot

(Appendix G) confirms the construct validation of the instrument. This finding implied that all the items loaded well on their various component, and therefore, gave evidence to the fact that construct validation of the instrument met the criteria set by scholars and, therefore, made the instrument valid.

3.9 Reliability

The reliability of the measuring instrument is an important consideration for the study's healthy results; hence, researchers must ensure that the measuring instrument used is reliable. Reliability refers to the extent to which an instrument produces consistent results over time (Lu et al., 2021; Kovanovic et al., 2017). Reliability means the chance of obtaining the same or similar results when the researcher measures the same variable more than once or when more than one person measures the same variable (Surucu & Maslakci, 2020). In this study, the reliability of the questionnaire was determined through internal consistency. Internal consistency is a measure of the degree to which items within a scale are intended to measure aspects of the same construct are strongly correlated with each other (Harrison et al., 2021). The questionnaire was administered to the participants in the pretest once, and Cronbach alpha coefficient was computed to determine the reliability of each subscale as well as the entire scale. Cronbach alpha coefficient ranges from 0 to 1, and coefficients ≥0.7 is indicative of acceptable reliability (Collier, 2020; Verma and Abdel-Salam, 2019). The results of the reliability test are presented in Tables 3.4.

Table 3.4: Cronbach Alpha Reliability Statistics

Construct	Sub-Scales	Items	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Teacher Self-efficacy Beliefs	Students Engagement	SE1	0.85
		SE2	0.86
		SE3	0.86
		SE4	0.86
		SE5	0.86
		SE6	0.85
		SE7	0.85
		SE8	0.85
	Instructional Strategy	IS1	0.85
		IS2	0.85
		IS3	0.85
		IS4	0.85
		IS5	0.85
		IS6	0.86
		IS7	0.85
		IS8	0.85
	Classroom Management	CM1	0.85
		CM2	0.85
		CM3	0.85
		CM4	0.85
		CM5	0.85
		CM6	0.85
		CM7	0.85
		CM8	0.85
Construct Cronbach Alpha	**Overall, Teacher Self-efficacy Beliefs**		**0.85**
Intrapersonal Relationship	Self-Regard	EI1	0.873
		EI2	0.871
		EI3	0.871
		EI4	0.874
	Emotional Awareness	EI5	0.872
		EI6	0.871
	Self-Actualization	EI7	0.872
		EI8	0.871
		EI9	0.870
	Independence	EI10	0.870
		EI11	0.871
		EI12	0.870
	Assertiveness	EI13	0.872
		EI14	0.873
		EI15	0.871
	Empathy	EI16	0.869
		EI17	0.870
Interpersonal Relationship		EI18	0.869
	Social Responsibility	EI19	0.871
		EI20	0.873
		EI21	0.872
	Interpersonal Relationship	EI22	0.873

		EI23	0.872
		EI24	0.870
Stress Management	Stress Tolerance	EI25	0.869
		EI26	0.870
		EI27	0.871
	Impulse Control	EI28	0.872
		EI29	0.871
		EI30	0.871
	Optimism	EI31	0.872
		EI32	0.875
General Mood		EI33	0.872
	Happiness	EI34	0.873
		EI35	0.874
		EI36	0.872
		EI37	0.873
Adaptability	Reality Testing	EI38	0.870
		EI39	0.872
		EI40	0.873
	Flexibility	EI41	0.872
		EI42	0.872
		EI43	0.872
	Problem-Solving	EI44	0.871
		EI45	0.871
		EI46	0.872
Construct Cronbach Alpha	**Teacher Emotional Intelligence**		**0.874**
		TPJ1	0.835
	Designing Learning Experiences	TPJ2	0.835
		TPJ3	0.835
		TPJ4	0.836
		TPJ5	0.841
	Knowledge and Understanding of Subject Matter	TPJ6	0.837
		TPJ7	0.838
		TPJ8	0.842
		TPJ9	0.840
Teacher Job Performance	Strategies for Facilitating Learning	TPJ10	0.842
		TPJ11	0.844
		TPJ12	0.840
		TPJ13	0.837
	Professional Development	TPJ14	0.842
		TPJ15	0.837
		TPJ16	0.831
		TPJ17	0.845
	School Development	TPJ18	0.837
		TPJ19	0.842
	Teacher Attendance	TPJ20	0.843
		TPJ21	0.843
Construct Cronbach Alpha	**Overall, Teacher Job Performance**		**0.846**

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

Researchers like Harrison et al. (2021) and Verma and Abdel-Salam (2019) have espoused that coefficients of Cronbach alpha otherwise branded as "coefficient alpha" ranges from 0 to 1, and coefficients of 0.70 or greater suggest suitability or reliability of an instrument (Collier, 2020). Despite the objections raised against the usage of Cronbach alpha, including the embellishment of the Cronbach alpha coefficient when a variable contains numerous items and the false belief that each item of a variable has an equal impact (Collier, 2020), I was convinced that it is a suitable and often used indication of internal consistency, thus I utilized it to assess the questionnaire's reliability. The results in Table 3.4 show that, the Cronbach alpha coefficients for all the constructs as well as their overall aggregates were all above 0.70 but less than 1, hence, it could be concluded that the instrument was reliable.

3.10 Data Collection Procedures

Data collection refers to the precise systematic gathering of information relevant to specific research objectives or questions (Braun, Clarke, & Gray, 2017; Burns & Veeck, 2020). Data collection is the gathering of information needed to address a research problem (Mertler, 2017). Therefore, data collection entails the use of instruments to collect data so as to provide answers to research questions. Researchers state that a researcher is required to approach a gatekeeper; an individual who enables the researcher to obtain access to the setting and research participants (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Therefore, before the fieldwork, I obtained an introductory letter from the Department of Social Studies Education, University of Education, Winneba (Appendix L) introducing me to the headquarters of the Ghana Education Service. Afterwards, the Office of the Director General, Ghana Education Service issued me with an introductory letter to the Central Regional Director of Education, Cape Coast (Appendix J). Thereafter, the Office of the Regional Director, Ghana Education

Service, Cape Coast again issued me with an introductory letter (Appendix K) to the District Directors of Education and the various headteachers of the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region. In all instances, the aim of the research was explained and after gaining access to the schools, I personally went to the schools and administered the instrument to the Social Studies teachers. Participants were given the option of completing the questionnaires on the day of the visit, while those who were unable to do so were given a week to do so while those who asked for some time to complete filling of the questionnaire were given the questionnaires, however, I reminded them through follow-up phone calls and text messages so as to return the questionnaire.

3.11 Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis procedures delineate the application of numerous measures and techniques employed to organize, review, and interpret data so that it becomes meaningful to audience in comprehending research findings (Abu-Bader, 2021). Inferring from this definition, it could be averred that data analysis involves combining and synthesizing information from many sources and respondents in order to make sense of it for other people. This suggests that unprocessed data are worthless, and that the goal of data analysis is to transform unprocessed data into meaningful forms. Data analysis on the other hand refers to the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of information collected (Polit & Beck, 2017). Similarly, Park, Konge and Artino (2020) defined data analysis as a means of making sense of data before presenting them in an understandable manner. Data analysis is a process where a researcher continually reflects on collected data, moving deeper for understanding and representing the data, and deriving an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). It is construed from these definitions that data analysis

involves organizing information gathered in a study with the aim of deriving meaning from the data. This implies, because raw data is meaningless, this calls the data to be synthesized and interpreted for meaning. In essence, data analysis aims to derive meaning from the information gathered for the understanding of the intended audience.

The returned questionnaires were cleaned to ensure that they were free from errors: errors like multiple responses on a single questionnaire and non-responses were all taken care of so as to make sure the data was error free. Researchers (Abu-Bader, 2021; Hair et al., 2021) have explained data cleaning to entail the procedures where the raw data are scrutinized to notice and correct mistakes and errors that have the propensity of distorting the results of a study. Afterwards, I proceeded to coding of the data. This process started by encrypting and assigning numbers in the form of values to the variables outlined in the study and captured on the instrument (Babbie, 2021; Collis & Hussey, 2021; Roni et al., 2020). According to Boeije (2010), coding is the process of categorizing, assigning, or labelling segments of data with a word, a short phrase or a short name. This means that coding helps to group data for the purpose of identification. In this study, the data were coded using numerals. With the aid of version 28 of IBM Statistical Product for Service Solutions (SPSS), the data entry into this statistical software was done. The SPSS statistical software was chosen ahead of other statistical software programmes due to its capability of storing and analysing vast quantities of numerical data. The choice of the SPSS was influenced by the advantages enumerated by statisticians in using the SPSS for analysis such as the ability of processing large amount of data, providing more convenient platform for performing statistical tests, and its ability to link numerically coded data to its original meaning (Park, Konge and Artino, 2020). Besides, it is also able to perform several statistical analyses accurately,

and is compatible with the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) analytical software which was used in answering one of the research questions in the study.

Having finished entry of the data, I investigated the data coded into SPSS to detect missing data and outliers. Missing data is indicated by a dot or full stop (.) in the data file when there is no response for a specific item or variable as a result of blank responses from participants or entry errors (Ewing & Park, 2020; Roni et al., 2020). In line with the views by these scholars, I double-checked and filled up any gaps in the dataset that would have tainted the results. Afterall, I carried a frequency assessment on the cleaned data and results in Table 3.6 (Appendix K) indicated that the data had no missing data and, therefore, were conducive for statistical analysis to be carried out in answering of the research questions and hypotheses set for the study.

In analysing the data, I made use of the two celebrated and broad taxonomies of quantitative analytical procedures, thus, descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics are univariate statistics used to simplify and summarize data presented in the form of numbers, graphs, or charts (Hair et al., 2021; Harrison et al., 2021). The merits of employing descriptive statistics for data analysis is contained in its ability to detect errors in data, make the results useful by describing the variables for easy understanding of the results as well as serving as the bedrock for inferential statistics (Harrison et al., 2021; Ewing & Park, 2020). Specifically, the descriptive statistics employed for data analysis in this study included frequencies, percentages, mean, and standard deviation. The counting and tabulation of individuals or elements in their respective categories is referred to as frequency, and it is applicable in nominal and ordinal data sets (Gravetter et al., 2021; Park, Konge & Artino, 2020). Accordingly,

frequency counts were used to analyse the bio-data of participants, such as their gender, age, academic qualification, and work experience.

Likewise, the frequencies, percentages also describe in quantitative terms, the proportion of the participants out of one hundred for each categorical variable in the bio-data (Patten & Newhart, 2018). In carrying out this process, computation of the mean, which is the average of data measured on either ratio or interval scale (Leedy & Ormrod, 2021) of the variables in the self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance was carried out. Furthermore, standard deviation was used to quantify the data's variability by determining how far the scores were from the mean in the distribution, with values between ±3 indicating that the data were normally distributed (Gravetter et al., 2021; Roni et al., 2020). To answer research questions 1, 2, and 3, mean and standard deviation analysis was carried out. The mean scores were interpreted using Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) psychometric theory of analyzing and interpreting mean scores in a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire. These scholars interpret mean scores such that mean scores of 1.00 to 2.00, 2.01 to 3.00 is low, 3.01 to 4.00 is high, and 4.01 to 5.00 is very high.

In contrast to descriptive statistics, which seek to summarize and organize data, inferential statistics are used to draw conclusions, make decisions, or pass judgment on a population based on data collected from a sample (Leedy & Ormrod, 2021; Thakkar, 2020). In essence, inferential statistics are used to extrapolate the findings of a study based on sample data to the entire population, which descriptive statistics cannot do. In research question 4, an attempt was made to test the relationship between teacher self-efficacy beliefs which was the independent variable and emotional intelligence which was the dependent variable in this research question. order to determine the relationship

between the study variables as shown in research question four, a correlation analysis was employed because it is suitable for determining linear correlation between two variables (Pallant, 2020). Correlation is the measurement of an association, relationship, or correlation between two variables to determine whether they are positively or negatively related, or if they are not related at all (Obilor & Amadi, 2018). These scholars further maintained that if changes in one variable affect or influence changes in the other variable, they are said to be related and that correlation coefficients are used to express the degree of association or relationship between variables when measuring association or relationship. In essence, correlation is the measure of relationship in quantitative terms between two variables.

Researchers like Obilor and Amadi (2018) have identified several types of correlation statistics to include the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation (Pearson's r), Spearman's Rank Order Correlation [Spearman's (rho)], Kendall's Tau (T), Point Biserial Correlation (!b), Biserial Correlation, (phi), and Tetrachoric Correlation. The use of Spearman's rho is suitable once both the independent and dependent variables are represented on an ordinal scale of measurement. This condition is similar to Kendall's Tau because it shares characteristics that is very comparable and equivalent to Spearman's rho since it is appropriate when the variables are in the form of grades and ranks. The key difference between Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho correlation is that the former tends to be used when tied ranks.

Furthermore, Point Biserial Correlation is conducive to use if one variable is measured on the interval or ratio scale and the other variable is a dichotomous variable which takes values of 0's and 1's. Examples include scores for items on a multiple-choice test. The Biserial Correlation bears striking resemblance to the Point Biserial correlation,

but for dichotomous variables are artificially created, thus, cut-off values of a previously continuous variable are employed in this instance. The use of Phi correlations is appropriate when both variables are dichotomous. A Phi correlation, and the Point Biserial Correlation alike, are directly consequent from the Pearson's Product Moment Correlation. Tetrachoric Correlations are employed when each variable is created through dichotomising an underlying normal distribution (Schobar, Boer, & Schwarte, 2018).

This study, however, employed the Pearson Product Moment Correlation in understanding the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence as captured in research question 4. The rationale for deciding to use Pearson Product Moment Correlation (r) as the choice in understanding the relation that exists between these variables is contained in the argument that it is conducive when both the independent and dependent variables are collected on either interval or ratio scale of measure and, therefore, satisfy parametric assumptions. In this study the instrument used in collecting data for the analysis of research questions were all done at interval and ratio level except for the Social Studies teachers' demographic variables such as gender, age, academic qualification and years of teaching experience. Correlation coefficients, in other words, quantify the strength (direction and magnitude) of an association or relationship between two variables. Correlation coefficients can be large or small (in magnitude), positive or negative (direction). Correlation coefficients range from -1 to +1, with -1 denoting perfect negative and +1 denoting perfect positive correlation coefficients, respectively, and 0 denoting no correlation thus, zero relationship (Cohen, Manion & Morrison., 2018; Obilor & Amadi, 2018).

Furthermore, correlation coefficients less than 0.40 (whether negative or positive 0.40) are considered low, those between 0.40 and 0.60 are considered moderate, and those greater than 0.60 are considered high (Cohen, Manion & Morrison., 2018). Additionally, Babbie (2020), postulate that the values of correlation coefficient range from +1.00 for a positive relationship through 0.00 to -1.00 for a negative relationship, and the greater the value, the stronger the relationship. The interpretation of the strength of the correlation coefficients was based on the recommendation of Kothari and Garge (2019) which stated that coefficients of 0.5 but less than 1 implies a strong relationship, coefficients greater than 0.3 but less than 0.5 indicate a moderate relationship, and coefficients less than 0.3 show a weak relationship. These considerations were used as basis in first determining the direction and also the magnitude, degree, extent and strength of relationship.

To answer the effect of emotional intelligence on job performance as shown in research question five, multiple regression was used. Indicators for multiple regression analysis was carried out using forced entry method. Regression is a statistical analytical method used for estimating the relationships and effect of an independent variable, otherwise known as predictor variable on the dependent variable or an outcome variable (Matovu & Zubairi, 2014). Experts are of the view that, the use of multiple regression allows for the investigation of the relationship between variables while more importantly allowing a researcher to model the relationship between variables, so as to predict what one variable will do based on the scores of some other variables (Pallant, 2020; Cohen, et al., 2018). With multiple regression, all the predictor variables were entered into the equation and the relative contribution of each predictor to the outcome variable was assessed (Pallant, 2020). In this study, teachers' emotional intelligence served as

predictor variables, and teacher job performance was the dependent variable in the regression equation.

In order to investigate the mediation role of the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on teacher job performance as shown in research question 6, the structural equation modelling (SEM) technique was used where the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was employed through SPSS AMOS. SEM is an inferential statistical tool that makes it possible for researchers to simultaneously estimate complex correlations between several dependent and independent variables as well as model those relationships (Hair et al., 2022). In their view, Morrison, Morrison and McCutcheon (2017) described SEM as a multivariate statistical analytical tool that shares analogous characteristics with widespread statistical analytical tools like analysis of variance (ANOVA), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and multiple regression because of its ability to test linear relationships but has an additional ability to reduce errors and test complex patterns of relationships at the construct level while being able to ascertain both the direct and indirect relationships that exist between variables. In this direction, scholars have noted two different types of variables, thus, manifest and latent, which are included, described, and tested in SEM (Civelek, 2018; Byrne, 2016). Whereas manifest variables relate to those variables that can be immediately observed or measured, latent variables refer to those that, due to their abstract nature, cannot be directly viewed or measured (Hayes, 2018).

Specifically in this study, the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) procedure was followed in using (SEM) technique to assess the mediation role of emotional intelligence in the effect of self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of teachers. In using the MLE procedure in SEM, I followed the suggestion by scholars such as

(Hair et al., 2022; Chin et al., 2020) where the model fit is repeatedly evaluated, and the most reliable model fit estimations are chosen for significance testing. Again, I followed the covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) technique in carrying out the mediation analysis using SEM. The CB-SEM technique was deemed appropriate due to its ability to accommodate and deal with large sample size, produce normal distribution as well as goodness of fit indexes (Hair et al., 2022; Liengard et al., 2021; Chin et al., 2020). The mediations analysis was aided by the version 28.0 AMOS analytical software, which included the use of visual functions to illustrate the model and the path links between constructs.

Moreover, the mediation analysis using SEM was carried out in two parts, consisting of the measurement model, followed by the structural model. The structural model shows the connection between two or more latent variables, whereas the measurement model explains the relationship between the observable variables (indicators) and their related latent (unobserved) variables (Hair et al., 2022; Chin et al., 2020). Accordingly, in using the SPSS AMOS programme, the measurement model was drafted where the items contained in the study were linked so as to depict a figurative picture of how unobserved latent variables are connected as hypothesized in the study through the conceptual framework. A confirmation factor analysis test was performed so as to ascertain the discriminant validity (DV), composite reliability (CR), convergent validity (CV) which are crucial psychometric properties required of every measurement model in SEM.

According to Civelek (2018), the level to which a structure in a measurement model varies from other structures which give a sign of little link between the questions that make up one construct and the other constructs relate to discriminant validity. Civelek

(2018) further proposed that the calculation of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) whose value of greater than 0.50 or 0.50 depict the assessment of DV. CR on the other hand access the internal consistency of the observed indicator variables measuring a construct, whose estimated value should be greater than 0.70 as proposed by (Hair et al., 2022; Chin et al., 2020). Convergent validity measures the degree to which one measure correlates with other measurements of the same phenomenon, and is measured using the AVE whose estimate should be greater than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2022; Chin et al., 2020). The results of the general assessment of discriminant validity (DV), composite reliability (CR), convergent validity (CV) is presented in Table 3.5

Table 3.5: Results for Composite Reliability, Convergent Validity, and Discriminant Validity

	CR	AVE	SCD	SE	IS	CM	SR	EA	SA	IND	ASS	EP	SOR	IPR	ST	IC	OPT	HPN	PRS	FLX	RT	DLE	KUSM	SFL	PD	TRA
SCD	0.863	0.799	**0.894**																							
SE	0.859	0.876	0.484	**0.936**																						
IS	0.752	0.848	0.517	0.921	**0.921**																					
CM	0.720	0.737	0.378	0.651	0.879	**0.858**																				
SR	0.910	0.868	0.152	0.210	0.285	0.454	**0.932**																			
EA	0.955	0.780	0.242	0.351	0.292	0.315	0.687	**0.883**																		
SA	0.847	0.812	0.192	0.522	0.543	0.503	0.722	0.754	**0.901**																	
IND	0.852	0.739	0.271	0.667	0.572	0.560	0.748	0.650	0.181	**0.860**																
ASS	0.863	0.707	0.125	0.421	0.558	0.478	0.472	0.513	0.669	0.851	**0.841**															
EP	0.772	0.817	0.323	0.664	0.663	0.671	0.417	0.611	0.853	0.823	0.828	**0.904**														
SOR	0.771	0.661	0.247	0.545	0.683	0.619	0.384	0.261	0.677	0.569	0.600	0.812	**0.813**													
IPR	0.979	0.844	0.205	0.516	0.552	0.535	0.421	0.263	0.457	0.470	0.577	0.635	0.804	**0.919**												
ST	0.793	0.667	0.446	0.482	0.568	0.590	0.436	0.458	0.513	0.766	0.725	0.650	0.480	0.659	**0.817**											
IC	0.717	0.839	0.274	0.364	0.503	0.596	0.440	0.378	0.479	0.544	0.320	0.678	0.577	0.487	0.619	**0.916**										
OPT	0.935	0.832	0.141	0.203	0.412	0.342	0.420	0.163	0.429	0.498	0.530	0.404	0.514	0.606	0.448	0.392	**0.912**									
HPN	0.712	0.735	0.267	0.154	0.002	-0.023	-0.097	0.057	-0.029	0.176	-0.256	0.047	-0.285	-0.162	0.081	-0.087	-0.220	**0.857**								
PRS	0.982	0.773	0.309	0.255	0.114	0.067	-0.088	0.005	0.073	0.338	-0.095	0.188	-0.059	-0.033	0.125	0.006	-0.014	0.048	**0.879**							
FLX	0.738	0.859	0.187	0.283	0.104	0.095	-0.029	-0.046	0.029	0.260	-0.006	0.187	0.013	0.018	0.198	0.053	-0.252	0.983	0.001	**0.927**						
RT	0.866	0.831	0.238	0.326	0.375	0.297	0.279	0.477	0.574	0.582	0.477	0.635	0.304	0.358	0.654	0.368	0.305	0.131	0.310	0.169	**0.912**					
DLE	0.715	0.857	0.469	0.513	0.851	0.704	0.332	0.320	0.489	0.452	0.417	0.495	0.574	0.427	0.483	0.571	0.292	-0.171	-0.130	-0.234	0.291	**0.926**				
KUSM	0.745	0.875	0.409	0.628	0.835	0.729	0.343	0.296	0.629	0.639	0.506	0.687	0.700	0.477	0.552	0.562	0.399	0.017	0.190	0.241	0.522	0.711	**0.935**			
SFL	0.856	0.750	0.367	0.448	0.613	0.657	0.401	0.288	0.519	0.434	0.519	0.614	0.610	0.544	0.571	0.501	0.289	-0.295	-0.057	-0.035	0.325	0.675	0.711	**0.866**		
PD	0.861	0.864	0.648	0.591	0.810	0.764	0.323	0.361	0.548	0.554	0.361	0.631	0.684	0.593	0.600	0.547	0.296	-0.018	0.134	0.062	0.545	0.826	0.896	0.670	**0.930**	
TRA	0.970	0.892	0.395	0.323	0.500	0.378	0.193	0.448	0.084	0.292	0.258	0.362	0.339	0.218	0.475	0.460	0.189	-0.015	-0.025	0.070	0.204	0.613	0.681	0.655	0.499	**0.944**

Note:
SE: Student Engagement; IS: Instructional Strategy; CM: Classroom Management; SR: Self Regard; EA: Emotional Awareness; IND: Independence; ASS: Assertiveness; EP: Empathy
SOR: Social Responsibility; IPR: Interpersonal Relationship; ST: Stress Tolerance; IC: Impulse Control; OPT: Optimism; HPN: Happiness; PRS: Problem-Solving; FLX: Flexibility
RT: Reality Testing; DLE: Designing Learning Experiences; KUSM: Knowledge and Understanding of Subject Matter; SFL: Strategies for Facilitating Learning; PD: Professional Development;
SCD: School Development; Teacher Attendance.

In comparing the results to the recommendations by scholars as indicated earlier, it could be realised from the results in Table 3.5 that values for CR exceeded 0.70 indicating that requirement for composite reliability was fulfilled. Similarly, the values for AVE were found to be greater than 0.50 as recommended indicating that convergence validity was not violated and finally, the square root of an AVE of each of the constructs was found to be greater than the coefficient of correlation between a pair of constructs, which suggested that discriminant validity was attained.

In relation to the study's hypotheses, inferential statistics such as the independent samples t-test, one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA), and linear regression was used. The independent samples t-test and the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to compare means so as to determine if any significant differences existed between them. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was appropriate because it is used to determine whether there are any significant differences between the means of three or more independent (unrelated) groups whiles the independent samples t-test is suitable for comparing the means of two independent groups (Lund & Lund, 2012). For instance, in comparing respondents on the study variables based on sex (male/ female), the independent samples t-test was used, and the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used when the comparison was based on academic qualifications, age, and years of experience for the teachers.

3.12 Checking Assumptions for Statistical Tests

The use of parametric tools in quantitative data analysis requires that certain assumptions underlying their usage are not violated. In addition to assumptions like sample size, outliers, and scale of measurement which were dully addressed in the construction and development of the questionnaire during the preliminary analysis,

assumptions such as normality of data, homogeneity of variance, and multicollinearity were all checked. Normality of data occurs when there is a higher frequency of scores in the middle, with lower frequencies at the extreme low and high ends (Gravetter, et al., 2021; Roni et al., 2020). This implies that the majority of the data points are close to the mean. The normal distribution of data can be checked graphically and statistically. If the data is normally distributed, the Q-Q plot will show data points that are closely spaced along a diagonal line. The Normal Q-Q plot was used graphically in this study to assess data normality and the results for each of the variables in the study is presented in Appendix H.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) tests are statistically useful in assessing data normality, and the results should not be statistically significant ($p>0.05$) (Abu-Bader, 2021; Harrison et al., 2021). However, in this study, I chose the K-S test of normality because it is more appropriate when the sample size is large, typically greater than 50 participants, as opposed to the S-W test, which is more robust in small sample size studies (Portney, 2020). Table 3.6 showed that the K-S statistic for each variable was not statistically significant ($p>0.05$), so I concluded that the data for each variable was normally distributed.

Table 3.6: Normality Test Results

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Students Engagement	0.081	342	0.000	0.979	342	0.000
Instructional Strategy	0.134	342	0.000	0.936	342	0.000
Classroom Management	0.107	342	0.000	0.966	342	0.000
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	0.079	342	0.000	0.973	342	0.000
Self Regard	0.157	342	0.000	0.952	342	0.000
Emotional Awareness	0.196	342	0.000	0.871	342	0.000
Self Actualization	0.173	342	0.000	0.903	342	0.000
Independence	0.170	342	0.000	0.917	342	0.000
Assertiveness	0.230	342	0.000	0.864	342	0.000
Intrapersonal	0.105	342	0.000	0.945	342	0.000
Empathy	0.161	342	0.000	0.891	342	0.000
Social Responsibility	0.212	342	0.000	0.827	342	0.000
Interpersonal Relationship	0.176	342	0.000	0.860	342	0.000
Overall Interpersonal Relationship	0.150	342	0.000	0.909	342	0.000
Stress Tolerance	0.096	342	0.000	0.963	342	0.000
Impulse Control	0.180	342	0.000	0.884	342	0.000
Stress Management	0.121	342	0.000	0.960	342	0.000
Optimism	0.140	342	0.000	0.957	342	0.000
Happiness	0.158	342	0.000	0.942	342	0.000
General Mood	0.135	342	0.000	0.969	342	0.000
Reality Testing	0.134	342	0.000	0.967	342	0.000
Flexibility	0.089	342	0.000	0.963	342	0.000
Problem Solving	0.173	342	0.000	0.862	342	0.000
Adaptability	0.063	342	0.002	0.982	342	0.000
Overall Emotional Intelligence	0.050	342	0.036	0.976	342	0.000
Designing Learning Experiences	0.167	342	0.000	0.870	342	0.000
Knowledge and Understanding of Subject Matter	0.144	342	0.000	0.947	342	0.000
Strategies for Facilitating Learning	0.156	342	0.000	0.922	342	0.000
Professional Development	0.143	342	0.000	0.935	342	0.000
School Development	0.185	342	0.000	0.928	342	0.000
Teacher Attendance	0.240	342	0.000	0.794	342	0.000
Overall, Teacher Job Performance	0.098	342	0.000	0.953	342	0.000

Homogeneity of variance means that the variance is the same across the groups to be compared (Gravetter et al., 2021; Ewing and Park, 2020). This is important in inferential statistics like the independent samples t-test, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) test. The Levene's Test for Equality of Variances was used to check

homogeneity of variance, and its statistic should be greater than the alpha value stated in the study (0.05) and the results for The Levene's Test for Equality of Variances as captured in the Appendix section confirmed that this assumption was not violated. Assumption of multicollinearity states that the independent variables in a regression analysis are not highly correlated with one another (Ewing & Park, 2020). This assumption suggests that even though there should be correlation among the independent variables, the correlation should not be high. The tolerance and variance inflation factors (VIF) was used to check multicollinearity where the tolerance value should be less than 0.10, or a VIF value should be greater than 10.

