

Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of Teacher Self-Efficacy Among Religious and Moral Education Teachers in the Accra Metropolis

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Abstract

This study investigated emotional intelligence as a predictor of teacher self-efficacy among Religious and Moral Education (RME) teachers in public basic schools in the Accra Metropolis, Ghana. Guided by the ability model of emotional intelligence and Bandura's self-efficacy theory, the study adopted a cross-sectional descriptive survey design within the positivist paradigm. A census strategy was employed to include all 441 RME teachers in the metropolis. Data were collected using adapted versions of the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). Data were analysed using descriptive statistics and Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). The findings revealed that RME teachers exhibited high levels of emotional intelligence. Similarly, the teachers demonstrated high levels of teacher self-efficacy in instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement. Finally, the study found that emotional intelligence significantly and positively predicted teacher self-efficacy. It was recommended that the Ghana Education Service and Colleges of Education integrate structured emotional intelligence training covering self-emotion appraisal, appraisal of others' emotions, use of emotion, and emotion regulation into pre-service teacher education curricula and in-service professional development programmes for RME teachers.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence; Teacher self-efficacy; Religious and Moral Education; Public basic schools; Accra Metropolis.

To cite this article: Acquah, A. (2026). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of teacher self-efficacy among Religious and Moral Education teachers in the Accra Metropolis. *Ghana Journal of Education and Teaching*, 14(3), 149-171.

Introduction

The quality of classroom instruction is shaped not only by teachers' command of subject matter but also by a constellation of psychological attributes that shape how they respond to the complex social, emotional, and intellectual demands of teaching (Bardach, Klassen & Perry, 2021). Among these psychological characteristics, emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy have attracted increasing scholarly attention for their demonstrated influence on teachers' classroom practices, professional well-being, and, ultimately, student learning outcomes (Bardach et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022). A recent systematic review and meta-analysis of 31 empirical studies reported a moderate positive pooled correlation between teaching competence and emotional intelligence, underscoring the centrality of emotional intelligence in teacher development (Sarkar & Bhattacharyya, 2026). Similarly, a multilevel analysis of an emotional intelligence development programme for future teachers confirmed that improving teachers' emotional capacities led to significant gains in their instructional effectiveness and academic performance (Poveda-Brotons, Izquierdo, Perez-Soto & Moliner, 2024).

Emotional intelligence (EI) is the ability to perceive, appraise, and express emotions accurately; to access and generate feelings that facilitate thinking; to understand emotional information; and to regulate emotions to promote both emotional and intellectual growth (Valente, Lourenço, Domínguez-Lara & Monteiro, 2022). This ability-based model is widely regarded as the most effective framework for understanding emotional intelligence in educational settings because it provides a rigorous conceptual basis for definition and measurement (Valente, Lourenço, Domínguez-Lara & Biscaia, 2023). In the classroom, teachers' emotional intelligence enables them to navigate their own emotions, regulate interpersonal dynamics with students, and create supportive learning environments that foster prosocial behaviour and engagement (Andrei, 2023; Valente et al., 2022). Research further indicates that teachers with higher emotional intelligence demonstrate greater capacity for classroom management, enhanced student engagement, and stronger teacher-student relationships (Channa et al., 2025; Kostić-Bobanović, 2020).

Teacher self-efficacy (TSE), grounded in Bandura's social cognitive theory, refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations (Zee & Koomen, 2016). In educational contexts, teacher self-efficacy has been operationalised as a three-dimensional construct comprising efficacy for instructional strategies, classroom management, and student engagement (Sarfo, Amankwah, Sam & Cudjoe, 2015; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Teachers with high self-efficacy tend to be more persistent, implement innovative curricula more effectively, and demonstrate greater classroom effectiveness than those with lower self-efficacy (Agormedah, Ankomah, Frimpong & Boadu, 2022; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Empirical evidence from Ghana indicates that teachers generally exhibit high self-efficacy in domains such as student engagement and instructional strategy, although classroom management efficacy tends to be comparatively lower (Agormedah et al., 2022). Notably, demographic characteristics such as gender, age, years of teaching experience, and school location have all been shown to significantly influence Ghanaian teachers' self-efficacy levels (Agormedah et al., 2022; Owusu & Arthur, 2025; Sarfo et al., 2015).

The relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy has become a focal concern in contemporary educational research. Harun (2017) found that specific sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence (well-being, sociality, and self-esteem) significantly predicted pre-service teachers' self-efficacy, whereas other dimensions (self-control and emotionality) did not. Valente and colleagues (Valente et al., 2020), using structural equation modelling with a sample of 634 Portuguese school teachers, demonstrated that teachers with greater capacity to perceive, express, and manage emotions reported higher levels of teacher efficacy. Likewise, Kostić-Bobanović (2020) reported that experienced foreign language teachers scored significantly higher than novice teachers in both emotional intelligence and self-efficacy for classroom management, confirming a positive association between the two constructs. A meta-analytic review by Wang et al. (2022) synthesised these findings, reporting correlations between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy ranging from $r = 0.15$ to $r = 0.79$, depending on the populations studied and the instruments used. In Ghana specifically, Acquah and Agbo (2024) established that emotional intelligence significantly affected senior high school economics teachers' self-efficacy in teaching. Owusu and Arthur (2025) further demonstrated that emotional intelligence significantly influenced the self-efficacy of mathematics teachers in Cape Coast, with notable gender differences in the magnitude of effects.

Religious and Moral Education (RME) occupies a particularly important place within the Ghanaian basic school curriculum. The subject aims to instil the knowledge and values needed to make individuals responsible and resourceful members of society (Boafo Adam & Twene, 2024). RME covers the tenets of Christianity, Islam, and African Traditional Religion in the Ghanaian context and aims to cultivate the attitudes and values needed to solve personal and societal problems, develop critical thinking skills, and foster civic responsibility (Asare-Danso, 2018; Tawiah et al., 2025). Given the broad socio-moral goals it seeks to achieve, the effectiveness of RME depends heavily on the teacher's personal qualities, including disposition, values, and pedagogical confidence (Andrei, 2023).

Studies from the Ghanaian context have consistently reported that implementing RME is beset by a number of challenges. Boafo, Adam, and Twene (2024) identified a scarcity of textbooks and a shortage of professionally trained teachers as the principal barriers to RME delivery. Twene and Anderson (2025) further noted that RME is widely perceived as an easy subject, which has led many educators to enter the field without adequate training or qualifications, thereby undermining the quality of instruction. Oku and Xenyo (2025) added that inadequate teaching and learning resources, the non-availability of libraries, and the predominant reliance on teacher-centred methods are persistent challenges in basic schools. Amponsah (2023) similarly reported that many RME teachers in the Mfantseman District lacked adequate training, leading to poor teaching practices and low student engagement. Tawiah, Addai-Mensah, and Opoku (2025) identified a gap between the intended RME curriculum and its practical implementation, with teachers lamenting resource shortages and disciplinary constraints, despite reaffirming their commitment to imparting moral values.

The Accra Metropolis, as Ghana's political and administrative capital and one of the most densely populated educational regions, hosts a significant concentration of basic schools and RME teachers (Agormedah et al., 2022). Anecdotal evidence from education stakeholders in the metropolis suggests that RME teachers often shoulder a particularly heavy emotional and pedagogical burden

because of the subject's value-laden nature and the diverse religious backgrounds of their learners (Andrei, 2023; Tawiah et al., 2025). However, despite the centrality of RME to Ghana's moral regeneration agenda, there remains a paucity of empirical research examining the personal and psychological characteristics that determine the professional efficacy of RME teachers.

Although the literature on emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy in Ghana has grown substantially in recent years, existing studies have focused primarily on teachers of subjects such as Social Studies (Bentil et al., 2025), Economics (Acquah & Agbo, 2024), Mathematics (Owusu & Arthur, 2025), and English Language (Bentil, 2025). Very few studies have examined these constructs among Religious and Moral Education teachers, and it appears that no study has been conducted specifically in the Accra Metropolis. This represents a significant gap in the literature, particularly because RME teachers are expected to model the very emotional and moral competencies they teach. This study, therefore, sought to investigate whether emotional intelligence predicts self-efficacy among Religious and Moral Education teachers in the Accra Metropolis. By focusing on this population, the study addresses a gap in the literature, contributes to the body of knowledge on teacher characteristics in Ghanaian basic education, and has practical implications for the design of continuous professional development programmes for RME teachers.

Teachers' psychological characteristics, particularly emotional intelligence and self-efficacy, are increasingly recognised as determinants of instructional effectiveness, classroom management, and student outcomes (Bardach et al., 2021; Poveda-Brotons et al., 2024). However, empirical evidence on these constructs has largely been drawn from teachers of core academic subjects such as Mathematics, English, and the Sciences, with relatively little attention to teachers of value-laden subjects such as Religious and Moral Education (Acquah & Agbo, 2024; Bentil, 2025; Owusu & Arthur, 2025). This observation is significant because RME teachers work in classrooms where emotional regulation, interpersonal sensitivity, and personal conviction are integral to the learning process (Andrei, 2023; Tawiah et al., 2025).