3.13 Ethical Considerations

Scientific investigation of any kind requires certain integrity processes to be upheld and respected. Scholars in the field of research have always recounted that there is a plethora of reasons why it is critical to follow ethical standards in research. Kabir (2016) averred that, ensuring research ethics advance research goals such as knowledge, truth, and error avoidance and that following ethics in research helps in the prohibitions against fabricating, falsifying, or misrepresenting research data, promote truth as well as avoid error. Kabir (2016) further argued that because research the enterprise frequently entails a great deal of collaboration and coordination among many different people from various disciplines and institutions, ethical standards promote values that are essential to collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect, and fairness.

Ethics in research therefore, makes it incumbent for researchers to observe, obey and follow these set of principles to guard and respect the dignity of participants in research inquiry (Roni et al., 2020; Portney, 2020). Similarly, ethics denotes the adherence of honest values and standards in the conduct of research (Hair et al., 2020). Practitioners

such as Cirucci and Pruchniewska (2022), postulate that the primary reason of following ethical procedures in research is to circumvent the possibility of either physically or psychologically injuring research participants from whom data is collected. Research ethics refers to a system of moral values that is concerned with the degree to which research procedures adhere to professional, legal and sociological obligations to the study of participants (Babbie, 2022). Accordingly, the ethical procedures that were followed in the conduct of this study included access, confidentiality, anonymity, informed consent, deception, as well as plagiarism.

3.13.1 Access

Gaining access to carry out research is a crucial prerequisite that researchers follow in terms of measures to undertake to research sites, engaging with participants, and data sources (Hair et al., 2022; Fleming, 2018). Gaining access requires that relevant gate-keepers are contacted, gaining access to a research setting necessitates that a researcher gains authorization prior to the beginning of a study (Silverman & Patterson, 2022; Zegwaard, Campbell & Pretti, 2017). These scholars further maintained that, even though this gaining authorization in the form of access could be official or unofficial, they proposed that scholars should endeavor and obtain official permission and authorization to discuss and negotiate access to the study setting. Nevertheless, the authors added and advised researchers to as well obtain unofficial permission from gate-keepers at the field in an attempt to solicit their support and collaboration in the research process.

In accordance with this ethic of gaining access to the public Senior High Schools in the various districts of Central Region, I secured an introductory letter from the Department of Social Studies Education. Having secured the introductory letter from my

department, I proceeded to national headquarters of the Ghana Education Service so as to get approval from the Director General of Ghana Education Service, Accra to the Regional Director of Education, Central Region, Cape Coast, Ghana. An approval was also granted to me from the of Office of the Regional Director of Education and with this permission, I again sought approval from the various District Directors of Education in Central Region and this finally gave me access to the various schools I visited (Appendix, L, K, J) bear evidence to the approval letter granted me in the processes leading to gaining access for this study. The approval of the Regional Director also enabled me to get access to the information on the background characteristics of the Social Studies teachers in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region (See Appendix K) before the commencement of data collection. Additionally, with the approval from the Director General of Ghana Education Service, Accra, I was also able to secure the statistics on the pass and failure rates for four year running from the Headquarters of West African Examinations Council, (WAEC), Accra (See Appendix M) and was crucial in arguing out for the statement of the problem in chapter one of this thesis.

3.13.2 Confidentiality

Confidentiality refers to the act of safeguarding of raw data and only publishing aggregated results that cannot be traced back to an individual or organization (Gold & Krinke, 2020). Any information about a participant's private life that he or she does not want others to know is considered 'confidential' This information is distinct from 'public information' which everyone has a right to access. Confidentiality ensures that the researcher does not disclose study information to third parties without the consent of the research participants (Tabatabaei & Tayebi, 2022; Bachman & Schutt, 2020). In other words, confidentiality entails keeping any information in a study hidden from

others (Dubey & Kothari, 2022). Prospective study participants had the option of declining to participate if they believe their confidentiality is jeopardized, which means the researcher will reveal study information to authorities (Silverman & Pettterson, 2022). These authors caution researchers to maintain the confidentiality of research participants because a breach of confidentiality could result in legal action being taken against them. According to van Thiel (2022), researchers must reach an agreement with research participants about how data generated in a study will be used. In line with this proposal, all the participants who were involved in the study were informed that, the information or data collected was purely for an academic purpose. Besides, they were also assured that the information collected were safe, protected and, therefore, would not be accessible to others.

3.13.3 Anonymity

Anonymity refers to the practice of not identifying and disclosing information concerning research participants, such as name and phone number, so the data collected cannot be linked to a specific participant (Cirucci & Pruchniewska, 2022). These authors explained that, research that involves questionnaire administration about participants' opinions, attitudes, and habits enhances anonymity. Therefore, anonymity as an ethic in research, is traditionally used to remove a participant's name in order to protect them from harm, particularly in qualitative studies that present participant narratives or perspectives. Badampudi, Fotrousi, Cartoxo and Usman (2022) further recommended that anonymity is enhanced when data collected in a study is publicly reported in aggregates and pseudonyms are used in place of the participants' real names. Anonymity is important in research because it increases participants' willingness to provide candid data for a study (Badampudi et al., 2022). In ensuring participant's anonymity in this study, numbers and codes were assigned to participants in the study,

and the names of the schools as well as the participants were omitted from the questionnaires.

3.13.4 Informed consent

Informed consent as a research ethic necessitates that participants in research ought to willingly choose to participate in a study and that they will be able to withdraw at any point during the study if they so desire (Tabatabaei & Tayebi, 2022; Daniels & Minot, 2020). In this sense, participants are, therefore, not pressed to participate in the study. In accordance with Simons-Rudolph et al's., (2020) recommendation for informed consent as one of the crucial ethical procedures in research, I explained the purpose and processes of the study to the participants and reminded them that they had the right to refuse to participate or withdraw from the study. Again, Silverman and Patterson (2022) and Afolabi, et al., (2018) proposed that informed consent statements should be written and read aloud to participants before they sign to indicate their willingness to participate in the study. As a result, I attached a consent form to the instrument which the participants signed to demonstrate their willing participation in the study.

3.13.5 Deception

Deception in research circles relates to the situations as well as instances where researchers fail to make and disclose full and complete account of their identity, advantages and disadvantages connected to a study, and rights of participants prior to the start of the study (Homburg et al., 2020; Polit & Beck, 2017). In strict adherence to this research ethic, my identity as being a lecturer and also a PhD student-researcher was fully disclosed to the participant's. Besides, the purpose, advantages and disadvantages embedded in carrying out this study were well explained to the study's participants. Also, the choice to either partake or withdraw from the study was disclosed

to the study participants prior to the commencement of the study, hence, I can conclude that I dealt with and respected the ethic of deception in research.

3.13.6 Plagiarism

Hamdan, Hussain and Al-hattami (2018) defined plagiarism as the conscious and unconscious use of other researcher's thoughts, philosophies, results etc without dully recognizing the source (s) of those ideas. Scholars such as Henn and Vercruysse, (2022); Yossa (2022) have observed that one of the ever increasing unethical practices in research is plagiarism. These scholars further cautioned researchers to avoid this unethical practice owing to the costs and dangers associated with its usage or practice which include but not limited to shame, and loss of employment of the plagiarizer, loss of reputation, legal actions against the perpetrator, and bringing the institution the plagiarizer is affiliated to into disrepute. Henn et al. (2022) and van Thiel (2022) therefore, advised researchers to avoid plagiarism by dully acknowledging their sources of thoughts and ideas, paraphrasing by using one's own words but referencing the source, citing the sources of their ideas, and using direct quotations only when necessary. In line with the proposal of the aforementioned scholars, I acknowledged the sources of my information in both the in-text citations and the references list, as well as paraphrasing the original ideas in my own words without changing their meaning but citing the sources while also using the Turnitin plagiarism detector to ensure that the document was free of plagiarism.

3.13.7 Researcher's Positionality

Researchers (Silverman & Patterson, 2022; Matias, 2021) maintain that one of the critical issues that impacts the research process such as data collection, analysis, and interpretation of findings is the issue of positionality of a researcher. Positionality refers

to how researchers' backgrounds and experiences influence their interactions with study participants, as well as how they perceive themselves and expect to be perceived by others when conducting research (Henn et al., 2022; Strunk & Locke, 2019). Discourse on positionality employs the concepts of insider and outsider researcher to examine how researchers build and arrange themselves in relation to participants and research processes. Eden et al. (2020) defines insider or outsider status in research as the degree to which researchers identify with the persons being studied based on common living experiences or group membership.

Flick (2018) agrees that a researcher's background and positionality influence how he or she uses language, frames questions, and decides which issues to investigate and follow up on, and that insider researchers are better suited to do so than outsider researchers. It is assumed that the insider researcher is familiar with the conditions of the participants; thus, he or she may construct and provide questions that allow the researcher to adequately investigate relevant concerns. An outsider researcher, on the other hand, is more likely to ask questions that are irrelevant to the issues at hand since they are unfamiliar with the study's background. Therefore, I was trapped in the dilemma of an insider and outsider positionalities in this study.

Currently, I have worked with the Department of Basic Education, University of Education, Winneba for six years, and teaches courses in Social Studies Education. Therefore, I interact and relate with both pre-service and in-service Social Studies teachers, and this shapes my perspectives on the focus of this study. Indeed, my worry as an educationist and student researcher about the learning outcomes of students in Social Studies in public basic and senior high schools in the Central Region of Ghana, and my keen desire to contribute to the improvement of learning outcomes among the

students informed the choice of this field of study. In this way, it was impossible to dissociate my personal experiences from the issues under study. Inevitably, I became an insider researcher. However, I entered the study as a student researcher, rather than an expert or official of the GES. In all my engagements with the participants and gatekeepers, I maintained my status as a student researcher who felt the need to contribute solutions to the improving the learning outcomes in the schools. Therefore, I strove to flatten the power relations that exist in an officer and subordinate circumstances as well as distancing myself from the opinions and beliefs of the participants. Therefore, I investigated the issues in focus with the lenses of a distant outsider researcher who wanted to achieve objectivity in data collection, analysis, interpretation, and reporting the findings.

3.14 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the methodological procedures and methods that were followed in the conduct of this study. I employed the quantitative research approach and the cross-sectional descriptive survey design which aligned with the positivist paradigm of how knowledge is generated. In this chapter, the population of the study which comprised all Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana was also discussed. A return rate of 342 out of the total 385 sample size were sampled through census sampling to participate in the study giving a response rate of 89%. The instrument for the study was a structured questionnaire which was pre-tested to verify its validity and reliability. After meeting validity and reliability requirements, I employed descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, mean, and standard deviation as well as inferential statistics such as independent samples t-test, one way between groups ANOVA, multiple and stepwise regression and multivariate inferential statistics involving the structural equation model, with the aid

of IBM SPSS and AMOS version 28.0. Finally, the chapter ended with a discussion on ethical considerations and procedures in the conduct of research such as access, informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, deception, and plagiarism.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Overview

This chapter presents the data and discussion of the analyses of results. This study investigated the level of self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence as well as the job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region, Ghana. Besides, an attempt was made to ascertain if emotional intelligence mediates the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

The study is anchored on the assumption that self-efficacy beliefs of teachers improve and enhance their job performance, and these variables are mediated by their emotional intelligence. The variables included in the study were self-efficacy beliefs as the independent variable, Social Studies teachers' job performance was the dependent variable, and emotional intelligence of teachers was conceptualized as a mediator. Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs was based on Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) teachers' self-efficacy model, emotional intelligence hinged on Bar-On (2007) mixed ability model on emotional intelligence, and Social Studies teachers' job performance was based on 2013 designed questionnaire item by National Council of Educational Research and Training of New Delhi.

The chapter is presented in four sub-sections. Section one presents a report on the response rate and a discussion on its appropriateness. This is followed by the demographic representations of the sample and a justification of their relevance to the study. The third section presents the data and analyses of research questions and hypotheses whilst the fourth section discusses the results of data analysis where the

findings that emerged from this study were linked to findings of previous studies so as to determine points of agreement and divergence. Descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation) and structural equation modelling analytical technique with the aid of IBM SPSS and AMOS version 28 were used to analyse the data, and the findings are presented in tables and figures. The chapter ends with a summary.

4.1 Response Rate and Computation of Statistical Range

A response rate connotes the proportion of the number of participants who correctly responded to a survey instrument divided by the number of respondents chosen or the eligible respondents in a study (Bookera, Austin, & Balasubramaniana, 2021). Therefore, the purpose of indicating a response rate contributes in judging a quality research study for generating valid, reliable and a very generalizable results for a study. Even though scholars seem to disagree on the recommended threshold for defining an ideal response rate in research, there is however a general agreement among researchers that for research inquiry to accurately show and include response rate in so as to analyze any potential bias, particularly with regard to the causes of non-response (Solarino, & Aguinis, 2021; Youk, & Park, 2019). According to Bookera, Austin, and Balasubramaniana (2021), having a low response rate can result in a number of methodological biases that could have dire implications on the reliability and generalization of the research findings especially in quantitative studies. Hence, with statistically adequate or excellent response rates, researchers are guaranteed of representativeness of the respondents to the target population of the study.

Out of a total of four hundred and twelve (412) questionnaires administered, three hundred and forty-two (342) were involved in the analysis representing a response rate

of 83% This response rate was attained because some of the respondents did not fill-in their questionnaires whilst other questionnaires contained errors in answering and, therefore, could not be included in the analysis. This return rate was realized because some of the respondents did not return the questionnaire after the several attempts, I made to retrieve them. I again found that some of the teachers had misplaced the instrument. Nevertheless, this response rate was adequate for statistical analysis based on the suggestion of Dillman, Smith and Christian (2014) that a response rate of 70% is adequate in surveys. Again, Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) argued that a 50% response rate is adequate, 60% good and above 70% rated very good in a survey. The response rate obtained for this study was, therefore, very good. The next section presents the demographic characteristics of the participants.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section of the study examined the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The distribution of the respondents based on their demographics such as sex, age, academic qualification and years of teaching experience was investigated, and the results are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Variables	Dimensions	Frequency	Percent
Sex	Male	239	69.9
	Female	103	30.1
	Total	**342**	**100.0**
Age	20-29 Years	94	27.5
	30-39 Years	147	43.0
	40-49 Years	79	23.1
	50+Years	22	6.4
	Total	**342**	**100.0**
Academic Qualification	Bachelor's Degree	244	71.3
	Master's Degree	98	28.7
	Total	**342**	**100.0**
Years of Teaching Experience	1-5 Years	110	32.2
	6-10 Years	106	31.0
	10+Years	126	36.8
	Total	**342**	**100.0**

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

It could be seen from Table 4.1 that more male teachers (n=239, 69.9%) than female teachers (n=103, 30.1%) participated in the study. The information also disclosed majority of the respondents were between 30-39 years (n=147, 43%) than those between 20-29 (n=94, 27.5%), 40-49 years (n=79, 23.1%), and 50 and above (n=22, 6.4%) years. The composition of the respondents based on academic qualification has shown that the proportion of those who had bachelor's degree (n=244, 71.3%) were more than master's degree (n=98, 28.7%) holders respectively. The distribution of the respondents by years of teaching experience revealed that 126 representing 36.8% had spent 10+years teaching the subject, 110 (32.2%) had taught the subject for between 1-5years, whilst the remaining 106 representing (31.0%) have been teaching the subject for between 6-10years.

The demographic compositions of the respondents were vital to the study in three folds. Firstly, they confirmed that data were collected from a sample with varied backgrounds which suggested that the data were rich and representative of the population. Secondly, the demographic characteristics were used as the basis of comparison of the respondents on the study variables. Finally, the demographic variables were used as basis for assessing their statistical differences with the study variables.

4.3 Findings

This section of the chapter presents findings from the analysis of data. It commences with the presentation of findings on the research questions, and concludes with the findings on the hypotheses.

Research Question 1: What is the level of self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?

This research question aimed to find out the level of efficacy beliefs among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. In this study, the long form of Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) teachers self-efficacy model in assessing the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs was adapted. This model consists of three main scales (students engagement, instructional strategy and classroom management) with eight items in each scale as captured in Table 4.2. In providing an answer to this research question, I employed descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation to compute the mean and standard deviation of each item as well as their overall composite for the entire scale. The interpretation of the mean and standard deviation scores to reflect the level of teachers self-efficacy beliefs was done based on the recommendations by Leedy and Ormrod (2021) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). These scholars maintained that the mean score on a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire,

mean score can be ranked as very low thus where mean scores 1.00 to 2.00, 2.01 to 3.00 is low, 3.01 to 4.00 is high, and 4.01 to 5.00 is very high. These were computed on each variable and its sub-scales and the findings are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics on the Level of Teachers' Self-efficacy Beliefs

	Items	N	Min.	Max.	Mean		Std. Dev.	Interpretation
			Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	
Classroom Management	CM17	342	1	5	4.31	0.04	0.74	Very High
	CM18	342	1	5	4.28	0.04	0.74	Very High
	CM19	342	1	5	4.17	0.04	0.79	Very High
	CM20	342	1	5	4.37	0.04	0.75	Very High
	CM21	342	1	5	4.25	0.05	0.84	Very High
	CM22	342	1	5	4.06	0.05	0.94	Very High
	CM23	342	1	5	4.19	0.04	0.75	Very High
	CM24	342	1	5	4.25	0.04	0.80	Very High
	SSM		***1***	***5***	***4.24***	***0.03***	***0.46***	***Very High***
Instructional Strategy	IS9	342	1	5	4.17	0.05	0.87	Very High
	IS10	342	1	5	4.13	0.04	0.81	Very High
	IS11	342	1	5	4.35	0.04	0.72	Very High
	IS12	342	1	5	4.07	0.05	0.85	Very High
	IS13	342	1	5	4.29	0.04	0.78	Very High
	IS14	342	1	5	4.43	0.04	0.72	Very High
	IS15	342	1	5	4.22	0.04	0.73	Very High
	IS16	342	1	5	4.00	0.05	0.84	Very High
	SSM		***1***	***5***	***4.21***	***0.03***	***0.48***	***Very High***
Students Engagement	SE1	342	1	5	4.14	0.04	0.79	Very High
	SE2	342	1	5	4.28	0.04	0.75	Very High
	SE3	342	1	5	4.44	0.03	0.65	Very High
	SE4	342	1	5	4.56	0.03	0.61	Very High
	SE5	342	1	5	4.45	0.04	0.69	Very High
	SE6	342	1	5	3.86	0.05	0.96	High
	SE7	342	1	5	4.06	0.04	0.80	Very High
	SE8	342	1	5	3.40	0.06	1.11	High
	SSM		***1***	***5***	***4.15***	***0.02***	***0.41***	***Very High***
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	***Overall***		***1***	***5***	***4.20***	***0.02***	***0.39***	***Very High***

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)
N=342
NB: The higher the mean score, the higher the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in the execution of the scales/subscales of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs

The findings in Table 4.2 show that, the analysis were based on 342 participants as indicated in the response rate. The minimum and maximum values confirmed that there were no outliers in the data. Besides, scrutiny of the standard deviation scores reveal

that, they were ranked within the ±3 threshold for assessing normality of data distribution. Generally, the data establish that, Social Studies were ranked highest and, therefore, rated their efficacy beliefs in all the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs to be very high. Specifically, efficacy in classroom management was rated to be very high (M=4.24, SD=0.46), followed by efficacy in instructional strategy (M=4.21, SD=0.48), and efficacy in student engagement (M=4.15, SD=0.41) respectively. The data further show that, Social Studies teachers ranked their overall self-efficacy beliefs to be very high 4.20 with a standard deviation of 0.39. Furthermore, but for two sub-scales in efficacy in student engagement (SE6 & SE8) which was ranked as high, all the other sub-scales in the three indicators of teachers self-efficacy beliefs was discovered to be very high as espoused by Leedy and Ormrod (2021) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Additionally, it could be seen from Table 4.2 that all the mean scores indicated data variability and were therefore between the range of ±3 indicating that the data were normally distributed. Nevertheless, based on the 5-point Likert scale used in the questionnaire where the mean score is 3.0 (1+2+3+4+5/5), it could be said that all the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs outlined in the study were rated above average. Therefore, I conclude that, the Social Studies teachers possessed self-efficacy beliefs in all the indicators outlined in the study, but in different and varying magnitude.

Research Question 2: What is the level of emotional intelligence of Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?

Research question two examined the level of emotional intelligence of Social Studies teachers in the public Senior High Schools in the Central of Ghana. The level of emotional intelligence was determined based on the recommendations by Leedy and Ormrod (2021) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) who proposed that on a 5-point

Likert Scale, mean scores of between 1.00 to 2.00 suggest very low level, 2.01 to 3.00 is deemed low, 3.01 to 4.00 is rated high, and 4.01 to 5.00 is deemed very high level/response. The general level of Social Studies teachers' emotional intelligence is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics on the Level of Teachers' Emotional Intelligence

Scales	Sub-Scales	Min.	Max.	Mean		Std. Dev.	Interpretation
		Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	
Interpersonal Relationship	Social Responsibility	1	5	4.46	0.03	0.59	Very High
	Social Relationship	1	5	4.33	0.04	0.65	Very High
	Empathy	1	5	4.19	0.04	0.69	Very High
	SSM	***1***	***5***	***4.33***	***0.03***	***0.53***	***Very High***
Intrapersonal Relationship	Assertiveness	1	5	4.42	0.03	0.55	Very High
	Self-Actualisation	1	5	4.22	0.03	0.62	Very High
	Emotional Awareness	1	5	4.16	0.04	0.75	Very High
	Independence	1	5	4.09	0.04	0.65	Very High
	Self-Regard	1	5	3.66	0.04	0.68	High
	SSM	***1***	***5***	***4.08***	***0.03***	***0.47***	***Very High***
Stress Management	Impulse Control	1	5	4.11	0.05	0.83	Very High
	Stress Tolerance	1	5	3.69	0.04	0.77	High
	SSM	***1***	***5***	***3.90***	***0.04***	***0.68***	***High***
Adaptability	Problem Solving	1	5	4.34	0.03	0.62	Very High
	Reality Testing	1	5	3.39	0.05	0.91	High
	Flexibility	1	5	3.38	0.05	1.00	High
	SSM	***1***	***5***	***3.79***	***0.03***	***0.62***	***High***
General Mood	Optimism	1	5	3.67	0.04	0.76	High
	Happiness	1	5	2.94	0.06	1.07	Low
	SSM	***1***	***5***	***3.31***	***0.04***	***0.76***	**High**
Overall Teacher's Emotional Intelligence		***1***	***5***	***3.95***	***0.02***	***0.41***	***High***

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022
NB=342
NB: The higher the mean score, the higher the level of teachers' emotional intelligence in the execution of that scale/subscales of emotional intelligence.

It could be seen from the findings in Table 4.3 that the Social Studies teachers had varied levels of emotional intelligence relative to the indicators outlined in this study.

Indeed, the findings show that the Social Studies teachers' emotional intelligence was rated very high for interpersonal relationship (M=4.33, SD=0.53), and intrapersonal relationship (M=4.08, SD=0.47). The findings again show that their emotional intelligence was rated high for stress management (M=3.90, SD=0.68), adaptability (M=3.79, SD=0.62), and general mood (M=3.31, SD=0.76) respectively.

The findings further show that, the overall emotional intelligence yielded a mean of 3.95 with a standard deviation of 0.41 which was considered to be high. The subscales for interpersonal relationship indicated that, the Social Studies teacher practiced social responsibility more (M=4.46, SD=0.59) than social relationship (M=4.33, SD=0.65) and empathy (M=4.19, SD=0.69). For intrapersonal relationship, the findings showed that assertiveness was most prevalent among the Social Studies teachers (M=4.42, SD=0.55), followed by self-actualization (M=4.22, SD=0.62), emotional awareness (M=4.16, SD=0.75), independence (M=4.09, SD=0.65), and self-regard (M=3.66, SD=0.68) respectively. The findings further showed that, in relation to stress management, impulse control was dominant among the Social Studies teachers (M=4.11, SD=0.83) as compared to stress tolerance (M=3.69, SD=0.77), respectively. Moreover, the findings further reveal that problem solving was dominant (M=4.34, SD=0.62), followed by reality testing (M=3.39, SD=0.91) and flexibility (M=3.38, SD=1.00) under adaptability. For general mood, optimism was rated to be dominant among the Social Studies teachers (M=3.67, SD=0.76) as compared to happiness (M=2.94, SD=1.07). The findings on overall emotional intelligence suggest that Social Studies teachers had a high emotional intelligence in executing their jobs as put forward by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Moreover, it could be seen from Table 4.3 that all the mean scores feel within the range of ±3 signifying data variability and therefore point to the fact that the data were normally distributed. Therefore, I conclude that, the

Social Studies teachers had a high emotional intelligence among all the emotional intelligence dimensions outlined in the study, though in varying levels.

Research Question 3: What is the level of teacher job performance among Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?

The third research question investigated the level of job performance among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region. To provide answers to this research question, descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation were computed for each variable. Additionally, in this thesis, teacher job performance comprised six facets: designing learning experiences for students, knowledge and understanding of subject matter, strategies for facilitating learning, professional development, school development, and teacher attendance. The level of teacher job performance was determined based on the 2013 designed questionnaire item by National Council of Educational Research and Training of New Delhi as presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Scale for Determining Level of Job Performance

		Interpretation	
Scale	**Range**	**Level of Agreement**	**Level of Performance**
1	0.00 – 1.50	Strongly disagree	Very Low
2	1.51 – 2.50	Disagree	Low
3	2.51 – 3.50	Uncertain	Average
4	3.50 – 4.50	Agree	High
5	4.51 – 5.00	Strongly agree	Very High

Source: National Council of Educational Research and Training (2013), New Delhi

It could be observed from Table 4.2 that National Council of Educational Research and Training (2013) provided five levels of job performance. The council explained that a mean score of 4.50-5.00 indicate a very high level of teacher job performance; 3.50-4.49 is high level of teacher job performance; 2.50-3.49 is average level of teacher job

performance; 1.50-2.49 is low level of teacher job performance; and 0.00-1.49 is very low level of teacher job performance. The results on the level of teacher job performance are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics on the Level of Teachers' Job Performance

Sub-Scales of Teacher Job Performance	Min.	Max.	Mean		Std. Dev.
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Teacher Attendance	1	5	4.50	0.03	0.56
Strategies for Facilitating Learning	1	5	4.45	0.02	0.43
Designing Learning Experiences	1	5	4.32	0.03	0.58
Knowledge and Understanding of Subject-Matter	1	5	4.27	0.02	0.45
Professional Development	1	5	4.18	0.03	0.56
School Development	1	5	3.94	0.04	0.75
Overall Teacher Job Performance	1	5	4.27	0.02	0.39

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)
N=342
NB: The higher the mean score, the higher the level of teachers' job performance in the execution of that scale/subscales of job performance.

The findings in Table 4.5 revealed that, the analysis of data was based on the views of 342 participants who rightly responded to the questionnaire as captured in the response rate. Additionally, to ascertain that the data collected in answering of this research question conformed to the assumption of no outliers which is an assumption in quantitative studies, I calculated the maximum and minimum values of all the variables so as to check this assumption as recommended by Mooi et al. (2018). In line with this, a cursory look at the results in Table 4.5 indicates that with the 5-point Likert scale questionnaires, the minimum and maximum values should fall between 1 and 5 to demonstrate that there were no outliers in the data, which was achieved in this study.

Generally, a cursory inspection of the mean and standard deviation values in Table 4.5 revealed that, the participants rated their overall job performance at 4.27 (SD=0.39) which is considered to be high. Specifically, the findings again show that, teacher attendance is very high (M=4.50, SD=0.56) and was ranked highest among the

indicators of job performance of the teachers. Furthermore, the findings as shown in Table 4.5 indicated Social Studies teachers job performance was found to be high for strategies for facilitating students learning (M=4.45, SD=0.43), designing learning experiences (M=4.32, SD=0.58), knowledge and understanding of subject matter (M=4.27, SD=0.45), professional development (M=4.18, SD=0.56), as well as school development (M=3.94, SD=0.57). The interpretation of the findings showed that, all the indicators as well as the overall job performance were high based on 2013 designed questionnaire item by National Council of Educational Research and Training of New Delhi for assessing teacher job performance.

Research Question 4: What is the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and teacher job performance of Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?

The aim of this research question was to investigate the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. Extant literature has propounded a couple of scales in assessing the degree of relationships that exist between variables (mostly independent and dependent variables). In Devore and Peck's (2022) model for interpretation of the strength of the correlation coefficients, a correlation coefficient of less than 0.5 represents a weak relationship, correlation coefficients of greater than 0.5 but less than 0.8 represent a moderate relationship, and correlation coefficients greater than 0.8 represent a strong relationship.

Also, Kothari and Garg's (2019) view on strength of correlation is that if the correlation coefficient is greater than 0.3 but less than 0.5, then the relationship is moderate; the relationship is weak if the correlation coefficient is less than 0.3; and the relationship is

strong if the correlation coefficient is 0.5 or greater. Besides, Cohen et al., (2018) suggest that correlation coefficients of r = 0.10 to 0.29 or r = -0.10 to -0.29 is small/weak, r = 0.30 to 0.49 or r = -0.30 to -0.49 is medium/moderate, and r = 0.50 to 1.0 or r = -0.50 to -1.0 is large/strong. The Pearson correlation was used to provide answers to this research question, and the interpretation of the correlation coefficients was based on Cohen et al., (2018) suggestion and the results of the analysis have been presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Pearson Correlation Matrix for Self-efficacy Beliefs and Job Performance

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Mean	4.15	4.21	4.24	4.20	4.32	4.27	4.45	4.18	3.94	4.50	4.27
Std. Dev.	0.14	0.48	0.46	0.39	0.58	0.45	0.43	0.56	0.75	0.56	0.39
1. SE	1										
2. IS	0.648**	1									
	0.000										
3. CM	0.497**	0.666**	1								
	0.000	0.000									
4. OSEB	0.817**	0.907**	0.849**	1							
	0.000	0.000	0.000								
5. DLE	0.402**	0.670**	0.533**	0.631**	1						
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000							
6. KUSM	0.403**	0.564**	0.462**	0.559**	0.526**	1					
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000						
7. SFL	0.328**	0.400**	0.441**	0.457**	0.442**	0.440**	1				
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000					
8. PD	0.357**	0.530**	0.525**	0.553**	0.589**	0.554**	0.405**	1			
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000				
9. SD	.269**	0.382**	0.309**	0.375**	0.392**	0.282**	0.237**	0.417**	1		
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000			
10. TA	0.207**	0.285**	0.229**	0.282**	0.325**	0.324**	0.288**	0.256**	0.311**	1	
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		
11. OTJP	0.473**	0.688**	0.606**	0.692**	0.807**	0.736**	0.648**	0.800**	0.658**	0.518**	1
	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

N=342 *Correlation is significant at p< 0.05 (2-tailed)

Note: SE: Student Engagement; IS: Instructional Strategy; CM: Classroom Management: OSEB: Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs; DLE: Designing Learning Experiences; KUSM: Knowledge and Understanding of Subject Matter; SFL: Strategies for Facilitating Learning; PD: Professional Development; SD: School Development; TA: Teacher Attendance; OTJP: Overall Teacher Job Performance.

The findings in Table 4.6 revealed that all the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs outlined in the study related positively and significantly with teachers' job performance. Indeed, the result show that there was a moderate but statistically significant positive relationship between student engagement and overall teacher job performance ($r=0.473$, $p<0.05$, 2-tailed). It was also established that there was a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between efficacy in instructional strategy and teacher job performance ($r=0.688$, $p<0.05$, 2-tailed). Also, the study disclosed that there was a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between efficacy in classroom management and job performance ($r=0.606$, $p<0.05$, 2-tailed) and overall self-efficacy beliefs attained a strong and statistically significant positive relationship with overall teacher job performance ($r=0.692$, $p=0.000$, 2-tailed). These results implied that self-efficacy beliefs contained in this study were crucial in enhancing the job performance of Social Studies teachers. In essence, an improvement in the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs is probable to boost the job performance of Social Studies teachers. Conversely, a reduction in the quality of these indicators is likely to lead to a corresponding drop in the job performance of the teachers.

The study further examined the relationship between each of the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs and the indicators of job performance outlined in the study. The findings reveal that there were moderate and statistically significant relationships between student engagement and designing learning experiences ($r=0.402$, $p>0.05$, 2-tailed), knowledge and understanding of subject matter ($r=0.403$, $p>0.05$, 2-tailed), strategies for facilitating learning ($r=0.328$, $p>0.05$, 2-tailed), professional development ($r=0.357$, $p>0.05$, 2-tailed), school development ($r=0.269$, $p>0.05$, 2-tailed), and teacher attendance ($r=0.207$, $p>0.05$, 2-tailed), respectively. Likewise, there were strong and statistically significant positive relationships between efficacy in

instructional strategy and teachers job performance in designing learning experience (r=0.670, p>0.05, 2-tailed), knowledge and understanding of subject matter (r=0.564, p>0.05, 2-tailed), and professional development (r=0.530, p>0.05, 2-tailed) respectively.

Also, the relationship between instructional strategy and school development (r=382, p>0.05, 2-tailed) was moderate while the relationship between instructional strategy and teacher attendance (r=0.285, p>0.05, 2-tailed) was weak. Besides, the relationships between classroom management and job performance in designing learning experience (r=0.533, p>0.05, 2-tailed) and professional development (r=0.525, p>0.05, 2-tailed), were strong, positive, and statistically significant, while the relationship between classroom management and knowledge and understanding of subject matter (r=0.462, p>0.05, 2-tailed), strategies for facilitating learning (r=0.441, p>0.05, 2-tailed) and school development (r=0.309, p>0.05, 2-tailed), were moderate, positive, and statistically significant, but the relationship between classroom management and teacher attendance was weak but positive and statistically significant (r=0.229, p>0.05, 2-tailed). Based on these results, it was evident that besides the positive and statistically relationship between the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs and the overall job performance of teachers, the individual self-efficacy factors related significantly with each indicator of teachers' job performance.

Research Question 5: What is the effect of emotional intelligence on job performance of Social Studies teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?

In this research question, I sought to examine the effects of emotional intelligence on the job performance of the Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. In order to answer this research question, a multiple regression analysis was carried out where the indicators of emotional intelligence: interpersonal relationship, intrapersonal relationship, stress management, adaptability, and general mood were used as predictors of teachers' job performance in the regression model. Researchers like Pallant (2020) and Cohen et al. (2018) have argued that multiple regression requires a linear correlation between the independent and dependent variable. In line with this suggestion, a bivariate linear correlation was conducted using Pearson Product Moment correlation. The strength of correlation was based on the interpretation of Kothari and Garg (2019) view on strength of correlation which states that if the correlation coefficient is greater than 0.3 but less than 0.5, then the relationship is moderate; the relationship is weak if the correlation coefficient is less than 0.3; and the relationship is strong if the correlation coefficient is 0.5 or greater. The correlation results were tested at 0.05 alpha level and presented in Table 4.7

Table 4.7: Pearson Correlation Matrix for Emotional Intelligence and Teacher Job Performance

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
	Mean	4.08	4.33	3.90	3.31	3.79	3.95	4.32	4.27	4.45	4.18	3.94	4.50	4.27
	Std. Dev	0.47	0.53	0.68	0.76	0.62	0.41	0.58	0.45	0.43	0.56	0.75	0.56	0.39
1.	**INTRA**	1.00												
2.	**INTR**	0.538**	1.00											
		0.000												
3.	**SM**	0.487**	0.555**	1.00										
		0.000	0.000											
4.	**GM**	0.272**	0.126*	0.299**	1.00									
		0.000	0.020	0.000										
5.	**ADPT**	0.326**	0.226**	0.276**	0.649**	1.00								
		0.000	0.00	0.000	0.000									
6.	**OEI**	0.798**	0.691**	0.711**	0.635**	0.686**	1.00							
		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000								
7.	**DLE**	0.344**	0.438**	0.431**	0.030	0.030	0.362**	1.00						
		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.620	0.540	0.000							
8.	**KUSM**	0.413**	0.467**	0.410**	0.159**	0.252**	0.485**	0.526**	1.00					
		0.000	0.00	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000						
9.	**SFL**	0.301**	0.443**	0.346**	-0.090	0.060	0.306**	0.442**	0.440**	1.00				
		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.090	0.260	0.00	0.000	0.000					
10.	**PD**	0.352**	0.505**	0.413**	0.110*	0.205**	0.446**	0.589**	0.554**	0.405**	1.00			
		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.040	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000				
11.	**SD**	0.214**	0.262**	0.343**	0.263**	0.268**	0.369**	0.392**	0.282**	0.237**	0.417**	1.00		
		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.00			
12.	**TA**	0.188**	0.182**	0.277**	0.121*	0.100	0.241**	0.325**	0.324**	0.288**	0.256**	.311**	1	
		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.030	0.060	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.00		
13.	**OTJP**	0.433**	0.556**	0.531**	0.144**	0.222**	0.531**	0.807**	0.736**	0.648**	0.800**	0.658**	0.518**	1
		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.010	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

N=342 *Correlation is significant at p< 0.05 (2-tailed)

Note: INTRA: Intrapersonal Relationship; INTR: Interpersonal Relationship; SM: Stress Management; GM: General Mood; ADPT: Adaptability; OEI: Overall Emotional Intelligence; DLE: Designing Learning Experiences; KUSM: Knowledge and Understanding of Subject Matter; SFL: Strategies for Facilitating Learning; PD: Professional Development; SD: School Development; TA: Teacher Attendance; OTP: Overall Teacher Job Performance.

The Pearson correlation results in Table 4.7 show that there was a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between interpersonal relationship and overall teacher job performance (r=0.556, p<0.05, 2-tailed), stress management and overall teacher job performance (r=0.556, p<0.05, 2-tailed) as well as the overall emotional intelligence and overall job performance (r=0.531, p<0.05, 2-tailed). The results further disclose that intrapersonal relationship had a moderate and statistically significant positive relationship with overall teacher job performance (r=0.433, p<0.05, 2-tailed). Again, the study indicated that general mood had a weak and statistically significant positive relationship with teachers' overall (r=0.144, p<0.05, 2-tailed) and the relationship between adaptability and teachers' overall job performance was weak, positive, and statistically significant (r=0.222, p<0.05, 2-tailed). The findings implied that the teachers' emotional intelligence related significantly to their job performance. Based on these results, it could be concluded that the assumption of linear correlation between the predictor and the outcome variables was satisfied and, therefore, not violated in this study.

Table 4.8: Model Summary for the Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Teachers' Job Performance

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std. Error of the Estimate	R^2 Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.626[a]	0.392	0.383	0.305	0.392	43.350	5	336	0.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), General Mood, Stress Management, Adaptability, Interpersonal Relationship, Intrapersonal Relationship
b. Dependent Variable: Overall Teacher Job Performance

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

The multiple regression results in Table 4.8 reveal that indicators of emotional intelligence such as general mood, stress management, adaptability, interpersonal relationship, and intrapersonal relationship, collectively contributed 39.2% of the

variance in the job performance of teachers. Besides, the ANOVA results in Table 4.9 indicate that that this was statistically significant [F (5, 336) =43.350, p<0.05]. This result implied that other factors not included in this study were responsible for 60.8% influence on teachers' job performance. It is inferred from this result that generally the indicators of emotional intelligence were good predictors of job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

Table 4.9: ANOVA Results for Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Teachers' Job Performance

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20.121	5	4.024	43.350	0.000[b]
	Residual	31.191	336	0.093		
	Total	51.312	341			

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

Scrutiny of the collinearity statistics in Table 4.10 confirmed that the assumption of multicollinearity which is critical to use of multiple regression was not violated. The multiple regression results are displayed in Table 4.9. Additionally, I examined the relative influence of contribution of each of the indicators of Social Studies teachers' emotional intelligence, and the results are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Standardized and Unstandardized Coefficients for Indicators of Emotional Intelligence

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.154	0.168		12.843	0.000		
	Interpersonal Relationship	0.184	0.056	0.252	3.292	0.001	0.308	3.250
	Intrapersonal Relationship	0.128	0.038	0.132	3.321	0.002	0.934	1.171
	Stress Management	0.136	0.039	0.236	3.466	0.001	0.390	2.567
	General Mood	-0.067	0.035	-0.131	-1.894	0.039	0.381	2.626
	Adaptability	-0.002	0.045	-0.003	-0.047	0.963	0.343	2.912

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

The results in Table 4.10 show that four out of the five indicators, interpersonal relationship (β=0.252, t=3.292, $p<0.05$), Intrapersonal relationship (β=0.132, t=3.321, $p<0.05$), and stress management (β=0.236, t=3.466, $p<0.05$) and general mood (β=-0.131, t=1894, $p<0.05$) individually contributed significantly to the job performance of teachers while the contribution of adaptability was not significant (β=-0.003, t=-0.047, $p>0.05$). In order of magnitude, it was revealed that interpersonal relationship and stress management contributed most to the job performance of teachers, followed by intrapersonal relationship, and general mood. Based on these findings, it was concluded that interpersonal relationship, stress management, intrapersonal relationship, and general mood were the major predictors that influenced job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

Research Question 6: What is the mediation role of emotional intelligence in the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana?

This research question sought to examine the role as well as test the extent to which emotional intelligence mediate the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. In this research question, self-efficacy beliefs was the independent variable, emotional intelligence was conceived as the mediator variable and job performance was used as a dependent variable as indicated in the conceptual framework guiding the study. In answering this research question, mediation analysis in structural equation modelling was carried out with the aid of IBM SPSS and AMOS version 28.0, and the results are presented with the aid of the path diagram in figures as well as Table 4.17. Firstly, scholars such as Byrne (2016) have argued that mediation analysis begins with the development of a measurement model. Accordingly, a measurement model depicting the relationship among the variables is captured in Figure 4.1

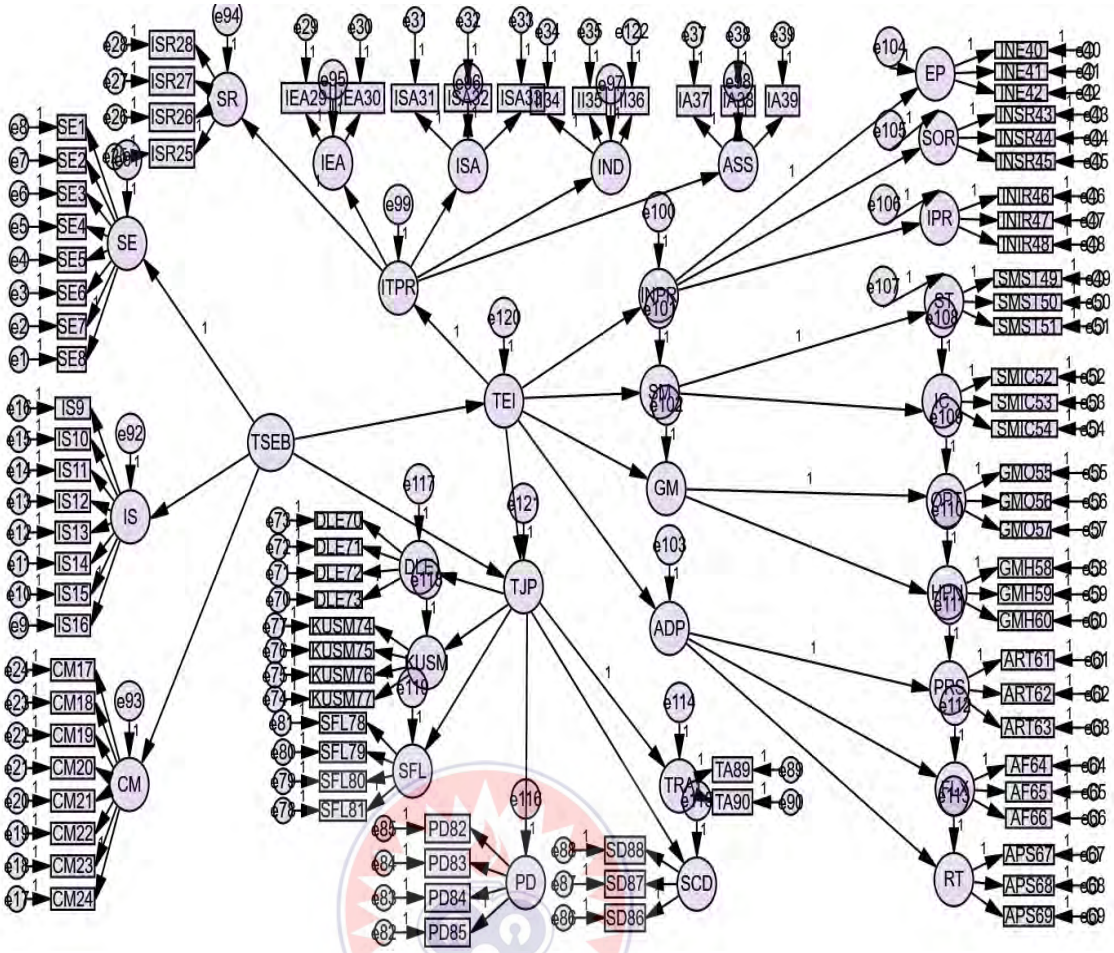

Figure 4.1: Measurement Model (Model before Modification)

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

Note: TSEB (Teacher Self-efficacy Beliefs); TEI (Teacher Emotional Intelligence); TJP (Teacher Job Performance); SE (Student Engagement); IS (Instructional Strategy) ; CM (Classroom Management); INTRA (Intrapersonal Relationship); INTR (Interper sonal Relationship); SM (Stress Management); GM (General Mood); ADP (Adaptabi lity); DLE (Designing Learning Experiences); KUSM(Knowledge and Understanding of Subject Matter); SFL(Strategies for Facilitating Learning); PD(Professional Development); SD(School Development; TA(Teacher Attendance).

The corresponding model fit indices of the measurement model prior to its modification are presented in Table 4.12. The assessment of goodness of model fit values was based on the suggestion by Bayram (2013) as indicated in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Range of Acceptable Fit Indices

Fit Indices	Goodness of Fit
CMIN/DF	0 <CMIN/DF< 2
CFI	0,97 < CFI < 1
AGFI	0,90 < AGFI < 1
GFI	0,95 < GFI < 1
NFI	0,95 <NFI< 1
RMSEA	0,00 < RMSEA < 0,08

Source: Bayram (2013)

Note: GFI (Goodness of Fit Index); AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index); RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation); NFI (Normed Fit Index); CFI (Comparative Fit Index); IFI (Incremental Fit Index); RFI (Relative Fit Index). The results of assessment of model fit indicators are is contained in Table 4.12

Table 4.12: Model Fit Indices of the Measurement Model

	Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
CMIN	Default model	212	10586.908	3883	0.000	**2.726**
	Saturated model	4095	0.000	0		
	Independence model	90	16822.497	4005	0.000	4.200
RMR, GFI	Model	RMR	**GFI**	**AGFI**	PGFI	
	Default model	0.107	**0.586**	**0.564**	0.556	
	Saturated model	0.000	1.000			
	Independence model	0.161	0.250	0.233	0.245	
BASELINE COMPARISONS	Model	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	**CFI**
		Delta1	rho1	Delta2	rho2	
	Default model	0.371	0.351	0.482	0.461	**0.477**
	Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
	Independence model	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
PARSIMONY-ADJUSTED MEASURES	Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI		
	Default model	0.97	**0.359**	**0.462**		
	Saturated model	0.000	0.000	0.000		
	Independence model	1.000	0.000	0.000		
RMSEA	Model	**RMSEA**	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
	Default model	**0.071**	0.07	0.073	0.000	
	Independence model	0.097	0.095	0.098	0.000	

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

Note: CMIN/DF (Minimum Discrepancy Function by Degrees of Freedom divided); RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation Index); GFI:(Goodness of Fit) DF (Degree of Freedom)

In comparison of the model fit indices results in Table 4.12 to the criteria put-out by Bayram (2013) as shown in Table 4.11, it could be realised that it was only χ^2/df and

RMSEA that showed good fit. As recommended by Bayram (2013), assessment of model fit indices was based on Chi-square, relative/normed chi-square (χ^2/df), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) as basis of checking for acceptable model fit indices in mediation analysis using structural equation modelling. As a result, modification was done to the model in line with the suggestion by McNeish An and Hancock (2018) who recommended either covarying or removal of indicators with high modification indices and the results in Table 4.13 show the modification indices and the actions taken. It was noticed that the paths with the high modification indices were errors associated with endogenous variables, hence they needed to be retained in the model. To mitigate the effects of these high modification indices in the model, therefore, these errors were covaried.

Table 4.13: Modification Indices and Action Taken

			M.I.	Par Change	Action taken
e110	<-->	e103	123.957	1.258	Covaried
e56	<-->	e103	73.131	0.903	Covaried
e56	<-->	e110	70.346	1.054	Covaried
e58	<-->	e103	51.41	0.695	Covaried
e82	<-->	e115	43.172	0.209	Covaried
e60	<-->	e109	42.854	0.391	Covaried
e60	<-->	e102	42.74	0.395	Covaried
e51	<-->	e56	39.657	0.638	
e113	<-->	e120	39.538	0.012	
e51	<-->	e103	37.657	0.559	
e25	<-->	e103	37.315	0.635	
e33	<-->	e34	36.577	0.222	
e1	<-->	e103	36.134	0.418	
e25	<-->	e56	34.792	0.683	
e110	<-->	e111	34.75	0.522	
e25	<-->	e110	34.605	0.728	
e51	<-->	e110	33.784	0.63	
e113	<-->	TSEB	33.081	0.108	
e25	<-->	e33	30.506	0.366	
e66	<-->	e102	30.174	-0.335	
e1	<-->	e110	29.657	0.45	
e65	<-->	e109	29.361	0.304	
e15	<-->	e16	29.249	0.141	
e65	<-->	e102	29.056	0.306	
e62	<-->	e66	28.682	-0.382	
e45	<-->	e46	28.059	0.107	
e56	<-->	e58	28.01	0.571	
e59	<-->	e103	27.807	0.509	
e66	<-->	e109	27.699	-0.317	
e82	<-->	e87	27.111	0.166	
e2	<-->	e11	26.889	0.138	
e5	<-->	e22	26.791	0.125	
e40	<-->	e45	26.582	-0.127	
e21	<-->	e79	25.846	0.105	
e62	<-->	e113	25.817	0.181	
e27	<-->	e101	25.523	0.109	
e60	<-->	e62	25.303	0.357	
e88	<-->	e114	24.652	0.095	

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

The modified model is presented in Figure 4.2 whereas the modified model fit indices after modification are shown in Table 4.13.

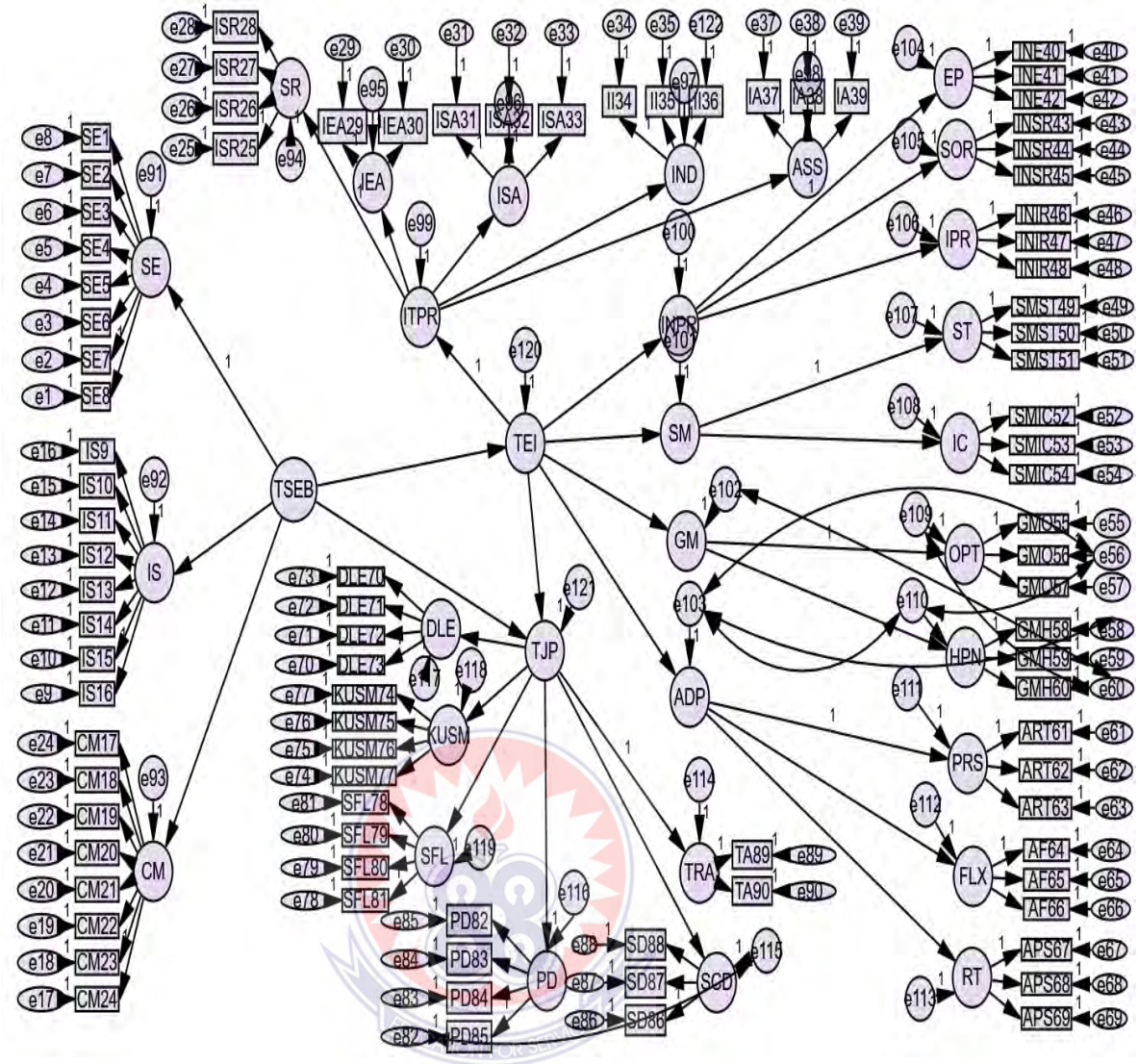

Figure 4.2: Modified Model

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

Note: TSEB (Teacher Self-efficacy Beliefs); TEI (Teacher Emotional Intelligence); TJP(Teacher Job Performance); SE (Student Engagement); IS (Instructional Strategy); CM (Classroom Management); INTRA (Intrapersonal Relationship); INTR (Interpers onal Relationship); SM(Stress Management); GM (General Mood); ADP (Adaptabilit y); DLE (Designing Learnin-g Experiences); KUSM(Knowledge and Understanding of Subject Matter); SFL(Strategies for Facilitating Learning); PD(Professional Development); SD(School Development; TA(Teacher Attendance)

As indicated in Figure 4.2, the arrows linking the items such as e103 and e56; e103 and e110, e103 and e56; e82, and e115 show the covariation that was done None was removed. The model fit indices after modification are captured in Table 4.14

Table 4.14: Model Fit Indices After Modification

	Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
CMIN	Default model	219	7399.168	3876	0.000	**1.90897**
	Saturated model	4095	0.000	0		
	Independence model	90	16822.497	4005	0.000	4.200
	Model	RMR	**GFI**	**AGFI**	PGFI	
RMR, GFI	Default model	0.087	**0.961**	**0.932**	0.575	
	Saturated model	0.000	1.000			
	Independence model	0.161	0.25	0.233	0.245	
	Model	NFI	RFI	IFI	TLI	**CFI**
Baseline Comparisons		Delta1	rho1	Delta2	rho2	
	Default model	0.910	0.980	0.920	0.999	**0.981**
	Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
	Independence model	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI		
Parsimony-Adjusted Measure	Default model	0.968	0.988	0.999		
	Saturated model	0.000	0.000	0.000		
	Independence model	1.000	0.000	0.000		
	Model	**RMSEA**	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE	
RMSEA	Default model	**0.069**	0.067	0.07	0.000	
	Independence model	0.097	0.095	0.098	0.000	

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

Note: CMIN/DF (Minimum Discrepancy Function by Degrees of Freedom divided); RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation Index); GFI:(Goodness of Fit) DF (Degree of Freedom)

A comparison of the model fit indices in the modified model with the corresponding cut-off values as presented in Table 4.14 disclosed that there was a good fit of the model, hence, the study proceeded to carry out the mediation analysis. In this study, self-efficacy was the causal variable, emotional intelligence was conceived as the mediator while teacher job performance was conceptualized as the outcome or the dependent variable. The results of the mediation analysis are presented in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Mediation Analysis Results of the Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Effect of Self-efficacy Beliefs and Job Performance

Path	Standardized estimates	P-value	Results
Total effect	0.967	0.008	Significant
Direct effect	0.539	0.012	Significant
Indirect effect	0.427	0.049	Significant

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

The findings of the mediation analysis in Table 4.15 show that, there was a positive and statistically significant total effect of self-efficacy beliefs on teacher job performance (β=0.967, p=0.008). Additionally, the results from the mediation analysis further show that the direct effect of self-efficacy beliefs, after controlling for the presence of the mediator (emotional intelligence), on teacher job performance was positive and statistically significant (β=0.539, p=0.012). Furthermore, it was realized that the indirect effect of self-efficacy beliefs through the mediator (emotional intelligence) on teacher job performance was positive and statistically significant (β=0.427, p=0.049). In line with the foregoing findings, this study concludes that there was a partial and positive significant mediation in the role of teachers' emotional intelligence in the causal effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

4.4 Test of Hypotheses

The study tested the following hypotheses:

H_{O1}: Senior High School Social Studies teachers' personal characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience will not statistically significantly account for differences in their self-efficacy beliefs in the Central Region of Ghana.

H_1: Senior High School Social Studies teachers' personal characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience will statistically significantly account for differences in their self-efficacy beliefs in the Central Region of Ghana.

4.4.1 Gender and Self-efficacy Beliefs

The purpose of this hypothesis was to investigate if statistically significant differences exist in the self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers with respect to their personal characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience) in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. Reviewing Table F1, (See Appendix F) has disclosed that the homogeneity of variance assumption for their efficacy beliefs in student engagement ($F=1.779$, $p>0.05$), instructional strategy ($F=5.247$, $p>0.05$), classroom management ($F=0.836$, $p>0.05$), and their overall ($F=1.505$, $p>0.05$) self-efficacy beliefs were not violated. To test for the statistically significant differences in teachers' sex and their self-efficacy beliefs, an independent samples t-test was used and the results are presented in Table 16.

Table 4.16: Independent Samples T-test Results for Male and Female Teachers on their Self-Efficacy Beliefs

Variables	Sex	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Students Engagement	Male	4.17	0.39	1.568	340	0.118
	Female	4.10	0.44			
Instructional Strategy	Male	4.25	0.45	2.303	340	0.022
	Female	4.12	0.53			
Classroom Management	Male	4.25	0.45	0.868	340	0.386
	Female	4.20	0.49			
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	Male	4.22	0.37	1.848	340	0.036
	Female	4.14	0.42			

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

The independent samples t-test results in Table 4.16 show that there was no statistically significant difference in the mean scores for male and female Social Studies teachers in relation to their efficacy beliefs in students' engagement [t (340) = 1.568, p>0.05, 2-tailed] as well as their efficacy beliefs in classroom management [t (340) = 1.568, p>0.05, 2-tailed]. However, the results indicate that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores for male and female Social Studies teachers concerning their efficacy beliefs in instructional strategy [t (340) = 1.568, p<0.05, 2-tailed] where the male Social Studies teachers performed better (M=4.17, SD=0.39) than the female Social Studies teachers (M=4.10, SD=0.44).

Similarly, the results disclosed that the mean scores for male Social Studies teachers (M=4.22, SD=0.37) and female (M=4.14, SD=0.42) Social Studies teachers differ significantly on their overall self-efficacy beliefs [t (340) = 1.848, p<0.05, 2-tailed] which implied that the male Social Studies teachers did better in overall self-efficacy beliefs; this implied that the male Social Studies teachers generally performed better than their female Social Studies teacher counterparts. Based on these results, the study concludes that the gender of the Social Studies teachers is crucial in determining their efficacy beliefs in their instructional strategy as well as the overall self-efficacy beliefs. However, the results further disclose that gender did not matter in the discussion of their self-efficacy beliefs in classroom management and student engagement among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. Hence, the null hypothesis that "There is no statistically significant difference between male and female Social Studies teachers on their self-efficacy beliefs in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana" is rejected while the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

4.4.2 Age and Self-efficacy Beliefs

This hypothesis sought to test the influence of Social Studies teachers age on their self-efficacy beliefs. In testing this hypothesis, the one-way between groups ANOVA was employed. Review of the results in Table F2 (See Appendix F) confirms that the assumption for Levene's statistic on homogeneity of variance was satisfied for student engagement ($F=1.605$, $p>0.05$), instructional strategy ($F=3.173$, $p>0.05$), classroom management ($F=4.978$, $p>0.05$) as well as the overall self-efficacy beliefs ($F=7.695$, $p>0.05$). One-way between groups ANOVA was conducted to ascertain whether the differences in the means were statistically significant, and the results are shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Descriptive Statistics for One-way Between Groups ANOVA Results for Age and Self-efficacy Beliefs

Variables	Years in Range	Mean	Std. Dev.
Students Engagement	20-29 Yrs.	4.07	0.35
	30-39 Yrs.	4.20	0.40
	40-49 Yrs.	4.10	0.46
	50+ Yrs.	4.31	0.41
	Total	4.15	0.41
Instructional Strategy	20-29 Yrs.	4.12	0.42
	30-39 Yrs.	4.30	0.42
	40-49 Yrs.	4.14	0.61
	50+ Yrs.	4.26	0.46
	Total	4.21	0.48
Classroom Management	20-29 Yrs.	4.14	0.42
	30-39 Yrs.	4.33	0.41
	40-49 Yrs.	4.16	0.54
	50+ Yrs.	4.27	0.57
	Total	4.24	0.46
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	20-29 Yrs.	4.11	0.33
	30-39 Yrs.	4.28	0.34
	40-49 Yrs.	4.13	0.48
	50+ Yrs.	4.28	0.44
	Total	4.20	0.39

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

It could be observed from Table 4.17 that teachers who were 50 years and above rated highest on their efficacy on student engagement ($M=4.31$, $SD=0.41$) than their

counterparts who had between 30-39 years (M=4.20, SD=0.40), 40-49 years (M=4.10, SD=0.46) and 40-49 years (M=4.07, SD=0.35). For teachers' efficacy in instructional strategy, Social Studies teachers who were 30-39 years' recorded greatest mean (M=4.30, SD=0.42) than those who fell between 50 years and above (M=4.26, SD=0.46), 40-49 years (M=4.14, SD=0.616), and 20-29 years (M=4.12, SD=0.42). Social Studies teachers who fell between 30-39 years' by age recorded the highest mean (M=4.33, SD=0.41) than colleagues who were 50years and above (M=4.27, SD=0.57), 40-49 (M=4.16, SD=0.54), and 20-29 years (M=4.14, SD=0.42) on their efficacy in classroom management. The information also reveal that Social Studies teachers who were between the age bracket of 30-39 years (M=4.28, SD=0.34), and 50 years and above (M=4.28, SD=0.44), recorded highest mean than those where fell between 40-49 years (M=4.13, SD=0.48) and 20-29 years (M=4.11, SD=0.33) in reference to the overall teachers' efficacy beliefs. The results for one way between groups ANOVA is presented in Table 18.

Table 4.18: One-way Between Groups ANOVA Results for Age and Self-efficacy Beliefs

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Student Engagement	Between Groups	1.873	3	0.624	3.854	0.010
	Within Groups	54.752	338	0.162		
	Total	**56.625**	**341**			
Instructional Strategy	Between Groups	2.328	3	0.776	3.460	0.017
	Within Groups	75.802	338	0.224		
	Total	**78.130**	**341**			
Classroom Management	Between Groups	2.671	3	0.890	4.282	0.006
	Within Groups	70.275	338	0.208		
	Total	**72.946**	**341**			
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	Between Groups	2.168	3	0.723	5.008	0.002
	Within Groups	48.777	338	0.144		
	Total	**50.945**	**341**			

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

The one way between groups ANOVA results in Table 4.18 revealed that discovered there was a statistically significant differences in the self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers in relation to student engagement [F (3, 338) = 3.854, $p<0.05$], instructional strategy [F (3, 338) = 3.460, $p<0.05$], classroom management [F (3, 338) = 4.282, $p<0.05$], as well as the overall self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers [F (3, 338) = 4.282, $p<0.05$] due to age. Thus, the results suggested that age is a critical determinant of Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in relation to student engagement, instructional strategy as well as classroom management in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. Therefore, the null hypothesis that "Age will not significantly affect Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana" was rejected while the alternative hypothesis was accepted.

4.4.3 Academic Qualification and Self-efficacy Beliefs

This hypothesis sought to test if the self-efficacy beliefs of the Social Studies teachers would differ significantly due to their academic qualification. In this study, the academic qualification of teachers were identified as bachelor's degree, masters and PhD. However, it was revealed after data collection that only teachers with bachelor's degree and masters were involved in the study. Scrutiny of the results in Table F3, (See Appendix F) has disclosed that the homogeneity of variance assumption for their efficacy beliefs in student engagement ($F=3.799$, $p>0.05$), instructional strategy ($F=10.560$, $p>0.05$), classroom management ($F=0.004$, $p>0.05$), as well the overall self-efficacy ($F=6.078$, $p>0.05$) were not violated. As such, to test for the statistically significant differences in teachers' academic qualification and their self-

efficacy beliefs, an independent samples t-test was employed, and the results are presented in Table 4.19

Table 4.19: Independent Samples T-test Results for Academic Qualification of Teachers and Self-efficacy Beliefs

Levels of Self-efficacy Beliefs	Academic Qualification	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Students Engagement	Bachelor's Degree	4.15	0.38	0.452	340	0.651
	Masters	4.13	0.46			
Instructional Strategy	Bachelor's Degree	4.24	0.43	1.724	340	0.090
	Masters	4.14	0.57			
Classroom Management	Bachelor's Degree	4.24	0.45	0.123	340	0.900
	Masters	4.23	0.48			
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	Bachelor's Degree	4.21	0.36	0.918	340	0.360
	Masters	4.17	0.45			

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

Data in Table 4.19 show that Social Studies teachers with bachelor's degree better engaged students (M=4.15, SD=0.38) than their counterpart who were masters' holders (M=4.13, SD=0.46). Regarding instructional strategy, Social Studies with bachelor's performed higher (M=4.24, SD=0.43) than their colleagues who had master's degree (M=4.14, SD=0.57). Similarly, Social Studies teachers with bachelor's degree scored higher on classroom management (M=4.24, SD=4.23) than their counterpart with master's degree (M=4.23, SD=0.48) whereas Social Studies teachers who were bachelor's degree holders rated higher on the overall self-efficacy beliefs (M=4.21, SD=0.36) than their counterpart with master's degree (M=4.17, SD=0.45).

Test of significance using independent samples t-test generated results as presented in Table 4.22 reveal that there is no statistically significant difference in the means for efficacy in students engagements [t (340)=0.452, p=0.651, 2-tailed], instructional strategy [t (340)= 1.724, p=0.090, 2-tailed], classroom management [t (340)= 0.123, p=0.900, 2-tailed], and the overall self-efficacy beliefs [t (340)= 0.918, p=0.360, 2-

tailed] at 0.05 alpha level due to academic qualification. It could be deduced from these results that academic qualification did not statistically significantly determine the self-efficacy of Social Studies teachers in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Regional of Ghana.

4.4.4 Years of Teaching Experience and Self-Efficacy Beliefs

In this hypothesis, I sought to test if the years of teaching experience could account for a statistically significant differences in the self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. Before the analysis, the Levene's statistic on homogeneity of variance which is a crucial assumption underlying the use of one-way between group ANOVA was checked to ensure the data collected does not violate this principle and the data in Table F4 (See Appendix F) confirmed that this assumption was not violated for student engagement ($F=4.213$, $p>0.05$), instructional strategy ($F=2.212$, $p>0.05$), classroom management ($F=3.716$, $p>0.05$) as well as the overall self-efficacy beliefs ($F=5.541$, $p>0.05$). The differences in the means of teachers in terms of years of teaching experience and self-efficacy beliefs was checked and the results have been presented in Table 4.20.

Table 4.20: Descriptive Statistics for One-way Between Groups ANOVA Results for Age and Self-efficacy Beliefs

Sub-Scales of Self-efficacy	Years	Mean	Std. Dev.
Students Engagement	1-5 Years	4.14	0.36
	6-10 Years	4.13	0.41
	10+Years	4.17	0.44
	Total	4.15	0.41
Instructional Strategy	1-5 Years	4.23	0.41
	6-10 Years	4.08	0.55
	10+Years	4.30	0.45
	Total	4.21	0.48
Classroom Management	1-5 Years	4.23	0.38
	6-10 Years	4.12	0.50
	10+Years	4.33	0.48
	Total	4.24	0.46
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	1-5 Years	4.20	0.32
	6-10 Years	4.11	0.43
	10+Years	4.27	0.39
	Total	4.20	0.39

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

It could be seen in Table 4.20 those teachers with 10years and above scored higher mean (M=4.17, SD=0.41) than those between 1-5years (M=4.14, SD=0.36) and teachers with between 6-10years on student engagement. In relation to instructional strategy, teachers who had 10years and above recorded higher mean (M=4.30, SD=0.45) than their counterparts who had spent between 1-5years (M=4.23, SD=0.41), and 6-10years (M=4.08, SD=0.55). Furthermore, teachers who have spent 10years and above recorded highest mean (M=4.33, SD=0.48), compared to their counterparts who have spent between 1-5years (M=4.23, SD=0.38), and those between 6-10years (M=4.12, SD=0.50), whilst teachers who possess 10years and above experience ranked higher (M=4.27, SD=0.39) than those between 1-5years experience (M=4.20, SD=0.32), and 6-10 years of experience (M=4.11, SD=0.43), on the overall self-efficacy beliefs. The one way between group ANOVA results on whether statistically significant difference existed have been presented in the Table 4.21

Table 4.21: One-way Between Groups ANOVA Results for Years of Experience and Self-efficacy Beliefs

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Student Engagement	Between Groups	0.124	2	0.062	0.372	0.690
	Within Groups	56.501	339	0.167		
	Total	56.625	341			
Instructional Strategy	Between Groups	2.735	2	1.367	6.148	0.002
	Within Groups	75.396	339	0.222		
	Total	78.130	341			
Classroom Management	Between Groups	2.610	2	1.305	6.289	0.002
	Within Groups	70.336	339	0.207		
	Total	72.946	341			
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	Between Groups	1.432	2	0.716	4.901	0.008
	Within Groups	49.513	339	0.146		
	Total	50.945	341			

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

The ANOVA results in Table 4.21 reveal that except student engagement where no statistically significant difference existed [F (2, 339) = 0.372, p>0.05], the study discovered statistically significant differences in relation to instructional strategy [F (2, 339) =6.148, p<0.05], classroom management [F (2, 339) = 6.289, p<0.05], as well as the overall self-efficacy beliefs [F (2, 339) = 4.901, p<0.05] due to teachers' years of teaching experience. Thus, the results suggested that Social Studies teachers' years of teaching experience is a critical determinant of their self-efficacy beliefs in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. A post hoc analysis using Tukey HSD test as further multiple comparison in Table G2 (See Appendix G) revealed that the significant differences occurred in efficacy in instructional strategy, classroom management as well as the overall self-efficacy beliefs where there was significant pair-wise group difference between teachers who had spent between 6-10years and 10+years where mean score for teachers between10+years was significantly higher (M=4.30, SD=0.45) than their counterparts who had spent 6-10years (M=4.08, SD=0.55), while those within 1-5years did not reach statistical significance. Therefore, the null

hypothesis that "years of teaching experience will not significantly affect Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana" was rejected while the alternative hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis Two

$H_{O2:}$ Senior High School Social Studies teachers' personal characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience will not statistically significantly account for differences in their emotional intelligence in the Central Region of Ghana.

$H_{2:}$ Senior High School Social Studies teachers' personal characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience will statistically significantly account for differences in their emotional intelligence in the Central Region of Ghana.

4.4.5 Gender and Emotional Intelligence

To investigate how gender influenced the views of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High School in the Central Region, the independent samples t-test was used and the descriptive information and results from the independent samples-test have been presented in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Independent Samples T-test Results for Gender and Emotional Intelligence

Indicators of Emotional Intelligence	Sex	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Interpersonal Relationship	Male	4.34	0.53	0.527	340	0.599
	Female	4.31	0.53			
Intrapersonal Relationship	Male	4.09	0.48	0.557	340	0.578
	Female	4.06	0.45			
Stress Management	Male	3.95	0.66	2.015	340	0.045
	Female	3.79	0.69			
General Mood	Male	3.27	0.76	-1.435	340	0.152
	Female	3.40	0.76			
Adaptability	Male	3.76	0.64	-1.235	340	0.218
	Female	3.85	0.58			
Overall Emotional Intelligence	Male	3.95	0.42	0.108	340	0.914
	Female	3.94	0.40			

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

The results in Table 4.22 have unveiled that male teachers recorded higher than their female counterparts in most of the indicators of emotional intelligence. Indeed, male Social Studies teachers recorded higher (M=4.34, SD=0.53) than their female counterparts (M=4.31, SD=0.53) on interpersonal relationship; male Social Studies teachers scored higher (M=4.09, SD=0.48) than their female colleagues (M=4.06, SD=0.45) on intrapersonal relationship; male Social Studies teachers rated higher (M=3.95, SD=0.66) than their female counterpart (M=3.79, SD=0.69) on stress management; and females Social Studies teachers scored higher (M=3.40, SD=0.76) than their male colleagues on (M=3.40, SD=0.76) on general mode. Furthermore, it could also be seen that female Social Studies teachers scored higher (M=3.85, SD=0.58) than their male colleagues (M=3.76, SD=0.64) on adaptability. On the overall emotional intelligence, male Social Studies teachers slightly rated themselves higher (M=3.95, SD=0.42) than their female colleagues (M=3.94, SD=0.40).

An independent samples t-test was employed to check if the differences in the means were statistically significant, as shown in Table 4.22, but first, review of Table F5 (See Appendix F) show that levene's test for equality of variances which is a crucial assumption underlying the use of independent samples t-test was satisfied for interpersonal relationship (F=0.232, p>0.05), intrapersonal relationship (F=0.003, p>0.05), stress management (F=0.223, p>0.05), general mood (F=0.083, p>0.05), adaptability (F=0.961, p>0.05), and the overall emotional intelligence (F=0.006, p>0.05). Besides, the independent samples t-test results as presented in Table 4.22 reveal that except for stress management where differences in the means was statistically significant [t (340) =2.015, p=0.045, 2-tailed], there were no statistically significant differences in the means for interpersonal relationship [t (340) =0.527, p=0.599, 2-tailed], intrapersonal relationship [t (340) =0.577, p=0.578, 2-tailed], general mood [t (340) =-1.435, p=0.152, 2-tailed], adaptability [t (340) =-1.235, p=0.218, 2-tailed], and the overall emotional intelligence [t (340) =0.108, p=0.914, 2-tailed] at 0.05 alpha level due to gender. It could be inferred from the results that gender did not significantly affect Social Studies teachers in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. The results suggest that the male and female Social Studies teachers hold similar views on the level of their emotional intelligence. Hence, the null hypothesis that Senior High School Social Studies teachers' gender will not statistically significantly account for differences in their emotional intelligence in the Central Region of Ghana was supported and the alternate hypothesis was not supported.

4.4.6 Age and Emotional Intelligence

The study examined the influence that age had on the perception of Social Studies teachers on their emotional intelligence, but first a discussion of the differences in means for the various indicators of emotional intelligence is presented in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23: Mean, Standard Deviation and ANOVA Results for Age and Emotional Intelligence

Indicators of Emotional Intelligence	Years in Range	Mean	Std. Dev
Interpersonal Relationship	20-29 Years	4.20	0.522
	30-39 Years	4.41	0.511
	40-49 Years	4.31	0.572
	50+Years	4.37	0.476
	Total	**4.33**	**0.531**
Intrapersonal Relationship	20-29 Years	4.27	0.662
	30-39 Years	4.40	0.623
	40-49 Years	4.30	0.734
	50+Years	4.24	0.414
	Total	**4.33**	**0.651**
Stress Management	20-29 Years	3.77	0.662
	30-39 Years	4.00	0.632
	40-49 Years	3.86	0.695
	50+Years	3.92	0.856
	Total	**3.90**	**0.675**
General Mood	20-29 Years	3.26	0.711
	30-39 Years	3.41	0.822
	40-49 Years	3.10	0.650
	50+Years	3.61	0.716
	Total	**3.31**	**0.759**
Adaptability	20-29 Years	3.70	0.614
	30-39 Years	3.86	0.650
	40-49 Years	3.75	0.562
	50+Years	3.86	0.666
	Total	**3.79**	**0.623**
Overall Emotional Intelligence	20-29 Years	3.85	0.420
	30-39 Years	4.02	0.433
	40-49 Years	3.91	0.310
	50+Years	4.00	0.476
	Total	**3.95**	**0.412**

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

It could be observed from Table 4.23 that Social Studies teachers who were between the age of 30-39years recorded highest mean (M=4.41, SD=0.51) than those who were

50+years (M=4.37, SD=0.47), 40-49years (M=4.31, SD=0.57), and 20-29years (M=4.20, SD=0.52) for interpersonal relationship whilst those between 30-39years rated greatest (M=4.40, SD=0.63) than those within 40-49years (M=4.30, SD=0.73), 20-29years (M=4.27, SD=0.0.62), and 50+years (M=4.24, SD=0.41) for intrapersonal relationship. The results indicated that those within the age bracket of 30-39years scored highest mean (M=4.00, SD=0.69) than those within 50+years (M=3.90, SD=0.85), 40-49years (M=3.86, SD=0.69) and 20-29years (M=3.77, SD=0.66), for stress management. On general mood, Social Studies teachers who were 50+years rated highest (M=3.61, SD=0.71), than those who were between 30-39years (M=3.41, SD=0.82), 20-29years (M=3.26, SD=0.71) and 40-49years (M=3.10, SD=0.65). Similarly, teachers within the age bracket of 51+years rated greatest (M=3.86, SD=0.66) than those within 30-39years (M=3.86, SD=0.65), 40-45years (M=3.75, SD=0.56) and 20-29years (M=3.70, SD=0.61) for adaptability, while Social Studies teachers within the age bracket of 30-39years rated highest (M=4.02, SD=0.43), than those who are 50+years (M=4.00, SD=0.47), 40-49years (M=3.91, SD=0.31), and 20-29years (M=3.85, SD=0.42) for the overall emotional intelligence.

The Levene's test was conducted to verify whether the homogeneity assumption was fulfilled, and the results in Appendix F8 (See Appendix F) have proven that this assumption was not violated for interpersonal relationship (F=0.232, p>0.05), intrapersonal relationship (F=0.003, p>0.05), general mood (F=0.083, p>0.05), adaptability (F=0.961, p>0.05) as well as the overall emotional intelligence (F=0.006, p>0.05). A one-way ANOVA test was then carried out and the results in Table 4.23 have disclosed that apart from intrapersonal relationship [F(3, 338)= 1.105, p=0.347] and adaptability [F(3, 338)= 1.416, p=0.238], where there were no statistically significant differences in the means, there were statistically significant differences in

the means for interpersonal [F(3, 338)= 3087, p=0.027], stress management [F(3, 338)= 2.370, p=0.040], general mood [F(3, 338)= 4.257, p=0.006] as well as the overall emotional intelligence [F(3, 338)= 3.831, p=0.010] at 0.05 alpha level due to age.

However, post hoc analyses where the Tukey HSD test was used (Appendix G3) reveal that for interpersonal relationship, Social Studies teachers who were between 30-39years years' rated significantly higher (M=4.41, SD=0.51) than those who were 50+years (M=4.37, SD=0.47), 40-49years (M=4.31, SD=0.57) and 20-29years (M=4.20, SD=0.52). For stress management, Social Studies teachers who were between 30-39years recorded significantly higher (M=4.00, SD=0.63) than those who were 50+years (M=3.92, SD=0.85), 40-49 (M=3.86, SD=0.69), and 20-29years (M=3.77, SD=0.66) while in the case of general mood, Social Studies teachers who were 50+years recorded significantly higher (M=3.61, SD=0.71), than those between 30-39years (M=3.41, SD=0.82), 20-29 years (M=3.26, SD=0.0.71), and between 40-49years (M=3.10, SD=0.65). Finally, on the overall emotional intelligence, Social Studies teachers who were between 30-39 years recorded significantly higher (M=4.02, SD=0.43) than those who were 50+years (M=4.00, SD=0.47), 40-49 years (M=3.91, SD=0.0.31), and those between 20-29 years (M=3.85, SD=0.42). The results have suggested that age of Social Studies teachers did significantly influence the perception of the nature of their emotional intelligence.

Table 4.24: One-way Between Groups ANOVA Results for Age and Emotional Intelligence

Age and Emotional Intelligence		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Interpersonal Relationship	Between Groups	2.566	3	0.855	3.087	0.027
	Within Groups	93.675	338	0.277		
	Total	**96.242**	**341**			
Intrapersonal Relationship	Between Groups	1.404	3	0.468	1.105	0.347
	Within Groups	143.152	338	0.424		
	Total	**144.555**	**341**			
Stress Management	Between Groups	3.202	3	1.067	2.370	0.040
	Within Groups	152.240	338	0.450		
	Total	**155.442**	**341**			
General Mood	Between Groups	7.156	3	2.385	4.257	0.006
	Within Groups	189.383	338	0.560		
	Total	**196.539**	**341**			
Adaptability	Between Groups	1.642	3	0.547	1.416	0.238
	Within Groups	130.612	338	0.386		
	Total	**132.254**	**341**			
Overall Emotional Intelligence	Between Groups	1.907	3	0.636	3.831	0.010
	Within Groups	56.077	338	0.166		
	Total	**57.983**	**341**			

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

4.4.7 Academic Qualification and Emotional Intelligence

To determine the extent to which academic qualification of Social Studies teachers influence their level of emotional intelligence, the descriptive statistics information using mean and standard deviation as well as independent samples t-test are presented in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25: T-test Results for Academic Qualification and Emotional Intelligence

Indicators of Emotional Intelligence	Academic Qualification	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Interpersonal Relationship	Bachelor's Degree	4.35	0.51	1.291	340	0.198
	Master's Degree	4.27	0.58			
Intrapersonal Relationship	Bachelor's Degree	4.08	0.48	0.263	340	0.793
	Master's Degree	4.07	0.44			
Stress Management	Bachelor's Degree	3.89	0.70	-0.473	340	0.637
	Master's Degree	3.93	0.61			
General Mood	Bachelor's Degree	3.36	0.78	1.828	340	0.068
	Master's Degree	3.19	0.70			
Adaptability	Bachelor's Degree	3.81	0.64	1.086	340	0.278
	Master's Degree	3.73	0.59			
Overall Emotional Intelligence	Bachelor's Degree	3.96	0.43	1.095	340	0.274
	Master's Degree	3.91	0.35			

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

Reviewing Table 4.25 has disclosed that for interpersonal relationship, Social Studies teachers with bachelor's degree recorded higher mean (M=4.35, SD=0.51) than their colleagues with master's degree (M=4.27, SD=0.58). Similarly, Social Studies teachers with bachelor's degree recorded higher mean (M=4.08, SD=0.48) than their counterparts with masters' degree (M=4.07, SD=0.44) for intrapersonal relationship, while master's holders recorded higher mean (M=3.93, SD=0.0.61) than those with bachelors' degree (M=3.89, SD=0.70) for stress management. Concerning on general mood, Social Studies teachers with bachelor's degree had higher mean (M=3.36, SD=0.78) than those with master's degree (M=3.19, SD=0.70) whereas bachelor's degree holders recorded greater mean (M=3.81, SD=0.64) than their colleagues who were master's degree holders (M=3.73, SD=0.59) in adaptability. Regarding their overall emotional intelligence, Social Studies teachers with bachelor's degree had higher mean (M=3.96, SD=0.43) than their counterparts who had masters' degree (M=3.91, SD=0.35).

An independent samples t-test was employed to ascertain if the differences in the means were statistically significant, and the results displayed in Table F5 (See Appendix F) reveal that the assumption of equality of variance for the dependent variables across groups were satisfied for interpersonal relationship (F=2.169, p>0.05), intrapersonal relationship (F=2.854, p>0.05), stress management (F=6.357, p>0.05), general mood (F=3.811, p>0.05), adaptability (F=3.076, p>0.05), and the overall emotional intelligence (F=3.086, p>0.05). The results of the independent samples t-test in Table 4.25 have reveals that the differences in the means for interpersonal relationship [t (340) =1.291, p=0.198, 2-tailed], intrapersonal relationship [t (340) =0.263, p=0.793, 2-tailed], stress management [t (340) =-0.473, p=0.637, 2-tailed], general mood [t (340) =1.828, p=0.068, 2-tailed], adaptability [t (340) =1.086, p=0.278, 2-tailed], as well as

the overall emotional intelligence [t (340) =1.095, p=0.274, 2-tailed], were statistically insignificant at 0.05 alpha level due to academic qualification. These results confirm that academic qualification does not influence the perception of Social Studies teachers on their level of emotional intelligence in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. Hence, the null hypothesis that stated Senior High School Social Studies teachers' academic qualification will not statistically significantly account for differences in their emotional intelligence in the Central Region of Ghana is supported and the alternate was not supported.

4.4.8 Years of Teaching Experience and Emotional Intelligence

The years of teaching of the Social Studies teachers were examined to determine how they affect their emotional intelligence, but, first the differences in the means relative to the various indicators of emotional intelligence was checked, and the results are presented in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26: Descriptive Statistics Results for Years of Teaching Experience and Emotional Intelligence

Indicators of Emotional Intelligence	Years of Experience	Mean	Std. Deviation
Interpersonal Relationship	1-5 Years	4.32	0.56
	6-10 Years	4.18	0.53
	10+Years	4.46	0.47
	Total	**4.33**	**0.53**
Intrapersonal Relationship	1-5 Years	4.02	0.55
	6-10 Years	4.02	0.43
	10+Years	4.18	0.42
	Total	**4.08**	**0.47**
Stress Management	1-5 Years	3.81	0.67
	6-10 Years	3.80	0.69
	10+Years	4.06	0.64
	Total	**3.90**	**0.68**
General Mood	1-5 Years	3.21	0.64
	6-10 Years	3.42	0.79
	10+Years	3.30	0.82
	Total	**3.31**	**0.76**
Adaptability	1-5 Years	3.75	0.58
	6-10 Years	3.78	0.66
	10+Years	3.83	0.63
	Total	**3.79**	**0.62**
Overall Emotional Intelligence	1-5 Years	3.89	0.44
	6-10 Years	3.90	0.39
	10+Years	4.04	0.40
	Total	**3.95**	**0.41**

Source: Fieldwork Data, (2022)

It could be observed from the results in Table 4.26 that Social Studies teachers who had spent 10years+ rated highest (M=4.46, SD=0.47) than those who were between 1-5years (M=4.32, SD=0.56), and those between 6-10years (M=4.18, SD=0.53) on interpersonal relationship. Regarding intrapersonal relationship, Social Studies teachers with 10+years of teaching experience ranked highest (M=4.18, SD=0.42) than those with between 6-10years (M=4.02, SD=0.43), and those with between 1-5years teaching experience (M=4.02, SD=0.55). The results have also indicated that Social Studies teachers with 10+years of teaching experience recorded highest mean (M=4.06, SD=0.64) than those with between 1-5years teaching experience (M=3.81, SD=0.67), and those between 6-10years of teaching experience (M=3.80, SD=0.69) in relation to

stress management. Concerning years of teaching experience and Social Studies teachers and general mood as an indicator of emotional intelligence revealed that those with between 6-10years experience recorded highest mean (M=3.42, SD=0.79) than those with 10+years (M=3.30, SD=0.82), and those with between 1-5years of experience (M=3.21, SD=0.64). The results further reveal that Social Studies teachers with 10+years rated highest (M=3.83, SD=0.63) than those who had between 6-10years (M=3.78, SD=0.66) and those with between 1-5years (M=3.75, SD=0.58) on adaptability while those with 10+years of teaching experience rated highest (M=4.04, SD=0.40) than those with between 6-10years (M=3.90, SD=0.39) and 1-5years (M=3.89, SD=0.44) respectively on the overall emotional intelligence. A one-way between groups ANOVA test was carried out and the results in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27: One-way Between Groups ANOVA Results for Years of Teaching Experience and Emotional Intelligence

Years of Experience and Emotional Intelligence		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Interpersonal Relationship	Between Groups	4.367	2	2.183	8.057	0.000
	Within Groups	91.875	339	0.271		
	Total	**96.242**	**341**			
Intrapersonal Relationship	Between Groups	1.944	2	0.972	4.452	0.012
	Within Groups	74.012	339	0.218		
	Total	**75.956**	**341**			
Stress Management	Between Groups	5.106	2	2.553	5.757	0.003
	Within Groups	150.336	339	0.443		
	Total	**155.442**	**341**			
General Mood	Between Groups	2.330	2	1.165	2.033	0.133
	Within Groups	194.209	339	0.573		
	Total	**196.539**	**341**			
Adaptability	Between Groups	.416	2	0.208	0.534	0.587
	Within Groups	131.839	339	0.389		
	Total	**132.254**	**341**			
Overall Emotional Intelligence	Between Groups	1.571	2	0.786	4.720	0.010
	Within Groups	56.412	339	0.166		
	Total	**57.983**	**341**			

Source: Fieldwork Data, 2022

A check for homogeneity of variances for the dependent variables across the groups using the Levene's test as shown in Appendix G 1 indicated that (Appendix G) this assumption was met for interpersonal relationship (F=2.511, p>0.05), intrapersonal relationship (F=3.426, p>0.05), stress management (F=1.033, p>0.05), general mood (F=6.178, p>0.05), adaptability (F=2.503, p>0.05), and the overall emotional intelligence (F=0.222, p>0.05).

The results in Table 4.27 discovered that with the exception of general mood [F(2, 339)=2.033, p=0.133], and adaptability [F(2, 339)=0.534, p=0.589], where there were no statistically significant differences in the means, there were statistically significant differences in the means for interpersonal relationship [F(2, 339)=8.057, p=0.000], intrapersonal relationship [F(2, 339)=4.452, p=0.012], stress management [F(2, 339)=5.757, p=0.003] as well as the overall emotional intelligence [F(2, 339)=4.720, p=0.010] at 0.05 alpha level due to years of teaching experience. Nevertheless, post hoc analyses where the Tukey HSD test was used (Appendix A8) revealed that for interpersonal relationship, Social Studies teachers who had 10+ years' experience rated significantly higher (M=4.46, SD=0.47) than those between 1-5 years (M=4.32, SD=0.56) and 6-10 years (M=4.18, SD=0.53). For intrapersonal relationship, Social Studies teachers who had 10+ years' experience recorded significantly higher (M=4.18, SD=0.42) than those between 6-5 years (M=4.02, SD=55) and 10+years (M=4.02, SD=0.3) while in the case of stress management, Social Studies teachers who had spent 10+years recorded significantly higher (M=2.85, SD=.15) than those who had spent 1-5years (M=3.81, SD=0.67) and between 6-10 years (M=3.80, SD=0.69). Based on these results, it could be concluded that years of teaching experience is a determinant in assessing the perception of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

4.5 Discussion of Findings

The first research question sought to investigate the level of teacher self-efficacy beliefs among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. The findings showed that generally, self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers was rated very high with a mean score of 4.20 and a standard deviation of 0.02. This implies that, the Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in Central Region of Ghana exhibited high level in terms of their ability to implement a range of activities and practices to trigger student learning.

The finding of this study concurs with findings of previous analytical studies conducted in Turnkey by Balci, et al. (2019), Qatar by Allouh et al., (2021), Hong Kong, China by Chao et al., (2017), and in Ghana by Nyantakyi et al., (2020) and Coffie and Doe (2019) where the researchers reported high levels of teacher self-efficacy beliefs. However, this finding contradicts findings by previous studies (Mathenjwa & Dlamini, 2020; Sokal et al., 2020; Robinia & Anderson, 2010) where low and moderate self-efficacy beliefs levels were found with teachers. Nevertheless, the high level of teacher self-efficacy beliefs discovered in this study show that the Social Studies teachers were confident in themselves, having the belief that they are capable of causing change in the students through their classroom practices and engagements. As noted by Hussain et al., (2022), for teachers to complete their objectives, tasks, and how they address educational problems, high self-efficacy beliefs is essential. Hence, it could be said that teachers with low self-efficacy avoid difficult tasks, view creative tasks and situations as difficult to complete, interpret most things negatively, and lose faith in their abilities whereas teachers with high self-efficacy welcome difficult tasks as opportunities to master them, develop a deeper interest in their work, cultivate strong commitments, and recover quickly from setbacks.

It is also worthy to note that, even though the aforementioned studies (Balci, et al. 2019; Allouh et al., 2021, Chao et al., 2017; Nyantakyi et al., 2020) carried out their respective studies at different levels of the educational setting, they adopted and utilised Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2007) model of teacher self-efficacy thereby confirming it applicability at any level of education. Therefore, I theorize in this study that Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2007) model can be adopted in assessing the level of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs irrespective of the educational ladder teachers find themselves. Hence, I extrapolate that Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) teacher self-efficacy model or framework assumes applicability in assessing Social Studies teachers involved in this study. In terms of the three dimensions of teacher self-efficacy beliefs, this study revealed that classroom management was rated highest among the Social Studies teachers (M=4.24, SD=0.03), followed by instructional strategy (M=4.21, SD=0.03), and student engagement (M=4.15, SD=0.02) respectively. These findings are consistent with the findings of previous studies carried out in countries like Eswatini (Mathenjwa & Dlamini, 2020), as well as Canada (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). The results of this study however, do not support previous studies such as in Turkey (Barci et al., 2019; Celik & Zehir, Topkaya, 2017), India (Jaggernauth & Jameson-Charles, 2015) and in Qatar (Allouh et al., 2021).

It is not surprising that the findings of this study and previous studies established that classroom management being the most dominant among the indicators of Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs because competency in this indicator of self-efficacy beliefs is critical in ensuring successful instructional practices within the classroom as it requires teachers to get students to adhere to rules in the classroom, checking and controlling disruptive behaviour from the students as well as getting through the most deviant and difficult students in the classroom (Mathenjwa & Dlamini, 2020). I infer

from this view that, efficacy beliefs in classroom management sets the tone and focus of instructional practices, hence serves as the touchstone on which actions, behaviours, and readiness of students' learning are centred. Therefore, activities relating to classroom management is the first and foremost thing required for effective teaching and learning.

The focus of the second research question was to determine the level of emotional intelligence among Social Studies teachers in the public senior high schools in the Central Region of Ghana. In this study, teacher emotional intelligence was operationalised as the ability of Social Studies teachers to identify and manage their emotions as well as the emotions of others which was categorised under five main indicators such as interpersonal relationship, intrapersonal relationship, stress management, adaptability as well as general mood. The findings revealed that, generally the level of emotional intelligence among Social Studies teachers was high (M=3.95, SD=0.02). Additionally, findings for the various indicators of emotional intelligence show that the Social Studies emotional intelligence was rated very high for interpersonal relationship (M=4.33, SD=0.03), and intrapersonal relationship (M=4.08, SD=0.47). The findings again show that their emotional intelligence was rated high for stress management (M=3.90, SD=0.04), adaptability (M=3.79, SD=0.03), and general mood (M=3.31, SD=0.76) respectively.

The general level of emotional intelligence as well as all its dimensions were interpreted between high and very high. Similar findings were found in a study conducted by Arteaga-Cedeño, et al., (2022) in Ecuador, Angayarkanni (2021) in India as well as Stami, Ritin, and Dominique (2018) in Australia where the general level of emotional intelligence among teachers was rated as very high. Nevertheless, the findings of this

study do not resonate with the findings of previous studies in Ghana by Dampson (2021), Agbelie and Aliyu (2022), and in Pakistan by Lahore and Nazly (2021) where it was established that the levels of teacher emotional intelligence was low. The findings of these researchers further revealed that the teachers' professional knowledge and skills were rated as high while their professional practice was assessed as low.

Additionally, the findings of this study contradict Akturk and Ozturk's (2019) findings in Turkey where it was established that, the teachers' overall knowledge as well as their teaching knowledge was high. The implication of the results in this research question resonates with the position of Arteaga-Cedeño, et al., (2022), that the dangers of low EI among teachers include loss of working hours as a result of unpleasant circumstances and situations, low job performance and commitment as well as increase in attrition and turnover intentions. This implies that teachers with high level of emotional intelligence boosts their job performance whereas low or weak level of emotional intelligence represses teachers' job performance. Therefore, it is pertinent that the level of emotional intelligence among teachers are continually tracked from context and subject specific context. The findings suggest that teachers from various countries are keen in developing their competences through emotional intelligence which has implications for their effectiveness and their job performance.

In view of this, Houston (2021) argued that emotional intelligence of teachers is critical in promoting the capacity of teachers to experience, understand, and successfully apply emotion as the source of human energy, information, communication, and influence. I contend that the high level of emotional intelligence among the teachers indicates that the promotion of teacher professionalism and effectiveness takes centre stage in many countries. This validates efforts of countries like Ghana which has developed national

teacher standards to guide teacher professionalism efforts and enhance teacher proficiencies as well as calls for seminars and workshops in emotional intelligence related matters (Dampson, 2021; Zakaria et al., 2021; NTC, 2020). This is in line with contemporary developments where extensive efforts are made by professional authorities and education regulators across the globe to improve teacher emotional intelligence, and set professional standards for teachers within the teaching profession (Wu et al., 2019; Abiodullah, Sameen & Aslam, 2020). The findings of several studies suggest that teacher emotional intelligence, quality and effectiveness are improved in countries where there are specific requirements for teachers that serve as benchmarks for evaluating their qualifications for certification and licensure. This justifies the national teacher standards for pre-tertiary educators' inclusion in Ghana's 2019 education reforms as a means of directing teacher effectiveness and quality.

Literature documents the significance dimensions of emotional intelligence for teachers. Hinds (2017) observed that the various components or dimensions of emotional intelligence aid teachers to a very deep understanding of their own strengths, weaknesses, needs, desires and emotions; thus, this element of their emotional intelligence makes them to be honest appraisal for themselves. This is fundamentally crucial owing to the fact that the teachers' job continues to face challenges because of the numerous stressors they encounter such as student discipline, heavy workload among others which tend to create emotional and psychological distress (Carroll et al., 2022; Mukwamu, 2019; Velle, 2020; Sindhya, 2022). Hence, being emotionally intelligent as a teacher is crucial in making decisions related to managing stress, lesson planning, classroom teaching, monitoring and assessment, and classroom management which are essential for effective instruction and learning success (Zakaria et al., 2021).

Essentially, the choices that teachers make in their teaching processes are underpinned by their emotions. Therefore, I surmise that high level of teachers' emotional intelligence is likely to lead to good decisions on classroom management, student engagement as well as instructional matters that enhance effecting the job performance of teachers, teaching and learning as well as students' learning outcomes. To sustain this, Dampson (2021) called for educational institutions and education stakeholders to focus on improving the emotional intelligence prowess of teachers through interventions such as seminars, symposiums and training programmes that would enhance the emotional intelligence of pre-service teachers in training institutions. This call has implications for enhancing teacher emotional intelligence where both in-service teachers and pre-service teachers need to update their emotional intelligence prowess so as to improve on their job performance and students' learning outcomes.

The third research question investigated the level of job performance among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. The findings showed that, generally, the job performance of Social Studies teachers has gone beyond the expected standard and, therefore, deemed very high, recording a mean of 4.27 and a standard deviation of (SD=0.39). Therefore, I conclude that the job performance among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana is very high. The finding of this study contradicts the findings of several studies conducted in Malaysia (Selamat, Samsu & Kamalu, 2013), Mogadishu (Ali, Dahie and Ali (2016), Nigeria (Imhangbe, Victor, Osarenren-Osaghae, 2020), where it was established that teachers in these respective countries had low levels of job performance. However, the findings of this study concurres with that of previous studies in Philippines (Usop et al., 2013), Kenya (Kingoina, Kadenyi, & Ngaruiya, 2015), Nigeria (Omiko, 2016; Ikegbusi & Eziamaka, 2016), Morrocco

(Hassan & Ibourk, 2021), Greece (Anastasiou & Belios, 2020), Ghana (Bentil, 2021; & Appiah & Esia-Donkoh, 2018) where it was discovered that teachers (not Social Studies teachers) had high levels of job performance in these respective countries.

I observe that the finding of my study coheres with the contemporary call from educational stakeholders around the world. Accordingly, the current wave of research on teacher job performance is due to the impact of teachers on schools, and the realization of educational goals and objectives. Hence, Townsend (2021) maintained that deploying high performing teachers with solid teaching skills has become a national concern. It is not surprising that the findings of this study indicate high performance among the Social Studies teachers. This is because, scholars have noted that for schools to be effective, stakeholders need to look for opportunities to increase the professional development and job performance of teachers for the betterment in managing the teaching and learning process (Funder & Ozer, 2019).

The implication of the findings contained in this research question resonate with the position of Hassan and Ibourk (2021) who noted that teachers that have a high level of job performance tend to be more upbeat about their students, have positive connections with them, and significantly influence their learning outcomes. Likewise, teachers with high job performance are happy with their jobs, tend to be highly skilled professionals who believe they can manage, plan, and carry out certain activities and behaviors even in the face of failure (Anastasiou & Belios, 2020). In relation to the five dimensions of teacher job performance, the findings again show that, teacher attendance was ranked highest among the indicators of job performance of the teachers (M=4.50, SD=0.56), followed by strategies for facilitating students learning (M=4.45, SD=0.43), designing learning experiences (M=4.32, SD=0.58), knowledge and understanding of subject

matter (M=4.27, SD=0.45), professional development (M=4.18, SD=0.56), and school development (M=3.94, SD=0.57).

It is worth to noting that Social Studies teachers in this study highly practised the various dimensions of job performance outlined in this study. For instance, teachers are expected to attend school regularly, and while at school and instructional delivery, devise strategies to facilitate student learning and plan the learning experiences for the students. Besides, for teachers to ensure and enhance their efficiency and effectiveness, they are required to be knowledgeable and have adequate understanding of subject matter. Additionally, a professionally trained teacher must see professional development as a means and vehicle for enhancing his or her competencies and effectiveness so as to be an agent for school development. These findings are consistent with the well-acknowledged consensus and the truism among scholars and practitioners that the teacher plays a critical role in nurturing the minds and the hearts of youth and, therefore, the bedrock of a school. Their job performance is, therefore, key in the realization of educational goals.

The analyses for the fourth research question revealed that all the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs outlined in the study related positively and significantly with teachers' job performance. Indeed, it has been revealed that there was a moderate but statistically significant positive relationship between student engagement and overall teacher job performance ($r=0.473$, $p<0.05$, 2-tailed). It was also established that there was a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between efficacy in instructional strategy and teacher job performance ($r=0.688$, $p<0.05$, 2-tailed). Also, the study has disclosed that there is a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between efficacy in classroom management and job performance ($r=0.606$, $p<0.05$, 2-tailed).

Therefore, this study discovered that Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs attained a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between with their teacher job performance (r=0.692, p=0.000, 2-tailed).

The findings of this study is consistent with the previous findings in Malaysia (Ishak & Jamian, 2021), United States of America (Gilkes, 2020), Indonesia (Aulia, 2020), Turkey (Tarajova & Metruk, 2020; Kasalak, & Dagyar, 2020), and China (Waweru et al., 2020) where it was established that there was a positive and a statistically significant relationship between self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of teachers. However, the finding of this study contradicts the findings of previous studies (Hassan & Ibourk, 2021; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2019) conducted in Morrocco and Norway respectively where no statistically significant relationship was established between teacher self-efficacy beliefs and job performance.

Nevertheless, the result implies that self-efficacy beliefs are vital in enhancing the job performance of teachers. This brings to the fore the relevance of teacher self-efficacy beliefs in enhancing the job performance of teachers as contained in the postulation by Bandura (1982). According to Bandura (1982), self-efficacy stimulates the goals that workers set and choose for themselves. In linking this postulation to the context of education, teachers with high levels of self-efficacy beliefs are likely to set high goals and personal target for themselves and their students, work hard and learn new and innovative ways of executing instructional and other school context tasks. Conversely, teachers with low self-efficacy tend to set relatively low personal target and goals, are less likely to persevere in their efforts in the face of problems and are less likely or incapable of learning and executing a difficult task. Synthesising these views, I

conclude that self-efficacy beliefs is a critical and crucial determinant in teacher job performance.

In determining the effects of emotional intelligence on teacher job performance in research question five, the study established that collectively emotional intelligence of teachers contributed a significant 39.2% to teacher job performance. In assessing how each of the five indicators of emotional intelligence contributed to the job performance of teachers, the findings further disclosed that four out of the five indicators of emotional intelligence of teachers, thus, interpersonal relationship (β=0.252, t=3.292, $p<0.05$), intrapersonal relationship (β=0.132, t=3.321, $p<0.05$), stress management (β=0.236, t=3.466, $p<0.05$) and general mood (β=-0.131, t=1894, $p<0.05$) individually contributed significantly to the job performance of teachers while the contribution of adaptability was not significant (β=-0.003, t=-0.047, $p>0.05$). Based on this result, the study concludes that emotional intelligence is a good predictor of teacher job performance implying that teachers with high level of emotional intelligence also have or exhibit high job performance.

These results confirm the findings of previous studies in Poland (Rogowska & Meres, 2022), Turkey (Durdu & Sarhin, 2018), Pakistan (Asrar-ul-Haq, Anwar & Hassan, 2017), Nigeria (Akhigbe & Abimbola, 2020) as well as in the greater Accra Region of Ghana (Butakor, Guo & Adebanji, 2021). The results of this study and previous studies have consistently proven that generally when the level of emotional intelligence among teachers is high, their job performance improves. However, in Iran, a study by Aghdasi et al. (2011) found no significant effect between organizational commitment, job performance, and EI of teachers. Nevertheless, this study has established that interpersonal relationship, stress management, intrapersonal relationship, and general

mood were the major predictors that influenced job performance among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

Therefore, scholars and practitioners in emotional intelligence studies have advised that improving the emotional intelligence of teachers would enhance their ability to cope with the insurmountable demands of teachers by making them confident to motivate themselves and while being able to persevere in the face of frustrations, control impulse and delay gratification (Goleman, 2017; Al-Huwailah, 2017). Besides, emotionally intelligent teachers are able to regulate their temperament, minimize anguish from the overwhelming work duties as well as possessing the ability to reflect; and empathy in conditions and situations (Goleman, 2019). Consequently, emotional intelligence promotes enhanced quality of life, as emotional intelligence assists the individual to cope with life situations, and understanding emotional intelligence within multiple perspectives (Al-Huwailah, 2017). Therefore, I submit that teachers who possess higher levels of emotional intelligence are better equipped to facilitate effective teaching and learning to their students than their peers with low levels of emotional intelligence. The findings of this study has affirmed that the Social Studies teachers involved in the study possess adequate level of emotional intelligence needed to discharge their professional duties effectively to enhance their job performance as well as the learning outcomes of students.

The sixth research question sought to investigate the mediation role of emotional intelligence in the causal effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance among Social Studies teachers in public Senior High schools in the Central Region of Ghana. With the aid of SPSS AMOS, the mediation analytical technique was used to analyse this research question and the findings show that there was a positive and statistically

significant total effect of self-efficacy beliefs on teacher job performance (β=0.967, p=0.008). Besides, the results from the mediation analysis further show that the direct effect of self-efficacy beliefs, after controlling for the presence of the mediator (emotional intelligence), on teacher job performance was positive and statistically significant (β=0.539, p=0.012). Moreso, it was also realized that the indirect effect of self-efficacy beliefs through the mediator (emotional intelligence) on teacher job performance was positive and statistically significant (β=0.427, p=0.049).

There is enough evidence, therefore, to conclude that the emotional intelligence of the teachers mediated the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. The finding of this study concurs with the findings of Bing et al., (2022) in China, Sokmen and Sarikaya (2022) in Turkey, Saddique, Bibi and Taseer (2020) in Pakistan, and Hameli and Ordun (2021) in Kosovo, where it was found that emotional intelligence partially mediated the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance of the teachers. This finding suggests that self-efficacy beliefs influence or affect job performance through the emotional intelligence of the teachers. The point is made that, in the discourse of cause-and-effect relationship involving factors that intervene the causal link between self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of Social Studies in the public Senior High schools in the Central Region of Ghana, the emotional intelligence of the teachers matters and is, therefore, crucial.

The findings of this research question have provided empirical evidence to validate Sarkhosh and Rezaee's (2014) postulation to the effect that emotional intelligence enhances the likelihood of accomplishment of teachers and teaching success, thereby, contributing to the attainment of higher level of self-efficacy beliefs. Additionally, the

findings of this study have also demonstrated that teachers with higher emotional intelligence are better able to direct and inspire student learning, which leads to a positive teaching experience and increases self-efficacy. Moreover, the outcome of this research question corroborates the implications drawn by researchers like Ju et al., (2015) in China who argued and called for the promotion of emotional intelligence due to its ability to improve the self-efficacy beliefs and job performance of teachers. These scholars further averred that emotional intelligence must be fused into teacher preparation in teacher training programmes and institutions. I consider these claims relevant to my study because emotional intelligence is rarely fused and incorporated in teacher preparation and training institutions in Ghana.

The finding of the study suggests that the effect of emotional intelligence on the influence of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana is supported and, therefore, sustained in this study. Therefore, the hypothesis that highly efficacious teachers' effectiveness is enhanced with emotional intelligence of teachers to ultimately enhance job performance among Social Studies teachers is supported. This finding is not ambiguous and, therefore, not in doubt because the previous finding of this study revealed that the direct effect of teacher emotional intelligence was positive and statistically significant. Therefore, the mechanism through which self-efficacy beliefs affect job performance of Social Studies teachers need to include and consider teacher emotional intelligence in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana.

I observe that the finding of my study coheres with the contemporary trends in conceptualising the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance of teachers. This trend provides that investigating the influence of self-efficacy beliefs on job

performance of teachers has oscillated from examining direct effects to indirect effects (Bing et al., 2022). Therefore, the current wave of research in the field of analysing the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on outcome variables like teacher job performance is expected to include mediators in the conceptual relationship. It is pertinent to note that, this new focus in research is substantiated in Ghana by my study and China and Turkey through Bing et al., (2022) as well as Sokmen and Sarikaya's (2022) findings. However, the findings of recent numerous studies carried out in other countries like Pakistan, China, and Kosovo and cited in this study corroborate the contemporary trend put forward by (Bing et al., 2022) reporting a direct significant effect of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance of teachers.

I gleaned from the findings derived from these studies that it would be counterproductive if practitioners and researchers outrightly overlook direct effects of self-efficacy beliefs on teacher job performance. My position on this controversy is that, investigating both the direct and indirect effects of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance of teachers could be done concurrently to develop a comprehensive understanding of the causal link between self-efficacy beliefs, mediators, and job performance among teachers.

The study also investigated how the demographic characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience) of Social Studies teachers influence their perception of account for statistical significance differences in their perception of their self-efficacy beliefs as shown in hypothesis one. The findings from the study showed that even though there were no statistically significant difference in the mean scores for male and female Social Studies teachers in relation to their efficacy beliefs in students' engagement [t (340) = 1.568, p>0.05, 2-tailed] as well as their efficacy beliefs in

classroom management [t (340) = 1.568, p>0.05, 2-tailed], the results from the hypothesis further indicated that that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores for male and female Social Studies teachers concerning their efficacy beliefs in instructional strategy [t (340) = 1.568, p<0.05, 2-tailed] where the male Social Studies teachers performed better (M=4.17, SD=0.39) than the female Social Studies teachers (M=4.10, SD=0.44).

Nevertheless, the results from the overall self-efficacy beliefs reveal that male Social Studies teachers possess higher self-efficacy beliefs (M=4.22, SD=0.37) than female (M=4.14, SD=0.42) Social Studies teachers and is statistically significant [t (340) = 1.848, p<0.05, 2-tailed]. Hence, the study concludes that gender accounts for statistically significant differences in the self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. These findings are consistent with previous findings discovered in Albania (Lesha, 2017), Botswana (Moalosi & Forcheh, 2015) and Kenya (Butucha, 2014) where statistically significant differences were realised between gender and teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. However, the findings of this hypothesis conflicts with those of previous studies in Albania (Bilali, 2013), Kenya (Moturi, 2014) and Nigeria (Okeny & Enyi, 2015). Consequently, the null hypothesis was not supported while the alternate hypothesis was supported. The implication of the finding in this hypothesis is that in rolling out programmes, and interventions aimed at improving the self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers, female Social Studies teachers should be considered more since they had lower level of self-efficacy beliefs than their male counterparts.

The influence of age was also assessed to check if it statistically significantly influences the self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers and the results disclose that there is

a statistically significant difference in the self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers in relation to student engagement [F (3, 338) = 3.854, p<0.05], instructional strategy [F (3, 338) = 3.460, p<0.05], classroom management [F (3, 338) = 4.282, p<0.05], as well as the overall self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers [F (3, 338) = 4.282, p<0.05]. This study, therefore, concludes that age statistically significantly accounts for differences in the self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies teachers. The finding concurs with a previous study carried out in the Caribbean (Jaggernauth & Jameson-Charles, 2015), and Turkey (Gunduz-Ozsoy, 2017) where it was revealed that age influenced the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers. On the contrary, the findings in this study disagree with those of previous studies (Arko, 2021; Hicks, 2012; Voris & Bjork, 2011) where no statistically significant differences were found in the influence of age on the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers implying that the age of teachers is vital in the discussion of demographic variables that influence their self-efficacy beliefs. Hence, I fail to accept the null hypothesis but rather accept the alternate hypothesis.

In terms of the influence of academic qualification of teachers on their self-efficacy beliefs, the findings of the study show that there was no statistically significant difference in the means for efficacy in students' engagements [t (340) =0.452, p=0.651, 2-tailed], instructional strategy [t(340)=1.724,p=0.090, 2-tailed], classroom management [t (340) = 0.123, p=0.900, 2-tailed], and the overall self-efficacy beliefs [t (340) = 0.918, p=0.360, 2-tailed]. These finding conflict previous finding discovered in Pakistan (Shaukat, Vishnumolakala & AlBustami, 2019), Belgium (Mona et al., 2018), and China (Xiong et al., 2020). However, the findings of this study concur with previous studies in Iran (Akbari & Moradkhani, 2010), Thailand (Crook, 2016) and Korea (Lee, 2009). These findings suggest that age does not matter in the discussion of the teachers' demographic characteristics that influence their self-efficacy beliefs. In

the light of these findings, I fail to accept the alternate hypothesis and rather accept the null hypothesis.

The results from the influence of years of teaching experience on teacher's self-efficacy beliefs disclosed that except students' engagement where no statistically significant difference existed [F (2, 339) = 0.372, p>0.05], the study has discovered statistically significant differences in relation to instructional strategy [F (2, 339) =6.148, p<0.05], classroom management [F (2, 339) = 6.289, p<0.05], as well as the overall self-efficacy beliefs [F (2, 339) = 4.901, p<0.05]. This finding is consistent with previous studies in Ghana (Arko, 2021) and Kenya (Wang'eri & Otanga, 2014) where it was disclosed that teachers' years of teaching experience influenced their self-efficacy beliefs. Nevertheless, the findings of this study conflicts with the findings realized in previous studies in United States of America (Frazier, 2021), Trinidad and Tobago (Gowrie & Ramdass, 2014), and Vietnam (Phan & Locke, 2015) where it was revealed that years of teaching experience did not account for any statistically significant difference in the self-efficacy beliefs of teachers. Accordingly, in this hypothesis, I accepted the alternate hypothesis while the null hypothesis was rejected.

The second hypothesis in this study sought to investigate whether demographic characteristics (gender, age, academic qualification and work experience) of Social Studies teachers statistically significantly influence or accounted statistical differences in their perception of the level of emotional intelligence. In terms of the influence of gender on the emotional intelligence of the Social Studies teachers, the findings of the study reveal that except for stress management where differences in the means was statistically significant [t (340) =2.015, p=0.045, 2-tailed], the findings again disclose that there are no statistically significant differences in the means for interpersonal

relationship [t (340) =0.527, p=0.599, 2-tailed], intrapersonal relationship [t (340) =0.577, p=0.578, 2-tailed], general mood [t (340) =-1.435, p=0.152, 2-tailed], adaptability [t (340) =-1.235, p=0.218, 2-tailed], and the overall emotional intelligence [t (340) =0.108, p=0.914, 2-tailed] at 0.05 alpha level. This finding suggests that the gender of the Social Studies teachers did not account for any statistical influence on the perception of their level of emotional intelligence. Hence, this study supported the null hypothesis while the alternate hypothesis was not supported.

The findings of this study corroborate the findings in previous studies in India (Sharma & Siddiqui, 2018; Karthikeyan and Lalwani, 2019), Malaysia (Yoke & Panatik, 2016), Turkey (Faith, 2022; Delgoda, & Weersinghe, 2021), Sri Lanka (Jayakody & Dharmasiri, 2017) and Ghana (Butakor, Guo & Adebanji, 2021) where gender of teachers did not statistically significantly influence the emotional intelligence of teachers. Nevertheless, the finding of this study contradicts the findings from previous studies in Australia (Stami, Ritin, & Dominique, 2018), India (Pooja & Kumar, 2016) and in Ghana (Dampson, 2021) where it was discovered that gender statistically significantly influence the emotional intelligence of teachers. In the light of the finding, the study failed to accept the alternate hypothesis, hence, the null hypothesis was accepted.

In terms of the influence of age on the level of Social Studies teachers' level of emotional intelligence, the findings disclose that apart from intrapersonal relationship [F(3, 338)= 1.105, p=0.347] and adaptability [F(3, 338)= 1.416, p=0.238], where there are no statistically significant differences in the means, there are statistically significant differences in the means for interpersonal [F(3, 338)= 3087, p=0.027], stress management [F(3, 338)= 2.370, p=0.040], general mood [F(3, 338)= 4.257, p=0.006]

as well as the overall emotional intelligence [F(3, 338)= 3.831, p=0.010] at 0.05 alpha level due to age. Hence, it was concluded that age statistically significantly influenced Social Studies teachers perception on their level of emotional intelligence. This finding corroborates previous findings in China (Chen, Peng, & Kirk, 2015), Iran (Jorfi et al. 2011) and in Ghana (Dampson's, 2021) where age statistically significantly influenced teachers' perception on their level of emotional intelligence. Yet the findings of this study conflicts evidence from previous studies in Iran (Rastegar & Memarpour, 2009), Turkey (Birol et al., 2019) where it was discovered that age did not account for statistical significance difference in the perception of emotional intelligence among teachers in these respective countries.

The finding in relation to how academic qualification influences the perception of Social Studies teachers on the level of their emotional intelligence discloses that the differences in the means for interpersonal relationship [t (340) =1.291, p=0.198, 2-tailed], intrapersonal relationship [t (340) =0.263, p=0.793, 2-tailed], stress management [t (340) =-0.473, p=0.637, 2-tailed], general mood [t (340) =1.828, p=0.068, 2-tailed], adaptability [t (340) =1.086, p=0.278, 2-tailed], as well as the overall emotional intelligence [t (340) =1.095, p=0.274, 2-tailed], are statistically insignificant at 0.05 alpha level due to academic qualification. These results confirm that academic qualification does not influence the perception of Social Studies teachers on their level of emotional intelligence in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. This finding concurs with that of previous studies in Turkey (Birol et al., 2019), Sri Lanka (Jayakody & Dharmasiri, 2017), India (Karthikeyan & Lalwani, 2019) and Ghana (Dampson's, 2021) where academic qualification did not influence the emotional intelligence. Conversely, the finding of this study conflicts with Angayarkanni's (2021) findings in India where academic qualification influenced the level of emotional

intelligence. The findings of this study implies that the academic qualification of teachers does not matter in the discussion of ways and interventions that could be deployed to improve and sustain the level of teachers' emotional intelligence.

In relation to the influence of years of teaching experience on the level of emotional intelligence among Social Studies teachers, the finding of the study show that with the exception of general mood [F(2, 339)=2.033, p=0.133], and adaptability [F(2, 339)=0.534, p=0.589], where there are no statistically significant differences in the means, there are statistically significant differences in the means for interpersonal relationship [F(2, 339)=8.057, p=0.000], intrapersonal relationship [F(2, 339)=4.452, p=0.012], stress management [F(2, 339)=5.757, p=0.003] as well as the overall emotional intelligence [F(2, 339)=4.720, p=0.010] at 0.05 alpha level due to years of teaching experience. Hence, this study concludes that years of teaching experience statistically significantly influence the level of emotional intelligence among Social Studies teachers in the public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. This finding corroborates the finding of previous studies in India (Shukla & Srivastava, 2016; Jorfi et al. 2011) where years of teaching experience statistically significantly influenced the level of emotional intelligence among teachers. Nevertheless, the finding of this study disagrees with finding of previous studies in Dubai (Sergio et al., 2015), Malaysia (Yoke & Panatik, 2016), and Turkey (Birol et al., 2019) where years of teaching experience did not statistically significantly influence emotional intelligence.

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter of the study was devoted to the analysis and discussion of findings in relation to the research questions and hypotheses guiding the study as well as their discussions where the findings of these studies were compared to similar findings in

similar studies conducted around the world. The study established that even though the Social Studies teachers had very high self-efficacy beliefs, the findings show that self-efficacy beliefs in classroom management is dominant among them while self-efficacy beliefs in students' engagement is least prevalent among them. The findings also reveal that the level of emotional intelligence among the Social Studies teachers was very high in all the domains used in measuring emotional intelligence. Furthermore, the findings of the study also reveal that Social Studies teachers' level of job performance is very high in all the indicators used in assessing their level of job performance.

The findings of the study again record that overall self-efficacy beliefs attained a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between job performance among Social Studies teachers. The findings of the study further disclose that emotional intelligence statistically significantly predicts job performance among the Social Studies teachers. Furthermore, the findings of the study concluded that emotional intelligence directly and indirectly mediates the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance among Social Studies teachers. Additionally, the study shows that whereas the Social Studies teachers' gender, age and years of teaching experience statistically significantly influence their self-efficacy beliefs, the academic qualification of Social Studies teachers does not account for statistically significant differences in their self-efficacy beliefs.

Finally, while Social Studies teachers' age and years of teaching experience statistically significantly influenced their level of emotional intelligence, their gender and academic qualification did not statistically significantly influence their perception of the level of their emotional intelligence. The chapter concludes with discussions of the findings of this current study with similar findings and views expressed in literature. In doing this, findings of this study have been likened to the findings of previous studies to determine

the extent to which they related or conflicted the findings of other studies conducted around the world. The summary of findings, conclusions and recommendation, implication of findings to the context of teaching and learning as well as suggestions for further studies are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview

This chapter concludes the study and is organized into seven sections. The summary of the study which gives an account of the key components of the study is presented in the first section. The second section catalogues the major findings of the study obtained from the analyses of data collected on the research questions as well as the hypotheses set for the study. The third section encompasses the conclusions drawn from the study, which is followed by the educational implications for the teaching and learning within the context of Social Studies. The fifth section captures the limitations of the study which is followed by the recommendations in the sixth section while the suggestions for further studies proposed sits in the seventh section of this chapter.

5.1 Summary of the Study

My motivation to carry out this study was triggered by theories that averred that self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence of teachers are the springboard for improved job performance among teachers. Indeed, empirical evidence gathered in numerous analytical studies exist to either validate or refute these postulations in theories put forward in this regard. Additionally, extant literature has documented controversies among scholars and practitioners in educational research about the magnitude and nature of nexus or connections that exist relative to these variables in terms of direct and indirect causal effects of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence on the job performance of teachers where dearth in literature was uncovered on these variables in terms of Social Studies teachers. Therefore, the study had as a focus, to investigate the influence of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence on the job performance of

Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. To accomplish this, the purpose of my study was to investigate the levels of self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence as well as job performance of Social Studies teachers; examine the relationship between self-efficacy beliefs, ascertain the effect of emotional intelligence on job performance of Social Studies teachers as well as how the demographic variables of teachers (gender, age, academic qualification and years of teaching experience) accounts for either differences or statistical differences in Social Studies teachers level of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence. Besides, the study also sought to investigate if emotional intelligence mediates the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on job performance of Social Studies teachers.

I envisaged that the outcome of the study would be beneficial and, therefore, help in making valuable contributions to the Social Studies teachers, academics and researchers for improved policy and practice as well as teaching and learning within the context of Social Studies. The study was delimited to all Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana in 2022 academic year. However, one year inclusion criteria was set for the teachers because, I was convinced that one year was enough for the teachers to report on the nature of their efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence as well as their job performance in relation to the various indicators outlined for the study. The theoretical frameworks of the study hinged on Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory and Bar-On (2007) mixed ability model on emotional intelligence, as well as the National Council of Educational Research and Training (2013) of New Delhi's indicators for assessing teachers' job performance.

The literature review gave an account on the conceptual themes outlined in the study. Also, the literature review discussed the relevance of the theory adopted for the study

as well as application of the theoretical framework adopted for the study. The literature review further explored the empirical studies through previous research which were considered relevant to the study. Specifically, the empirical review centered on the levels of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance. Furthermore, the relationship between teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and job performance was also investigated. Moreover, empirical studies on the effect of emotional intelligence on the job performance of teachers; and how demographic variables of teachers (gender, age, academic qualification, and years of teaching experience) influence their self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence. The review of literature further detailed how gaps I identified which created lacuna in literature were filled. These gaps were methodological gap, context or setting gap, population gap, as well as gap on practical-knowledge. The chapter concluded with a discussion on the conceptual framework for the study which highlighted that self-efficacy beliefs was the independent variable, emotional intelligence being the mediator variable, and job performance was conceptualized as the dependent variable.

Aligned to the positivist's philosophical paradigm, I utilized the cross-sectional descriptive survey design by employing the quantitative approach to select all the 412 Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region using census sampling strategy. However, 342 questionnaires were involved in the analysis, accounting for a response rate of 83%. The instruments used for data collection included structured questionnaire on the teacher Self-Efficacy and Emotional Intelligence Rating Scales, and the Teacher Job Performance Rating Scale which were pre-tested in some selected public Senior High Schools in both Shama and Atebubu among 50 participants**.** Afterward, the validity and reliability of these instruments were assessed. Three kinds of validity assessment of the instruments were carried out in the

study. This included face validity of the instruments which was determined by my colleague PhD students, content validity was assessed by content validity index (CVI), while exploratory factor analysis was employed in assessing the construct validity. The reliability of the instruments was approached through internal consistency where the Cronbach alpha coefficient was employed for assessment.

The administration of the instruments was done personally, after the required ethical procedures were followed in gaining access to the schools in the region. After data collection, screening of the data was done where the data were coded and entered into IBM SPSS statistical software program where I explored the data to identify missing data and outliers which could pose danger and the likelihood of distorting the true picture of the findings. Descriptive statistics (frequency, percentages, mean and standard deviation) were used to describe the demographic characteristics of the teachers as well as helping to analyze and answer research questions 1-3. Inferential statistical tools such as Pearson Moment Correlation, Multiple Regression and Stepwise Regression were used to answer research questions 4-5 respectively while mediation analysis through multivariate structural equation modelling (SEM) with the aid of SPSS and AMOS was used to analyze research question 6. The study hypotheses were tested at 0.5 or 95% confidence internal using independent samples t-test and one way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA). Testing of assumptions underlying the use of inferential statistical tools preceded the data analysis. Specifically, assumptions for the use of parametric data such as normality of data which was assessed graphically through Q-Q plot and Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test. homogeneity of variance or equality of variance was assessed by using Levene's test where the significant figure should be greater than 0.05 to be acceptable. Multicollinearity was checked by variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance value statistics. Ethical considerations and

procedures in research which included access, confidentiality, anonymity, informed consent, deception, and plagiarism were all adhered to in safeguarding ethics as outlined in research.

5.2 Major Findings of the Study

The major findings of the study included the following:

i. The findings of the study showed that Social Studies teachers exhibited different levels and magnitude of efficacies to all the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs outlined in the study. However, self-efficacy beliefs in classroom management was rated highest, followed by self-efficacy beliefs in instructional strategy and student engagement respectively. Overall, Social Studies self-efficacy beliefs was rated to be very high.

ii. The findings of the study established that the overall level of intelligence among Social Studies teachers was very high. Additionally, two out of the five indicators (interpersonal relationship, and intrapersonal relationship) were rated very high while the other three indicators of emotional intelligence, (stress management, adaptability and general mood) were also rated high among the Social Studies teachers.

iii. It was discovered in the study that generally, the level of job performance among the Social Studies teachers was very high and, therefore, gone beyond the expected standard. Specifically, it was disclosed that teacher attendance was ranked highest among the indicators of job performance of the teachers, followed by strategies for facilitating students' learning, designing learning experiences, knowledge and understanding of subject matter, professional development while school development was ranked the least. The interpretation

of the findings showed that, all the indicators as well as the overall job performance is beyond the expected standard and were therefore very high.

iv. It was further pointed out in this study that there was a strong and statistically significant positive relationship between Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs and job performance.

v. It was discovered in the study that the effect of emotional intelligence on the job performance of Social Studies teachers was statistically significant, hence, the indicators of emotional intelligence outlined in this study is critical to endanger good job performance among Social Studies teachers.

vi. The findings of the study again showed that the instructional strategies exhibited by teachers, stress management, classroom management, as well as interpersonal relationship are the domains that need to be bolstered among the Social Studies teachers in improving their job performance.

vii. It was established in the study that teachers' emotional intelligence mediated the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance of Social Studies teachers.

viii. The study again established that while academic qualification of teachers did not reach statistical significance, other demographic characteristics of teachers such as gender, age and years of teaching experience accounted for differences in the mean and, therefore, significantly influenced Social Studies teachers' perception of the level of their efficacy beliefs.

ix. It was established that whereas gender and age of teachers did not account for statistical significance, academic qualification and years of teaching experience statistically significantly influenced the perception of Social Studies teachers on their level of emotional intelligence.

5.3 Conclusions

Social Studies teachers exhibited high self-efficacy beliefs. They were highly efficacious in classroom management, instructional strategies and students engagement. This suggests that they demonstrated strong confidence and authority in their field of teaching and as such they are passionate about their job and are well equipped and very competent in dealing with the everyday challenges they encounter in the discharge of their duties. Additionally, they are able to cope and deal with the daily emotional, social, and pedagogically difficult circumstances such as burnout, stress, as well as students' behavioural challenges that have the potential to reduce their perceptions of efficacy and professional competence.

The high level of emotional intelligence demonstrated by the Social Studies teachers portrays that emotionally, they are well equipped to discharge their instructional tasks effectively. Having high emotional intelligence as expressed in the various indicators by the teachers show that they can effectively manage their emotions and that of their students. This culminates in Social Studies teachers being able to build strong relationships with their students, managing their frustrations, anxieties and difficulties during their instructional practices and delivery so far as teaching and learning of Social Studies is concerned. Being emotionally intelligent suggests that these Social Studies teachers are efficient in stress management and adapting to stressful circumstances and are able to deal with various sources of stress both within and out of school. Social Studies teachers with high levels of emotional intelligence have a more positive attitude towards work and can initiate coping strategies, making them more effective and satisfied with their work.

The high levels of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence translated into impressive levels of job performance among Social Studies teachers. The high levels of job performance give an indication that suggest that Social Studies teachers are able to perform creditably in terms of both curricula and co-curricular duties leading to the attainment of educational goals and objectives. The curricula and co-curricular duties executed by Social Studies teachers include preparing for lessons, being punctual, taking charge of classroom teaching and learning process, and supervision of co-curricular activities such as sports, fieldtrip, and cultural festivities by learners. Besides, high job performance means that Social Studies teachers are able to design learning experiences for students, have adequate knowledge and understanding of subject matter, and also possess relevant strategies for facilitating learning, and engage in professional development programmes, contribute to school development, and regularly attend school. Also, high job performance among Social Studies teachers means they can adequately prepare for lessons, manage their classrooms, use effective teaching methods and techniques, and assess their students towards desired learning outcomes.

Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs correlated positively and significantly with their job performance. The high level of self-efficacy beliefs exhibited in classroom management, instructional strategies and students' engagement by the Social Studies teachers is positively and significantly linked to teacher job performance. This significant relationship suggests that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are directly and positively linked to job performance, and the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs are capable of strengthening job performance among the teachers. In essence, Social Studies teachers are expected to identify, practice and strengthen efficacy beliefs that are most likely to boost their job performance.

The emotional intelligence of Social Studies teachers statistically, significantly and positively predicted their job performance, suggesting that the job performance of the Social Studies teachers in their schools would decline if the level of emotional intelligence is low and therefore inappropriate. The statistically significant positive effect between emotional intelligence and job performance means Social Studies teachers are capable of employing more positive, well adapted coping strategies in dealing with the numerous stressors in school, thus, making them to improve on their teaching effectiveness. They have the ability to form and maintain mutually beneficial relationships, give and receive warmth and affection, as well as convey sincerity to their students whiles also forming friendly relationships with students and colleagues. This highlights the fact that the level of teachers' emotional intelligence is critical in promoting their job performance through the various indicators of emotional intelligence outlined in the study.

Social Studies teachers' emotional intelligence mediated the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on their job performance. In this context, the mechanism the indicators of emotional intelligence that mediated the effect of self efficacy and job performance included their interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships, adaptability, stress management as well as their general mood.

The demographic variables in the case of self-efficacy beliefs (academic qualification) and in the case of emotional intelligence (gender and age) suggests that these demographic characteristics of Social Studies teachers do not matter in the discussion of their level of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence and as such attention should be paid to demographic characteristics that show statistical significance so as to improve their self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence.

5.4 Implications of the Findings for Effective Teaching and Learning

The findings from this study have a couple of implications for teaching and learning. Firstly, the findings imply that self-efficacy beliefs is a springboard for realizing optimum effectiveness of teachers. Consequent to this revelation that self-efficacy beliefs that Social Studies teachers self-efficacy beliefs is critical to their success, they are expected to demonstrate effectiveness in classroom management, instructional strategies and students' engagement. Therefore, the Social Studies teachers becomes the wheels that drives the acquisition of the rationale, goals and objectives of the Social Studies curriculum and a crucial agent in the delivery of civic education in Ghana and beyond. Hence, they are expected to be receptive when opportunities that focus on equipping them to hone their self-efficacy beliefs are given to them.

Secondly, the findings of the study imply that the Social Studies teachers are emotionally equipped and competent in dealing with their negative emotions that impede their effectiveness as well as emotions and difficulties that students encounter and pose a challenge to their learning. The implication in this context is that teachers must become sensitive to the intellectual differences among students. They should relate well and respect the diversity among students, and welcome their diversity as opportunity for creating a conducive learning environment where the diversity among students can inure to their advantage. Logically, the Social Studies teachers are expected to surmount challenges that emerge in the teacher knowledge and beliefs model whose central idea is what teachers feel and believe relative to their practice.

Another implication of the findings for effective teaching and learning is that, stakeholders in education should come to the realization that apposite levels of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence among teachers in schools would eventually

and directly link to desired job performance among teachers. Additionally, the findings of the study imply that the teachers have a role to play in promoting and enhancing their job performance through the required levels and practice of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence for desired job performance. This implication is crucial because the findings showed that the Social Studies teachers were highly efficacious, hence, it was plausible to deduce that would affect their job performance. Accordingly, this presumption was confirmed in this study. Therefore, it would be accurate to postulate in this study that effective efficacy and emotional intelligence matters in the discussion of the factors that enhance teacher effectiveness.

Also, the findings of the study imply that emotional intelligence is a good mediator in the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on the job performance of the Social Studies teachers. This suggests that attempts to search for possible mediating variables in the link between self-efficacy beliefs and job performance, scholars and researchers should examine and consider emotional intelligence as one of the factors as well as others in the explanation needed in enhancing the job performance of teachers.

Finally, the findings of the study have implications for decision on the selection of training programmes and interventions required in promoting and enhancing the self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence so as to realize the desired job performance. This is because Social Studies teachers' demographic variables such as gender, age, academic qualification, and work experience accounted for statistically significant differences in the self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence. Therefore, education stakeholders are expected to focus on the demographic variables of teachers that significantly influenced their perception and, therefore, accounted for statistically significant differences.

5.5 Recommendations

Based on the major findings of the study, the underlisted recommendations are proposed:

Firstly, in line with the finding that the Social Studies teachers were highly efficacious in all the dimensions outlined in the study, this study recommends that the Ghana Education Service through the various Regional and District Directorates of Education should link with experts on teacher effectiveness to organize refresher training and continuous professional development programmes in order to sustain, improve, and strengthen the dimensions identified in the study as well as other components to maintain Social Studies teachers' self-efficacy beliefs in public Senior High schools in Ghana.

Secondly, based on the findings that Social Studies teachers recorded very high levels in the indicators of emotional intelligence, this study recommends that Ghana Education Service through the various Regional and District Directorates of Education across the country to devise training programmes and interventions that have the potential of sustaining the high levels of emotional intelligence to improve their effectiveness in the teaching and learning of Social Studies within the context of Senior High Schools in Ghana.

Furthermore, the Ghana Education Service through the Regional and District Directorates of Education across the country should organize orientation programmes to teachers to apply and combine the indicators of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence in situation specific context in their instructional activities to heighten their job performance.

Moreso, in line with the finding that self-efficacy beliefs positively and significantly influenced the job performance of Social Studies teachers, I recommend that the Social Studies teachers should be supported and oriented to reinforce their self-efficacy beliefs practices in the schools to bolster their job performance in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana. Specifically, components of self-efficacy beliefs such as classroom management, instructional strategies and students engagement among others should be intensified since these dimensions of self-efficacy beliefs related positively and significantly to job performance of the Social Studies teachers.

Additionally, consistent with the finding that emotional intelligence of Social Studies significantly predicted their job performance, this study recommends that the Ghana Education Service through the Central Regional and District Directorates of Education should design intervention programmes aimed at sustaining and promoting the emotional intelligence of teachers. This again calls for continuous professional development programmes and refresher courses and seminars on how the emotional intelligence of teachers impacts their output and effectiveness.

Finally, consequent to the revelation that gender, age, academic qualification, and work experience not account for differences in the self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence, this study recommends that education policymakers in Ghana in planning for intervention programmes, seminars and symposiums aimed at promoting teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and job performance should consider these demographic profiles of teachers and place premium on them since they statistically and significantly influenced their perception on the nature of self efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence as shown in this study.

5.6 Limitations of the Study

This thesis inherently contains some limitations which could be considered in future research. The perception of the Social Studies teachers in relation to their self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance represent their personal views at the time of data collection, hence, I am unable to report on how conditions are likely to alter their views after my data collection. Even though the researcher attempted to reduce the degree of subjectivity of the responses through reliability and validity of the instrument, the findings reflected the opinions of the respondents through self-reports. Besides, the study was carried out in 2021/2022 academic year. Therefore, as teacher dynamics such as education policies, supervisors and working conditions, in the schools change, it is likely that perceptions and practices in self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and job performance may also change. Besides, the study was carried out on Social Studies teachers in public Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana, which I deemed not representative enough to represent the views of Social Studies teachers in Ghana. Therefore, the findings of the study cannot be generalized beyond the scope of the study.

5.7 Suggestion for Further Studies

Having duly acknowledged limitations encountered in the study, I made the following suggestions for future studies:

i. It is proposed that the study be conducted throughout the country to determine the level of teachers' emotional intelligence as well as the self-efficacy beliefs upheld not only by Social Studies teachers but other teachers as well and how these variables relate and predict their job performance. This I believe would aid in the development and a discussion on a national strategy so as to improve teacher effectiveness to achieve educational goals and objectives.

ii. Consequent to the finding that 60.8% in teachers job performance was unaccounted for by the level of their emotional intelligence, it is suggested that further studies are conducted to examine the effects of other variables that could account for and predict the level of teacher job performance.

iii. Intervention programmes are required periodically to sustain, enhance and monitor the level of self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence and how they are impacting on their job performance and learning outcomes of students since limited information exist on whether self-efficacy beliefs and emotional intelligence are incorporated in teacher education programmes in the country.

iv. Again, based on the finding that the emotional intelligence of the Social Studies teachers mediated the effect of self-efficacy beliefs on their job performance, I suggest that education practitioners and researchers should investigate other possible variables that could also mediate the causal link between self-efficacy beliefs and the job performance of teachers in Senior High Schools in the Central Region of Ghana and beyond.

v. Finally, in line with the finding that the self-efficacy and emotional intelligence theories adopted in this study were effective in promoting and enhancing the job performance of teachers, this study therefore suggests that the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service should adopt and implement and model these theories so as to enhance the job performance of teachers as well as school and educational goals.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

This questionnaire aims to collect information on your self-efficacy beliefs, emotional intelligence and how they influence your job performance. The questionnaire is strictly for an academic exercise, and you are please requested to provide correct and frank information that will assist the researcher in obtaining accurate data for the study. Your responses will be treated in strict confidence. You are please requested to tick **(√)** a number or column that best describes your view. Thank you.

SECTION A

Instruction: Please tick (√) as appropriate.

1. Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐

2. Age: 20 - 29 ☐ 30 - 39 ☐ 40 - 49 ☐ 50 and above ☐

3. Academic Qualification: Diploma ☐ Bachelor's Degree ☐ Masters ☐ Others ☐

4. Experience: 1-5 ☐ 6-10 ☐ 10 and above ☐

Section B

Instructions: This section of the questionnaire deals with self-efficacy beliefs measured on scale of 5–1 (5 = Always, 4 = Usually, 3=Sometimes, 2 = Once in a While, 1= Never). Please **rate your views on the following statements**. (Please rate EVERY option according to the scale).

S/N		Please CIRCLE a number to rate EVERY option				
		Always	**Usually**	**Sometimes**	**Seldom**	**Never**
1.	I can effectively engage and get through the most difficult students during social Studies instruction.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	I am able to help my students think critically in Social Studies instruction.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	I am able to motivate my students to show interest in Social Studies instruction and school work in general	5	4	3	2	1
4.	To a large extent I am able to get my students to believe that they can do well in social studies and school in general	5	4	3	2	1
5.	To a large extent, I am able to encourage my students to value education and learning	5	4	3	2	1
6.	I am able to bring out the creativity in my students	5	4	3	2	1
7.	I am able to improve the understanding of students who have challenges in class	5	4	3	2	1
8.	As much as possible, I am able to get families assist in ensuring their wards do well in Social Studies and other disciplines	5	4	3	2	1
9.	As much as possible, I am able to respond to difficult questions from my students	5	4	3	2	1
10.	I am able to measure students comprehension of what I teach in Social Studies	5	4	3	2	1
11.	I am very good in crafting relevant questions for my students in Social Studies	5	4	3	2	1
12.	I ensure differentiation and equity in Social Studies instruction	5	4	3	2	1
13.	I use different assessment strategies in ensuring that every student learn	5	4	3	2	1
14.	I use alternative explanations and examples to assist confused students during lessons	5	4	3	2	1
15.	I ensure and implement alternative strategies in my lessons	5	4	3	2	1
16.	I provide appropriate challenges for very capable students in my lessons	5	4	3	2	1

S/N		Please CIRCLE a number to rate EVERY option				
		Always	**Usually**	**Sometimes**	**Seldom**	**Never**
17.	I am effective in controlling students with disruptive behavior in my lessons	5	4	3	2	1
18.	I make my expectations clear on students behavior during my lessons	5	4	3	2	1
19.	I establish routines to keep activities rum smoothly in my lessons	5	4	3	2	1
20.	I ensure my students follow classroom rules and regulations	5	4	3	2	1
21.	I effectively calm students who are noisy disruptive in my lessons	5	4	3	2	1
22.	I establish classroom management systems with each group of students	5	4	3	2	1
23.	I am effective in managing deviant students in my lessons	5	4	3	2	1
24.	I am effective in keeping a few problem students from ruining my lessons	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION C

Instructions: This section of the questionnaire deals with emotional intelligence. On a scale of 5 – 1 (5 = Very often true of me, 4 = Often true of me, 3 = Sometimes true of me, 2 = Seldom true of me, 1 = Not true of me), rate your views on the following statements.

S/N		Circle ONLY ONE Option for each statement				
		Not true of me	**Seldom true of me**	**Sometimes true of me**	**Often true of me**	**Very often true of me**
25.	I am more of a follower than a leader	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I'm happy with the personality style I have as	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I am appreciative of myself	1	2	3	4	5
28.	I cannot easily share my deep feelings with others.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	When I feel bad, I know what upsets me.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	I am able to confront my negative emotions	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I am effective problem solver	1	2	3	4	5
32.	I am optimistic and constantly strive for excellence	1	2	3	4	5
33.	I am independent in decision making	1	2	3	4	5
34.	I am a self-directed individual	1	2	3	4	5
35.	I am free of emotional dependency	1	2	3	4	5
36.	I am decisive and always willing to take risk	1	2	3	4	5
37.	I demonstrate confidence in my interaction with my students	1	2	3	4	5
38.	I am perceived by my students as confident	1	2	3	4	5
39.	I demonstrate excellence in my work and expect same from my students	1	2	3	4	5
40.	I have special attention for my students likes and dislikes	1	2	3	4	5
41.	I have a listening years for my students	1	2	3	4	5
42.	I demonstrate warmth to my students	1	2	3	4	5
43.	I have a responsibility of making a difference in my students lives	1	2	3	4	5
44.	I respect other professions just like teaching	1	2	3	4	5

45.	I have a conviction that Students I train should benefit society	1	2	3	4	5
46.	I have a positive relationship with my students	1	2	3	4	5
47.	I have a good relationship with my colleague teachers	1	2	3	4	5
48.	I provide a supportive classroom for my students	1	2	3	4	5
49.	I know how to deal with annoying problems in my classroom	1	2	3	4	5
50.	I can deal with stress without getting too angry.	1	2	3	4	5
51.	I know it's hard for me to control my anxiety	1	2	3	4	5
52.	I don't easily lose my temper/get angry	1	2	3	4	5
53.	I demonstrate patience to my students	1	2	3	4	5
54.	I am able to manage my temper when angry	1	2	3	4	5
55.	I usually hope for the best	1	2	3	4	5
56.	I usually fail before I start something new	1	2	3	4	5
57.	I believe that I will overcome very difficult situations.	1	2	3	4	5
58.	It's hard for me to smile	1	2	3	4	5
59.	I feel bad very often	1	2	3	4	5
60.	I am satisfied with the job I do	1	2	3	4	5
61.	I like to exaggerate	1	2	3	4	5
62.	I do everything as it is in reality, without fantasies or dreams.	1	2	3	4	5
63.	I can get out of my dreams very quickly	1	2	3	4	5
64.	It's hard for me to change my style.	1	2	3	4	5
65.	It's easy for me to adapt to new conditions	1	2	3	4	5
66.	It's hard for me to start new things	1	2	3	4	5
67.	I think about different ways of solving problems	1	2	3	4	5
68.	My approach to coping with difficulties is to go step by step.	1	2	3	4	5
69.	I gather a lot of information when faced with a difficult situation,	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D

Instructions: This section of the questionnaire aim to collect information on your job performance. On a scale of 5 – 1 (5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree), rate your views on the following statements.

S/N	Statements	Choose **ONLY ONE** Option for each statement				
		Strongly Agree	**Agree**	**Neutral**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
70.	I use textbooks and other relevant documents while planning lessons.	5	4	3	2	1
71.	I collect and prepare relevant teaching and learning materials for lessons.	5	4	3	2	1
72.	I plan for engaging students in learning activities.	5	4	3	2	1
73.	I use record of students' performance in planning.	5	4	3	2	1
74.	I demonstrate content knowledge with conceptual clarity using appropriate examples.	5	4	3	2	1
75.	I use subject knowledge for making it responsive to the diverse needs of students.	5	4	3	2	1
76.	I use subject knowledge for completing entire syllabus within specified time.	5	4	3	2	1
77.	I correct errors made by the students.	5	4	3	2	1
78.	I assess students' learning and provide immediate feedback for improving learning and performance.	5	4	3	2	1
79.	I utilize school time effectively.	5	4	3	2	1
80.	I encourage self-discipline, punctuality and regularity among students.	5	4	3	2	1
81.	I treat all students in a fair and consistent manner.	5	4	3	2	1
82.	I update subject knowledge through self-study.	5	4	3	2	1
83.	I participate in in-service education programmes.	5	4	3	2	1
84.	I engage in innovative and research activities.	5	4	3	2	1
85.	I contribute in developing teaching and learning materials.	5	4	3	2	1
86.	I take responsibility for organizing school functions like sports and games, celebration of national days.	5	4	3	2	1
87.	I cooperate in organizing school activities like health and hygiene.	5	4	3	2	1
88.	I participate and contribute during staff meetings and other meetings.	5	4	3	2	1
89.	I attend school regularly.	5	4	3	2	1
90.	I arrive and leave the school according to school time.	5	4	3	2	1

THANK YOU

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX C: CONTENT VALIDATION FORM
UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

CONTENT VALIDATION RATING FORM FOR MY SUPERVISORS

Dear Supervisor,

This form depicts the statements that would be used in the collection of data for this study. Please rate the following statement based on how you perceive it to suitable or not suitable in collecting data for the study.

Rating Scale

3 and 4 represents Suitable

1 and 2 represents not Suitable

SEB1	I can effectively engage and get through the most difficult students during social Studies instruction.	4	3	2	1
SEB02	I am able to help my students think critically in Social Studies instruction.	4	3	2	1
SEB03	I am able to motivate my students to show interest in Social Studies instruction and school work in general	4	3	2	1
SEB04	To a large extent I am able to get my students to believe that they can do well in social studies and school in general	4	3	2	1
SEB05	To a large extent, I am able to encourage my students to value education and learning	4	3	2	1
SEB06	I am able to bring out the creativity in my students	4	3	2	1
SEB07	I am able to improve the understanding of students who have challenges in class	4	3	2	1
SEB08	As much as possible, I am able to get families assist in ensuring their wards do well in Social Studies and other disciplines	4	3	2	1
SEB09	As much as possible, I am able to respond to difficult questions from my students	4	3	2	1
SEB10	I am able to measure students comprehension of what I teach in Social Studies	4	3	2	1
SEB11	I am very good in crafting relevant questions for my students in Social Studies	4	3	2	1
SEB12	I ensure differentiation and equity in Social Studies instruction	4	3	2	1
SEB13	I use different assessment strategies in ensuring that every student learn	4	3	2	1
SEB14	I use alternative explanations and examples to assist confused students during lessons	4	3	2	1
SEB15	I ensure and implement alternative strategies in my lessons	4	3	2	1

SEB16	I provide appropriate challenges for very capable students in my lessons	4	3	2	1
SEB17	I am effective in controlling students with disruptive behavior in my lessons	4	3	2	1
SEB18	I make my expectations clear on students behavior during my lessons	4	3	2	1
SEB19	I establish routines to keep activities rum smoothly in my lessons	4	3	2	1
SEB20	I ensure my students follow classroom rules and regulations	4	3	2	1
SEB21	I effectively calm students who are noisy disruptive in my lessons	4	3	2	1
SEB22	I establish classroom management systems with each group of students	4	3	2	1
SEB23	I am effective in managing deviant students in my lessons	4	3	2	1
SEB24	I am effective in keeping a few problem students from ruining my lessons	4	3	2	1

PART II

EI1	I am more of a follower than a leader	4	3	2	1
EI2	I'm happy with the personality style I have as	4	3	2	1
EI3	I am appreciative of myself	4	3	2	1
EI4	I cannot easily share my deep feelings with others.	4	3	2	1
EI5	When I feel bad, I know what upsets me.	4	3	2	1
EI6	I am able to confront my negative emotions	4	3	2	1
EI7	I am effective problem solver	4	3	2	1
EI8	I am optimistic and constantly strive for excellence	4	3	2	1
EI9	I am independent in decision making	4	3	2	1
EI10	I am a self-directed individual	4	3	2	1
EI11	I am free of emotional dependency	4	3	2	1
EI12	I am decisive and always willing to take risk	4	3	2	1
EI13	I demonstrate confidence in my interaction with my students	4	3	2	1
EI14	I am perceived by my students as confident	4	3	2	1
EI15	I demonstrate excellence in my work and expect same from my students	4	3	2	1
EI16	I have special attention for my students likes and dislikes	4	3	2	1
EI17	I have a listening years for my students	4	3	2	1
EI18	I demonstrate warmth to my students	4	3	2	1
EI19	I have a responsibility of making a difference in my students lives	4	3	2	1
EI20	I respect other professions just like teaching	4	3	2	1
EI21	I have a conviction that Students I train should benefit society	4	3	2	1
EI22	I have a positive relationship with my students	4	3	2	1
EI23	I have a good relationship with my colleague teachers	4	3	2	1
EI24	I provide a supportive classroom for my students	4	3	2	1
EI25	I know how to deal with annoying problems in my classroom	4	3	2	1

EI26	I can deal with stress without getting too angry.	4	3	2	1
EI27	I know it's hard for me to control my anxiety	4	3	2	1
EI28	I don't easily lose my temper/get angry	4	3	2	1
EI29	I demonstrate patience to my students	4	3	2	1
EI30	I am able to manage my temper when angry	4	3	2	1
EI31	I usually hope for the best	4	3	2	1
EI32	I usually fail before I start something new	4	3	2	1
EI33	I believe that I will overcome very difficult situations.	4	3	2	1
EI34	It's hard for me to smile	4	3	2	1
EI35	I feel bad very often	4	3	2	1
EI35	I am satisfied with the job I do	4	3	2	1
EI36	I like to exaggerate	4	3	2	1
EI37	I do everything as it is in reality, without fantasies or dreams.	4	3	2	1
EI38	I can get out of my dreams very quickly	4	3	2	1
EI39	It's hard for me to change my style.	4	3	2	1
EI40	It's easy for me to adapt to new conditions	4	3	2	1
EI41	It's hard for me to start new things	4	3	2	1
EI42	I think about different ways of solving problems	4	3	2	1
EI43	My approach to coping with difficulties is to go step by step.	4	3	2	1
EI44	I gather a lot of information when faced with a difficult situation,	4	3	2	1

PART III

TJP1	I use textbooks and other relevant documents while planning lessons.	4	3	2	1
TJP2	I collect and prepare relevant teaching and learning materials for lessons.	4	3	2	1
TJP3	I plan for engaging students in learning activities.	4	3	2	1
TJP4	I use record of students' performance in planning.	4	3	2	1
TJP5	I demonstrate content knowledge with conceptual clarity using appropriate examples.	4	3	2	1
TJP6	I use subject knowledge for making it responsive to the diverse needs of students.	4	3	2	1
TJP7	I use subject knowledge for completing entire syllabus within specified time.	4	3	2	1
TJP8	I correct errors made by the students.	4	3	2	1
TJP9	I assess students' learning and provide immediate feedback for improving learning and performance.	4	3	2	1
TJP10	I utilize school time effectively.	4	3	2	1
TJP11	I encourage self-discipline, punctuality and regularity among students.	4	3	2	1
TJP12	I treat all students in a fair and consistent manner.	4	3	2	1
TJP13	I update subject knowledge through self-study.	4	3	2	1
TJP14	I participate in in-service education programmes.	4	3	2	1

TJP15	I engage in innovative and research activities.	4	3	2	1
TJP16	I contribute in developing teaching and learning materials.	4	3	2	1
TJP17	I take responsibility for organizing school functions like sports and games, celebration of national days.	4	3	2	1
TJP18	I cooperate in organizing school activities like health and hygiene.	4	3	2	1
TJP19	I participate and contribute during staff meetings and other meetings.	4	3	2	1
TJP20	I attend school regularly.	4	3	2	1
TJP21	I arrive and leave the school according to school time.	4	3	2	1
TJP22	I use textbooks and other relevant documents while planning lessons.	4	3	2	1

THANK YOU

APPENDIX C

FACE VALIDATION FORM

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

FACE VALIDATION RATING FORM FOR MY COLLEAGUES

Dear Colleague,

This form depicts the statements that would be used in the collection of data for this study. Please rate the following statement based on how you perceive it to suitable or not suitable in collecting data for the study.

Rating Scale

"Yes" represents agreement

"No" represents disagreement

		Please choose only one option	
SEB1	I can effectively engage and get through the most difficult students during social Studies instruction.	Yes	No
SEB02	I am able to help my students think critically in Social Studies instruction.	Yes	No
SEB03	I am able to motivate my students to show interest in Social Studies instruction and school work in general	Yes	No
SEB04	To a large extent I am able to get my students to believe that they can do well in social studies and school in general	Yes	No
SEB05	To a large extent, I am able to encourage my students to value education and learning	Yes	No
SEB06	I am able to bring out the creativity in my students	Yes	No
SEB07	I am able to improve the understanding of students who have challenges in class	Yes	No
SEB08	As much as possible, I am able to get families assist in ensuring their wards do well in Social Studies and other disciplines	Yes	No
SEB09	As much as possible, I am able to respond to difficult questions from my students	Yes	No
SEB10	I am able to measure students comprehension of what I teach in Social Studies	Yes	No
SEB11	I am very good in crafting relevant questions for my students in Social Studies	Yes	No
SEB12	I ensure differentiation and equity in Social Studies instruction	Yes	No

SEB13	I use different assessment strategies in ensuring that every student learn	Yes	No
SEB14	I use alternative explanations and examples to assist confused students during lessons	Yes	No
SEB15	I ensure and implement alternative strategies in my lessons	Yes	No
SEB16	I provide appropriate challenges for very capable students in my lessons	Yes	No
SEB17	I am effective in controlling students with disruptive behavior in my lessons	Yes	No
SEB18	I make my expectations clear on students behavior during my lessons	Yes	No
SEB19	I establish routines to keep activities rum smoothly in my lessons	Yes	No
SEB20	I ensure my students follow classroom rules and regulations	Yes	No
SEB21	I effectively calm students who are noisy disruptive in my lessons	Yes	No
SEB22	I establish classroom management systems with each group of students	Yes	No
SEB23	I am effective in managing deviant students in my lessons	Yes	No
SEB24	I am effective in keeping a few problem students from ruining my lessons	Yes	No

PART II

		Please choose only one option	
EI1	I am more of a follower than a leader	Yes	No
EI2	I'm happy with the personality style I have as	Yes	No
EI3	I am appreciative of myself	Yes	No
EI4	I cannot easily share my deep feelings with others.	Yes	No
EI5	When I feel bad, I know what upsets me.	Yes	No
EI6	I am able to confront my negative emotions	Yes	No
EI7	I am effective problem solver	Yes	No
EI8	I am optimistic and constantly strive for excellence	Yes	No
EI9	I am independent in decision making	Yes	No
EI10	I am a self-directed individual	Yes	No
EI11	I am free of emotional dependency	Yes	No
EI12	I am decisive and always willing to take risk	Yes	No
EI13	I demonstrate confidence in my interaction with my students	Yes	No
EI14	I am perceived by my students as confident	Yes	No
EI15	I demonstrate excellence in my work and expect same from my students	Yes	No
EI16	I have special attention for my students likes and dislikes	Yes	No
EI17	I have a listening years for my students	Yes	No
EI18	I demonstrate warmth to my students	Yes	No
EI19	I have a responsibility of making a difference in my students lives	Yes	No
EI20	I respect other professions just like teaching	Yes	No
EI21	I have a conviction that Students I train should benefit society	Yes	No
EI22	I have a positive relationship with my students	Yes	No
EI23	I have a good relationship with my colleague teachers	Yes	No
EI24	I provide a supportive classroom for my students	Yes	No
EI25	I know how to deal with annoying problems in my classroom	Yes	No
EI26	I can deal with stress without getting too angry.	Yes	No
EI27	I know it's hard for me to control my anxiety	Yes	No
EI28	I don't easily lose my temper/get angry	Yes	No
EI29	I demonstrate patience to my students	Yes	No
EI30	I am able to manage my temper when angry	Yes	No
EI31	I usually hope for the best	Yes	No
EI32	I usually fail before I start something new	Yes	No
EI33	I believe that I will overcome very difficult situations.	Yes	No
EI34	It's hard for me to smile	Yes	No
EI35	I feel bad very often	Yes	No
EI35	I am satisfied with the job I do	Yes	No
EI36	I like to exaggerate	Yes	No
EI37	I do everything as it is in reality, without fantasies or dreams.	Yes	No
EI38	I can get out of my dreams very quickly	Yes	No

EI39	It's hard for me to change my style.	Yes	No
EI40	It's easy for me to adapt to new conditions	Yes	No
EI41	It's hard for me to start new things	Yes	No
EI42	I think about different ways of solving problems	Yes	No
EI43	My approach to coping with difficulties is to go step by step.	Yes	No
EI44	I gather a lot of information when faced with a difficult situation,	Yes	No

PART III

		Please choose only one option	
TJP1	I use textbooks and other relevant documents while planning lessons.	Yes	No
TJP2	I collect and prepare relevant teaching and learning materials for lessons.	Yes	No
TJP3	I plan for engaging students in learning activities.	Yes	No
TJP4	I use record of students' performance in planning.	Yes	No
TJP5	I demonstrate content knowledge with conceptual clarity using appropriate examples.	Yes	No
TJP6	I use subject knowledge for making it responsive to the diverse needs of students.	Yes	No
TJP7	I use subject knowledge for completing entire syllabus within specified time.	Yes	No
TJP8	I correct errors made by the students.	Yes	No
TJP9	I assess students' learning and provide immediate feedback for improving learning and performance.	Yes	No
TJP10	I utilize school time effectively.	Yes	No
TJP11	I encourage self-discipline, punctuality and regularity among students.	Yes	No
TJP12	I treat all students in a fair and consistent manner.	Yes	No
TJP13	I update subject knowledge through self-study.	Yes	No
TJP14	I participate in in-service education programmes.	Yes	No
TJP15	I engage in innovative and research activities.	Yes	No
TJP16	I contribute in developing teaching and learning materials.	Yes	No
TJP17	I take responsibility for organizing school functions like sports and games, celebration of national days.	Yes	No
TJP18	I cooperate in organizing school activities like health and hygiene.	Yes	No
TJP19	I participate and contribute during staff meetings and other meetings.	Yes	No
TJP20	I attend school regularly.	Yes	No
TJP21	I arrive and leave the school according to school time.	Yes	No
TJP22	I use textbooks and other relevant documents while planning lessons.	Yes	No

THANK YOU

APPENDIX D

CONTENT VALIDATION REPORT SCALE

COMMENTS

You are kindly requested to express your views on the questionnaire.

A: **CLEARNESS OF STATEMENTS:** Do you think the statements are clear to you?

……
……

B: **CLEARNESS OF INSTRUCTIONS:** Are the instructions clear to you?

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

C: **LENGTH OF STATEMENTS:** Do you think the statements are too lengthy/too short?

.....
.....

D: **LANGUAGE:** Do you think the language is clear and easy to understand?

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

E: **TIME TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE:** Do you think it took you too much time to complete the questionnaire?

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

F: **GRAMMAR/SPELLING MISTAKE(S):** Please write any grammar/spelling mistakes in the items
here.....
.....
.....

F: **ANY OTHER COMMENT(S):**

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

THANK YOU

APPENDIX E

COMMENTS

FACE VALIDATION REPORT SCALE

You are kindly requested to express your views on the questionnaire.

A: **CLEARNESS OF STATEMENTS:** Do you think the statements are clear to you?

……
……

B: **CLEARNESS OF INSTRUCTIONS:** Are the instructions clear to you?

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

C: **LENGTH OF STATEMENTS:** Do you think the statements are too lengthy/too short?

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

D: **LANGUAGE:** Do you think the language is clear and easy to understand?

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

E: **TIME TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE:** Do you think it took you too much time to complete the questionnaire?

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

F: **GRAMMAR/SPELLING MISTAKE(S):** Please write any grammar/spelling mistakes in the items
here.....
.....
.....

F: **ANY OTHER COMMENT(S):**

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

THANK YOU

APPENDIX F

HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE RESULTS

F1

Homogeneity of Variance for Gender and Self-efficacy Beliefs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Students Engagement	EVA	1.779	0.183	1.568	340	0.118
	EVNA			1.500	175.580	0.135
Instructional Strategy	EVA	5.247	0.533	2.303	340	0.022
	EVNA			2.152	167.237	0.033
Classroom Management	EVA	0.836	0.361	.868	340	0.386
	EVNA			.842	180.746	0.401
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	EVA	1.505	0.221	1.848	340	0.066
	EVNA			1.765	174.964	0.079

F2

Homogeneity of Variance for Age and Self-efficacy Beliefs

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Students Engagement	1.605	3	338	.188
Instructional Strategy	3.173	3	338	.024
Classroom Management	4.978	3	338	.002
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	7.695	3	338	.000

F3

Homogeneity of Variance for Academic Qualification and Self-efficacy Beliefs

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Students Engagement	EVA	3.799	.052	.452	340	.651
	EVNA			.418	153.490	.677
Instructional Strategy	EVA	10.560	.001	1.724	340	.086
	EVNA			1.537	144.242	.126
Classroom Management	EVA	.004	.950	.123	340	.902
	EVNA			.120	169.397	.904
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	EVA	6.078	.014	.918	340	.359
	EVNA			.834	149.085	.405

F4

Homogeneity of Variance for Experience and Self-efficacy Beliefs

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Students Engagement	4.213	2	339	0.076
Instructional Strategy	2.212	2	339	0.111
Classroom Management	3.716	2	339	0.065
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	5.541	2	339	0.054

F5

Homogeneity of Variance for Sex and Teachers Emotional Intelligence

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Interpersonal Relationship	EVA	.232	.630	.527	340	.599
	EVNA			.526	192.597	.600
Intrapersonal	EVA	.003	.957	.557	340	.578
	EVNA			.569	203.576	.570
Stress Management	EVA	.223	.637	2.015	340	.045
	EVNA			1.980	185.882	.049
General Mood	EVA	.083	.774	-1.435	340	.152
	EVNA			-1.427	191.195	.155
Adaptability	EVA	.961	.328	-1.235	340	.218
	EVNA			-1.289	214.052	.199
Overall Emotional Intelligence	EVA	.006	.941	.108	340	.914
	EVNA			.110	201.503	.913

F6

Homogeneity of Variance for Experience and Emotional Intelligence

Years of Experience and Emotional Intelligence	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
OVR Interpersonal Relationship	2.511	2	339	.083
Intrapersonal	3.426	2	339	.034
Stress Management	1.033	2	339	.357
General Mood	6.178	2	339	.002
Adaptability	2.503	2	339	.083
Overall Emotional Intelligence	.222	2	339	.801

F7

Homogeneity of Variance for Academic qualification and Teachers Emotional Intelligence

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Interpersonal Relationship	EVA	2.169	.142	1.291	340	.198
	EVNA			1.227	161.662	.222
Intrapersonal	EVA	.854	.356	.263	340	.793
	EVNA			.273	194.425	.785
Stress Management	EVA	6.357	.012	-.473	340	.637
	EVNA			-.502	205.047	.616
General Mood	EVA	3.811	.052	1.828	340	.068
	EVNA			1.915	198.235	.057
Adaptability	EVA	3.076	.080	1.086	340	.278
	EVNA			1.122	192.133	.263
Overall Emotional Intelligence	EVA	3.086	.080	1.095	340	.274
	EVNA			1.195	218.282	.233

F8

Homogeneity of Variance for Teachers Age and Emotional Intelligence

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
OVR Interpersonal Relationship	1.277	3	338	.282
Interpersonal Relationship	3.116	3	338	.026
Stress Management	1.329	3	338	.265
General Mood	5.201	3	338	.002
Adaptability	1.614	3	338	.186
Overall Emotional Intelligence	2.933	3	338	.034

APPENDIX G

G1

Post-hoc Analysis for years of Experience and Emotional Intelligence

Tukey HSD							
Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Interpersonal Relationship	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	.142	.071	.113	-.02	.31
		10+Years	-.133	.068	.123	-.29	.03
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	-.142	.071	.113	-.31	.02
		10+Years	-.275*	.069	.000	-.44	-.11
	10+Years	1-5 Years	.133	.068	.123	-.03	.29
		6-10 Years	.275*	.069	.000	.11	.44
Intrapersonal	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	-.004	.064	.997	-.15	.15
		10+Years	-.158*	.061	.026	-.30	-.01
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	.004	.064	.997	-.15	.15
		10+Years	-.154*	.062	.034	-.30	-.01
	10+Years	1-5 Years	.158*	.061	.026	.01	.30
		6-10 Years	.154*	.062	.034	.01	.30
Stress Management	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	.009	.091	.995	-.20	.22
		10+Years	-.249*	.087	.012	-.45	-.04
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	-.009	.091	.995	-.22	.20
		10+Years	-.258*	.088	.010	-.46	-.05
	10+Years	1-5 Years	.249*	.087	.012	.04	.45
		6-10 Years	.258*	.088	.010	.05	.46
General Mood	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	-.208	.103	.110	-.45	.03
		10+Years	-.095	.099	.601	-.33	.14
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	.208	.103	.110	-.03	.45
		10+Years	.112	.100	.498	-.12	.35
	10+Years	1-5 Years	.095	.099	.601	-.14	.33
		6-10 Years	-.112	.100	.498	-.35	.12
Adaptability	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	-.036	.085	.903	-.24	.16
		10+Years	-.084	.081	.560	-.28	.11
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	.036	.085	.903	-.16	.24
		10+Years	-.047	.082	.834	-.24	.15
	10+Years	1-5 Years	.084	.081	.560	-.11	.28
		6-10 Years	.047	.082	.834	-.15	.24
Overall Emotional Intelligence	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	-.006	.056	.993	-.14	.12
		10+Years	-.143*	.053	.020	-.27	-.02
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	.006	.056	.993	-.12	.14
		10+Years	-.137*	.054	.030	-.26	-.01
	10+Years	1-5 Years	.143*	.053	.020	.02	.27
		6-10 Years	.137*	.054	.030	.01	.26

G2

Post-hoc Analysis for years of Experience and Self-Efficacy

Dependent Variable			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Students Engagement	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	0.011	0.056	0.978	-0.12	.14
		10+Years	-0.033	0.053	0.811	-0.16	00.09
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	-0.011	0.056	0.978	-0.14	0.12
		10+Years	-0.044	0.054	0.691	-0.17	0.08
	10+Years	1-5 Years	0.033	0.053	0.811	-0.09	0.16
		6-10 Years	0.044	0.054	0.691	-0.08	0.17
Instructional Strategy	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	0.142	0.064	0.069	-0.01	0.29
		10+Years	-0.074	0.062	0.456	-0.22	0.07
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	-0.142	0.064	**0.069**	-0.29	0.01
		10+Years	-.216*	0.062	**0.002**	-0.36	-0.07
	10+Years	1-5 Years	0.074	0.062	0.456	-0.07	0.22
		6-10 Years	0.216*	0.062	0.002	0.07	0.36
Classroom Management	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	0.111	0.062	0.172	-0.03	0.26
		10+Years	-0.101	0.059	0.205	-0.24	0.04
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	-0.111	0.062	0.172	-0.26	0.03
		10+Years	-0.213*	0.060	**0.001**	-0.35	-0.07
	10+Years	1-5 Years	0.101	0.059	.205	-0.04	0.24
		6-10 Years	0.213*	0.060	**.001**	0.07	0.35
Overall Self-efficacy Beliefs	1-5 Years	6-10 Years	0.088	0.052	0.207	-0.03	0.21
		10+Years	0-.069	0.050	0.348	-0.19	0.05
	6-10 Years	1-5 Years	-0.088	0.052	0.207	-0.21	0.03
		10+Years	-0.158*	0.050	0.005	-0.28	-0.04
	10+Years	1-5 Years	0.069	0.050	**0.348**	0-.05	0.19
		6-10 Years	0.158*	0.050	**0.005**	0.04	0.28

G3

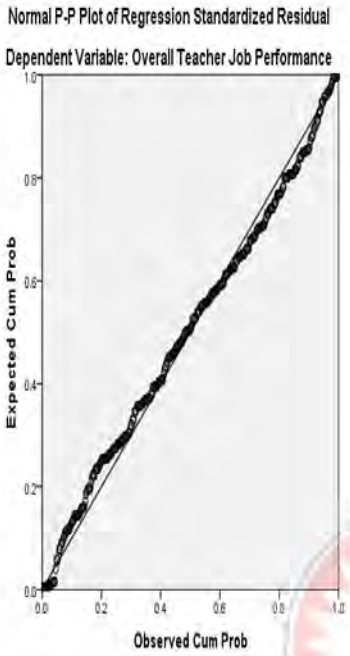
Post-hoc Analysis for years of Age and Emotional Intelligence

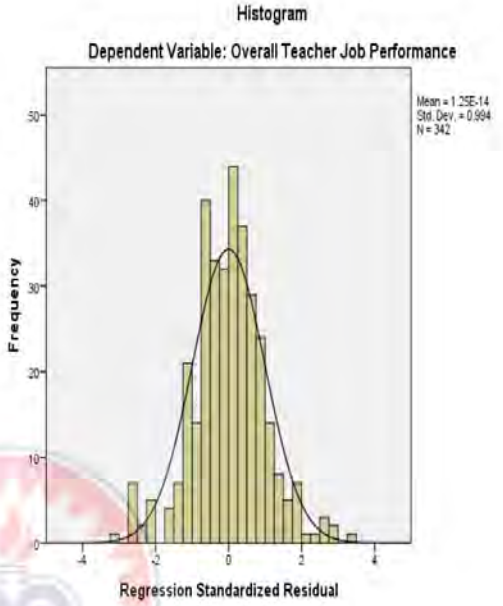
			Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
OVR Interpersonal Relationship	20-29 Years	30-39 Years	-.209*	.070	.015	-.39	-.03
		40-49 Years	-.106	.080	.549	-.31	.10
		50+Years	-.164	.125	.553	-.49	.16
	30-39 Years	20-29 Years	.209*	.070	.015	.03	.39
		40-49 Years	.103	.073	.502	-.09	.29
		50+Years	.045	.120	.982	-.27	.36
	40-49 Years	20-29 Years	.106	.080	.549	-.10	.31
		30-39 Years	-.103	.073	.502	-.29	.09
		50+Years	-.058	.127	.968	-.39	.27
	50+Years	20-29 Years	.164	.125	.553	-.16	.49
		30-39 Years	-.045	.120	.982	-.36	.27
		40-49 Years	.058	.127	.968	-.27	.39
Interpersonal Relationship	20-29 Years	30-39 Years	-.138	.086	.379	-.36	.08
		40-49 Years	-.038	.099	.981	-.29	.22
		50+Years	.024	.154	.999	-.37	.42
	30-39 Years	20-29 Years	.138	.086	.379	-.08	.36
		40-49 Years	.100	.091	.690	-.13	.33
		50+Years	.161	.149	.700	-.22	.55
	40-49 Years	20-29 Years	.038	.099	.981	-.22	.29
		30-39 Years	-.100	.091	.690	-.33	.13
		50+Years	.061	.157	.980	-.34	.47
	50+Years	20-29 Years	-.024	.154	.999	-.42	.37
		30-39 Years	-.161	.149	.700	-.55	.22
		40-49 Years	-.061	.157	.980	-.47	.34
Stress Management	20-29 Years	30-39 Years	-.230*	.089	.049	-.46	.00
		40-49 Years	-.087	.102	.829	-.35	.18
		50+Years	-.145	.159	.797	-.56	.26
	30-39 Years	20-29 Years	.230*	.089	.049	.00	.46
		40-49 Years	.142	.094	.426	-.10	.38
		50+Years	.084	.153	.946	-.31	.48
	40-49 Years	20-29 Years	.087	.102	.829	-.18	.35
		30-39 Years	-.142	.094	.426	-.38	.10
		50+Years	-.058	.162	.984	-.48	.36
	50+Years	20-29 Years	.145	.159	.797	-.26	.56
		30-39 Years	-.084	.153	.946	-.48	.31
		40-49 Years	.058	.162	.984	-.36	.48
General Mood	20-29 Years	30-39 Years	-.148	.099	.443	-.40	.11
		40-49 Years	.164	.114	.480	-.13	.46
		50+Years	-.345	.177	.210	-.80	.11
	30-39 Years	20-29 Years	.148	.099	.443	-.11	.40
		40-49 Years	.311*	.104	.016	.04	.58
		50+Years	-.198	.171	.655	-.64	.24
	40-49 Years	20-29 Years	-.164	.114	.480	-.46	.13
		30-39 Years	-.311*	.104	.016	-.58	-.04
		50+Years	-.509*	.180	.026	-.97	-.04

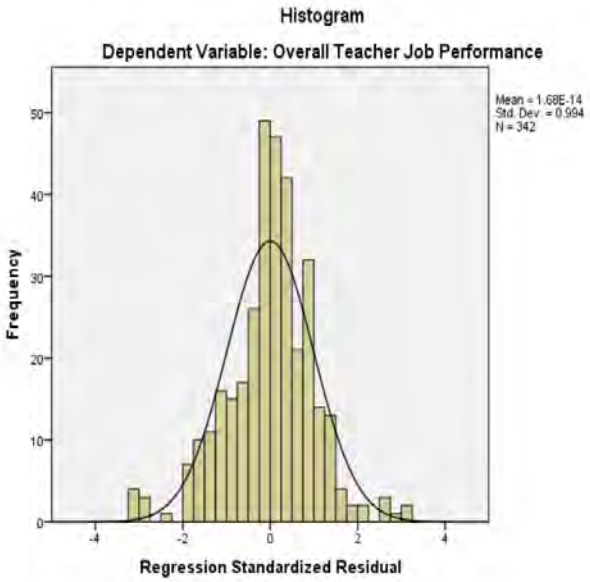
	50+Years	20-29 Years	.345	.177	.210	-.11	.80
		30-39 Years	.198	.171	.655	-.24	.64
		40-49 Years	.509*	.180	.026	.04	.97
Adaptability	20-29 Years	30-39 Years	-.158	.082	.221	-.37	.05
		40-49 Years	-.054	.095	.942	-.30	.19
		50+Years	-.158	.147	.704	-.54	.22
	30-39 Years	20-29 Years	.158	.082	.221	-.05	.37
		40-49 Years	.104	.087	.628	-.12	.33
		50+Years	-.001	.142	1.000	-.37	.37
	40-49 Years	20-29 Years	.054	.095	.942	-.19	.30
		30-39 Years	-.104	.087	.628	-.33	.12
		50+Years	-.105	.150	.897	-.49	.28
	50+Years	20-29 Years	.158	.147	.704	-.22	.54
		30-39 Years	.001	.142	1.000	-.37	.37
		40-49 Years	.105	.150	.897	-.28	.49
Overall Emotional Intelligence	20-29 Years	30-39 Years	-.174*	.054	.007	-.31	-.04
		40-49 Years	-.063	.062	.746	-.22	.10
		50+Years	-.149	.096	.413	-.40	.10
	30-39 Years	20-29 Years	.174*	.054	.007	.04	.31
		40-49 Years	.111	.057	.205	-.04	.26
		50+Years	.025	.093	.993	-.22	.27
	40-49 Years	20-29 Years	.063	.062	.746	-.10	.22
		30-39 Years	-.111	.057	.205	-.26	.04
		50+Years	-.086	.098	.816	-.34	.17
	50+Years	20-29 Years	.149	.096	.413	-.10	.40
		30-39 Years	-.025	.093	.993	-.27	.22
		40-49 Years	.086	.098	.816	-.17	.34

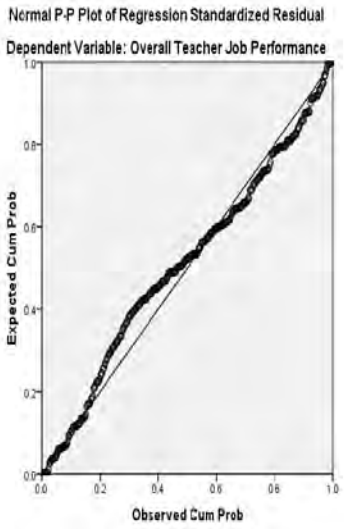
APPENDIX H

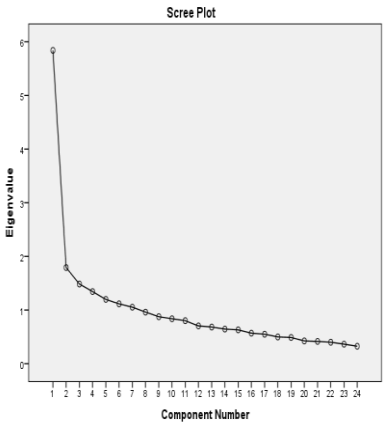
Normality of Data Results



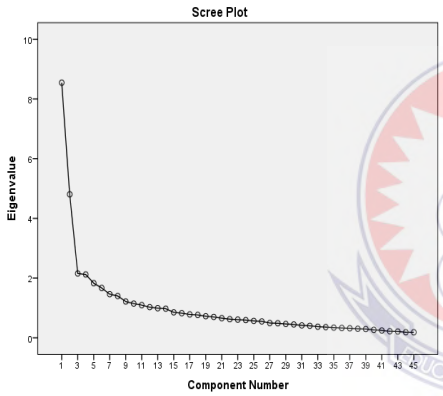




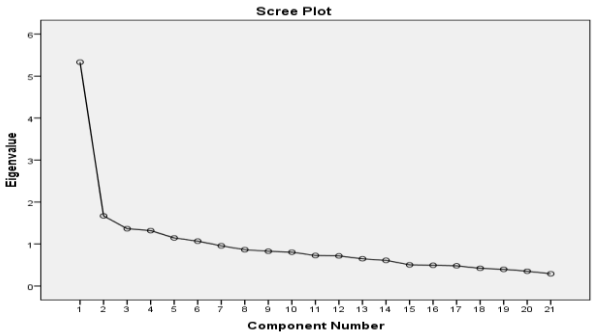




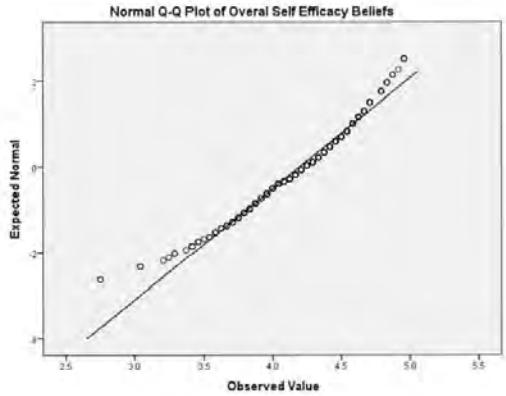
Scree plot for Self-efficacy Beliefs

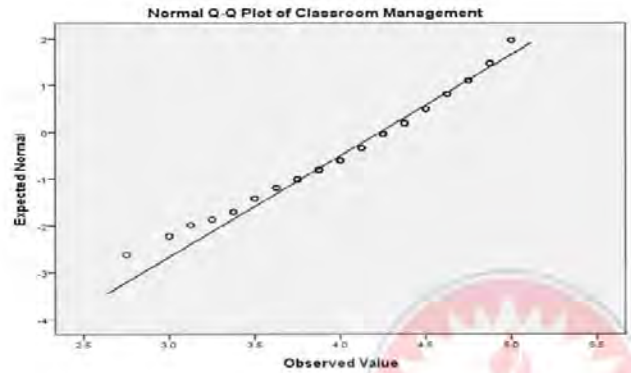


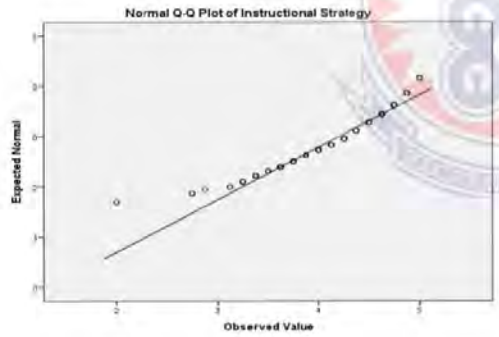
Scree plot for Emotional Intelligence

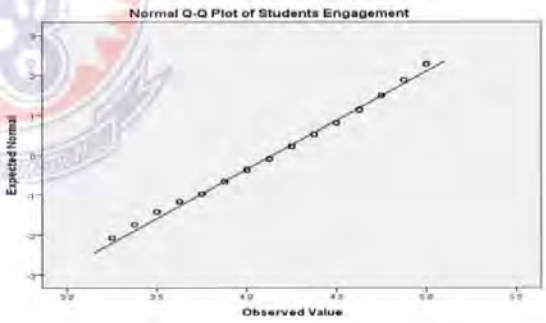


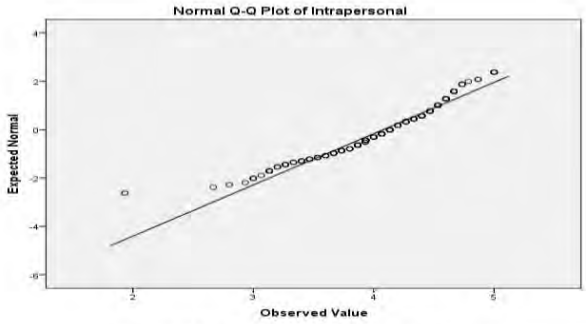
Scree plot for Job Performance

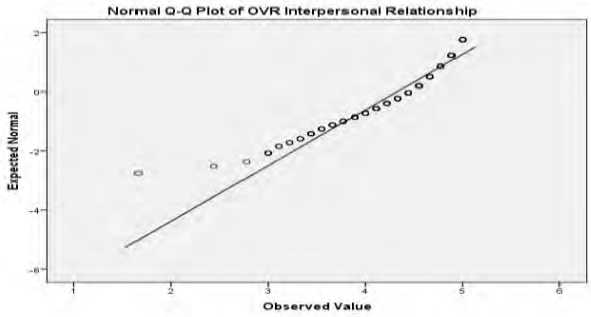


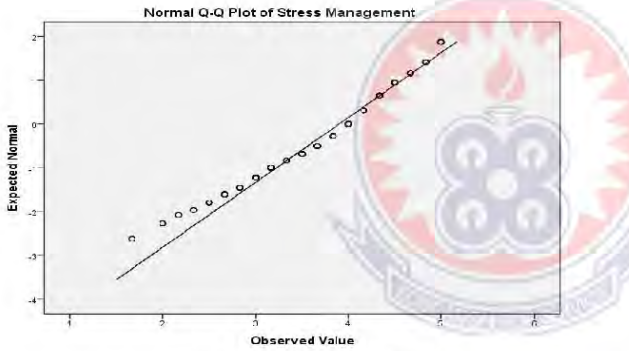


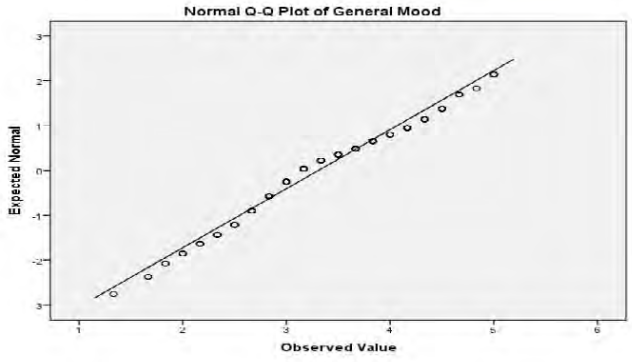


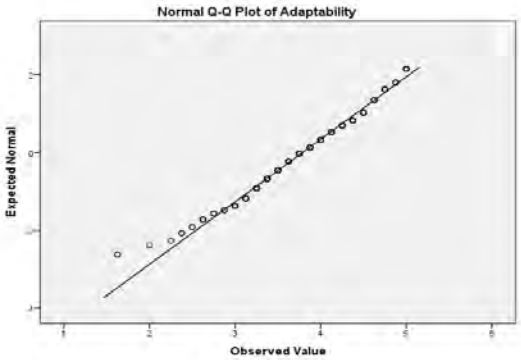


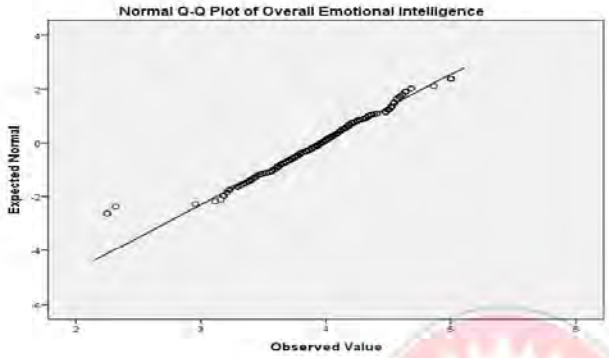


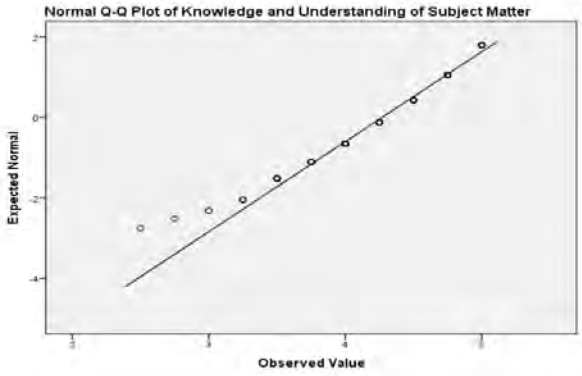


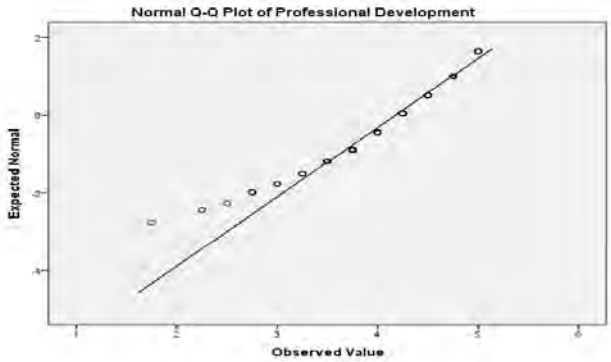


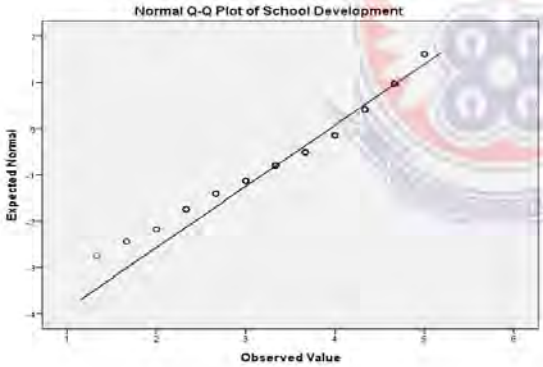


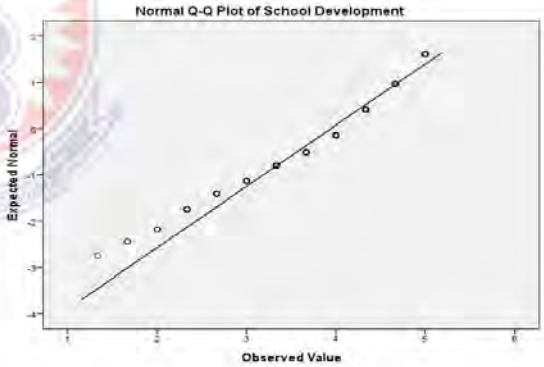


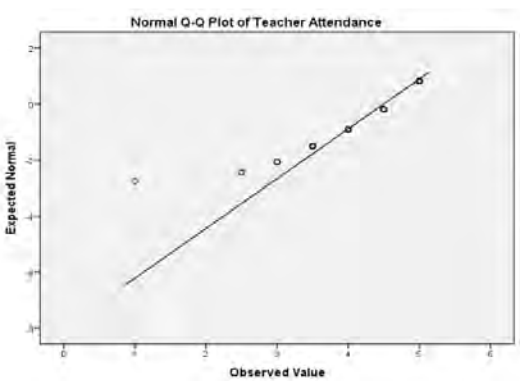


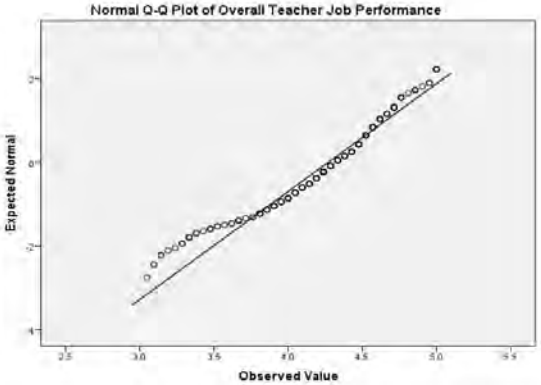












APPENDIX I

Data Exploration Results

	N	
	Valid	Missing
Sex	342	0
Age	342	0
Academic Qualification	342	0
Years of Teaching Experience	342	0
SE1	342	0
SE2	342	0
SE3	342	0
SE4	342	0
SE5	342	0
SE6	342	0
SE7	342	0
SE8	342	0
IS1	342	0
IS2	342	0
IS3	342	0
IS4	342	0
IS5	342	0
IS6	342	0
IS7	342	0
IS8	342	0
CM1	342	0
CM2	342	0
CM3	342	0
CM4	342	0
CM5	342	0
CM6	342	0
CM7	342	0
CM8	342	0
EI1	342	0
EI2	342	0
EI3	342	0
EI4	342	0
EI5	342	0
EI6	342	0
EI7	342	0
EI8	342	0
EI9	342	0
EI10	342	0
EI11	342	0
EI12	342	0
EI13	342	0
EI14	342	0
EI15	342	0
EI16	342	0
EI17	342	0

EI18	342	0
EI19	342	0
EI20	342	0
EI21	342	0
EI22	342	0
EI23	342	0
EI24	342	0
EI25	342	0
EI26	342	0
EI27	342	0
EI28	342	0
EI29	342	0
EI30	342	0
EI31	342	0
EI32	342	0
EI33	342	0
EI34	342	0
EI35	342	0
EI36	342	0
EI37	342	0
EI38	342	0
EI39	342	0
EI40	342	0
EI41	342	0
EI42	342	0
EI43	342	0
EI44	342	0
TPJ1	342	0
TPJ2	342	0
TPJ3	342	0
TPJ4	342	0
TPJ5	342	0
TPJ6	342	0
TPJ7	342	0
TPJ8	342	0
TPJ9	342	0
TPJ10	342	0
TPJ11	342	0
TPJ12	342	0
TPJ13	342	0
TPJ14	342	0
TPJ15	342	0
TPJ16	342	0
TPJ17	342	0
TPJ18	342	0
TPJ19	342	0
TPJ20	342	0
TPJ21	342	0

APPENDIX J

APPROVAL LETTER-GES HEADQUATER, ACCRA

GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

In case of reply the number and date of this letter should be quoted

Republic of Ghana

HEADQUARTERS
Ministry Branch Post Office
P. O. Box M.45
Accra

My Ref. GES/HQTS/PA/22/0101

4th August, 2022.

The Central Regional Director of Education

Dear Madam,

APPROVAL FOR THE CONDUCT OF RESEARCH

The Management of the Ghana Education Service has given approval for a survey in selected Senior High Schools and Basic Schools by staff from the Basic Education Department of the University of Education, Winneba.

The research is to identify the problems militating against the study of Social Studies and Science at the Basic and Senior High School within the region and suggest appropriate measures to address the challenges.

The Leads of the research from the University of Education, Winneba will contact you for further directives including the selection of the schools.

Thank you.

BIRIKORANG FREDERICK
DIRECTOR, PARTNERSHIPS & AFFILIATIONS
***FOR*: DIRECTOR-GENERAL**

cc: Director-General, GES, Acca
The Deputy Director-General, (MS), GES, Accra
The Deputy Director-General, (Q&A), GES, Accra
Director, Schools and Instructions, GES, Accra
Regional Director of Education, GES, Cape Coast.

APPENDIX K

APPROVAL LETTER-GES REGIONAL OFFICE, CAPE COAST

GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

In case of reply the number and date of this letter should be quoted

Republic of Ghana

Regional Education Office
P.O. Box 111
Cape Coast.

Tel.: 03321-32333
Fax: 03321-32333
Email: CENTRAL@GES.GOV.GH
My Ref. No. GES/CR/49/VOL.38/177

1st September, 2022.

Your Ref. No.....

RE: APPROVAL FOR THE CONDUCT OF RESEARCH

The Director-general's letter referenced GES/HQTS/PA/22/0101 dated 4th August, 2022 on the above subject matter indicates that approval has been given for a survey to be conducted in selected Senior High Schools and Basic Schools by staff of the Basic Education Department of the University of Education, Winneba.

The research is to identify the problems militating against the study of Social Studies and Science at the Basic and Senior High Schools within the region and suggest appropriate measures to address the challenges.

By a copy of this letter, all Metro/Municipal/District Directors and heads of Senior High Schools concerned are to ensure that the exercise does not interrupt students' instructional hours.

Please find attached, the selected Senior High Schools for the survey.

Management wishes you a successful survey.

Thank you.

MARTHA OWUSU AGYEMAN (MRS.)
REGIONAL DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
CENTRAL

LEADS OF THE RESEARCH,
DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION,
WINNEBA

Cc: All Metro/Municipal/District Directors of Education, Central Region.
All Heads of Second Cycle Schools, Central Region.

APPENDIX L

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION
P. O. Box 25, Winneba, Ghana
socialstudies@uew.edu.gh
+233 (020) 2041096

23rd June, 2022

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION: MR JOSEPH BENTIL

We write to introduce Mr. Joseph Bentil to your outfit to assist him conduct his research. Mr. Joseph Bentil is pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Social Studies Education in the Department of Social Studies Education of the University of Education, Winneba with index number 202140712.

As part of the requirements for the award of PhD in Social Studies Education, he is undertaking a research on the topic: "*Senior High School Social Studies Teachers Self-Efficacy, Beliefs, Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance in an Era of Curriculum Reforms in Ghana*".

We would be very grateful if he could be offered any assistance he may need to enable him achieve the purpose of his study.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Mrs. Margaret Nyala
***For:* Ag. Head of Department**

APPENDIX M

WASSCE STATISTICS FROM WAEC

THE WEST AFRICAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL, ACCRA

PERFORMANCE STATISTICS FOR WASSCE(SC) FOR SOCIAL STUDIES BY REGIONS (2019 - 2021)

ExYear	Subcode	Subject Name	Regcode	Region Name	EntryFig	Absent	TotSat	A1 - C6	%A1 - C6	D7 - E8	%D7 -E8	F9	%F9
2019													
	214	SOCIAL STUDIES											
			01	Greater Accra	37,131	1,100	36,031	27,866	77.34	5,295	14.70	2,809	7.80
			02	Eastern	48,375	466	47,909	37,800	78.90	7,103	14.83	2,977	6.21
			03	Central	37,859	637	37,222	30,156	81.02	4,709	12.65	2,331	6.26
			04	Western	23,192	208	22,984	19,415	84.47	2,661	11.58	893	3.89
			05	Ashanti	82,401	839	81,562	64,472	79.05	11,942	14.64	4,999	6.13
			06	Brong Ahafo	44,697	480	44,217	38,247	86.50	4,672	10.57	1,263	2.86
			07	Volta	25,744	177	25,567	16,420	64.22	5,528	21.62	3,592	14.05
			08	Northern	24,926	226	24,700	9,948	40.28	6,069	24.57	8,681	35.06
			09	Upper East	13,374	156	13,218	7,430	56.21	3,325	25.16	2,459	18.60
			10	Upper West	8,372	45	8,327	5,788	69.51	1,550	18.61	989	11.88
			Year Total:		346,071	4,334	341,737	257,542	75.36	52,854	15.47	30,973	9.06
2020													
	214	SOCIAL STUDIES											
			01	Greater Accra	37,973	933	37,040	22,934	61.92	5,859	15.82	8,138	21.97
			02	Eastern	56,466	523	55,943	36,632	65.48	8,622	15.41	10,656	19.05
			03	Central	42,946	742	42,204	27,976	66.29	6,095	14.44	8,086	19.16
			04	Western	24,332	201	24,131	17,674	73.24	3,116	12.91	3,320	13.76
			05	Ashanti	87,293	786	86,507	56,532	65.35	13,557	15.67	16,206	18.73
			06	Brong Ahafo	45,295	628	44,667	41,039	91.88	2,458	5.50	1,065	2.38
			07	Volta	34,465	217	34,248	17,757	51.85	6,213	18.14	10,224	29.85
			08	Northern	24,830	246	24,584	7,074	28.77	4,402	17.91	13,049	53.08
			09	Upper East	13,334	156	13,178	6,259	47.50	2,624	19.91	4,259	32.32
			10	Upper West	8,798	67	8,731	4,735	54.23	1,541	17.65	2,451	28.07
			Year Total:		375,732	4,499	371,233	238,612	64.28	54,487	14.68	77,452	20.86

ExYear	Subcode	Subject Name	Regcode	Region Name	EntryFig	Absent	TotSat	A1 - C6	%A1 - C6	D7 - E8	%D7 -E8	F9	%F9
2021													
	214	SOCIAL STUDIES											
			01	Greater Accra	47,598	1,692	45,906	27,721	60.40	8,359	18.21	9,721	21.18
			02	Eastern	65,623	809	64,814	40,101	61.88	12,755	19.68	11,902	18.36
			03	Central	50,320	746	49,574	34,253	69.10	7,920	15.98	7,343	14.81
			04	Western	30,481	289	30,192	20,101	66.60	5,705	18.90	4,353	14.42
			05	Ashanti	108,484	1,157	107,327	77,423	72.13	17,955	16.73	11,754	10.95
			06	Brong Ahafo	58,033	757	57,276	52,513	91.69	3,474	6.07	1,174	2.05
			07	Volta	34,749	328	34,421	17,211	54.78	7,020	22.34	7,158	22.78
			08	Northern	29,152	346	28,806	13,703	47.57	7,697	26.72	7,316	25.40
			09	Upper East	15,545	165	15,380	10,043	65.34	3,035	19.73	2,250	14.63
			10	Upper West	9,338	85	9,253	5,911	63.88	1,774	19.17	1,554	16.79
			Year Total:		446,323	6,374	439,949	299,015	67.97	75,694	17.21	64,505	14.66

THE WEST AFRICAN EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL, ACCRA

PERFORMANCE STATISTICS FOR WASSCE(SC) FOR SOCIAL STUDIES BY REGIONS (2022)

ExYear	Subcode	Subject Name	Regcode	Region Name	EntryFig	Absent	TotSat	A1 - C6	%A1 - C6	D7 - E8	%D7 -E8	F9	%F9
2022													
	214	SOCIAL STUDIES											
			01	Greater Accra	42,156	1,599	40,557	29,986	73.94	5,873	14.48	4,115	10.15
			02	Eastern	59,871	584	59,287	45,089	76.05	7,989	13.48	4,740	8.00
			03	Central	48,477	611	47,866	36,315	75.87	6,116	12.78	4,936	10.31
			04	Western	28,486	236	28,250	22,319	79.01	3,764	13.32	1,713	6.06
			05	Ashanti	104,344	1,357	102,987	79,443	77.14	14,886	14.45	7,636	7.41
			06	Brong Ahafo	60,199	761	59,438	51,666	86.92	4,922	8.28	991	1.67
			07	Volta	34,087	252	33,835	21,486	63.50	6,247	18.46	5,525	16.33
			08	Northern	23,814	273	23,541	9,980	42.39	6,377	27.09	7,120	30.25
			09	Upper East	13,874	99	13,775	7,932	57.58	2,851	20.70	2,275	16.52
			10	Upper West	7,783	68	7,715	5,406	70.07	1,327	17.20	967	12.53
			Year Total:		**423,091**	**5,840**	**417,251**	**309,622**	**74.21**	**60,352**	**14.46**	**40,018**	**9.59**