The implementation of Religious and Moral Education in Ghana has been marked by persistent challenges. Studies have consistently reported an inadequate supply of trained RME teachers, a scarcity of instructional materials, over-reliance on teacher-centred pedagogy, and low student engagement (Amponsah, 2023; Bofo et al., 2024; Oku & Xenyo, 2025). While recent research in Ghana has documented moderate to high levels of self-efficacy among teachers across various subject areas (Agormedah et al., 2022; Boateng et al., 2019; Sarfo et al., 2015), the specific self-efficacy profile of RME teachers has not been systematically examined. Likewise, although meta-analytic evidence strongly supports a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy across cultures and subject disciplines (Sarkar & Bhattacharyya, 2026; Wang et al., 2022), the extent to which this relationship holds among RME teachers in Ghana, particularly in the Accra metropolitan context, remains empirically uncertain.

This knowledge gap has practical consequences. If emotional intelligence meaningfully predicts RME teachers' self-efficacy, in-service training programmes, recruitment policies, and continuous professional development activities by the Ghana Education Service could be redesigned to deliberately incorporate emotional intelligence-building components, such as self-awareness, empathy, emotion regulation, and relationship management (Andrei, 2023; Valente et al., 2022).

Conversely, if emotional intelligence does not significantly predict RME teachers' self-efficacy, alternative variables such as subject-matter knowledge, resource availability, or institutional support may warrant greater attention in teacher development frameworks (Boafo et al., 2024; Twene & Anderson, 2025). Without empirical evidence from the Ghanaian RME teaching context, policymakers and stakeholders in education operate on assumptions rather than data.

In the Accra Metropolis, RME teachers contend with large class sizes, learners from diverse religious and cultural backgrounds, and a curriculum that demands both subject competence and exemplary moral conduct (Agormedah et al., 2022; Tawiah et al., 2025). These conditions create an emotionally demanding work environment in which teachers' capacity to perceive, understand, and manage emotions may be a critical determinant of their confidence and effectiveness in the classroom (Channa et al., 2025; Valente et al., 2020). Against this background, this study was conducted to determine whether emotional intelligence predicts self-efficacy among Religious and Moral Education teachers in the Accra Metropolis. The following research questions and hypotheses were formulated to guide the study.

Research Questions

1. What is the level of emotional intelligence among RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis?
2. What is the level of teacher self-efficacy among RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis?

Hypothesis

The article is based on the hypothesis, which is synthesised from literature sources.

H₀: Emotional intelligence will not significantly predict teacher self-efficacy of RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis.

H₁: Emotional intelligence will significantly predict teacher self-efficacy of RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis.

Theoretical Foundations

This study is anchored in two theories, namely Mayer and Salovey's (1997) Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence, which underpins the construct of emotional intelligence and the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) used in the study, and Bandura's (1977) Self-Efficacy Theory, which underpins the construct of teacher self-efficacy and the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001).

Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence

The first theory underpinning this study is the Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence, developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and later refined by Mayer and Salovey (1997). Emotional intelligence (EI) was originally defined as 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 action (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The 1997 refinement conceptualises EI as a genuine form of intelligence comprising a set of interrelated mental abilities concerned with processing emotional information, rather than as a fixed personality trait (Mayer et al., 2016).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) organise EI into four hierarchically arranged branches, ordered from basic psychological processes to higher, more psychologically integrated processes. The first branch, perceiving emotion, is the ability to accurately identify emotions in oneself and others through facial expressions, vocal tone, language, and other stimuli. The second branch, using emotion to facilitate thought, is the capacity to harness emotions to support cognitive activities such as reasoning, problem-solving, and creative thinking. The third branch, understanding emotions, involves comprehending emotional information, including how emotions combine, progress, and transition from one state to another, as well as the capacity to label and interpret complex or mixed emotions. The fourth and most advanced branch, managing emotions, denotes the ability to remain open to feelings and to regulate them in oneself and others in ways that promote personal growth, sound decision-making, and positive interpersonal outcomes (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2016).

These four branches are theorised to develop sequentially, with the perception and use of emotion (referred to as “experiential EI”) forming the foundation upon which understanding and managing emotion (referred to as “strategic EI”) are built (Mayer et al., 2016). The ability model is distinguished from “mixed models” of EI, such as those proposed by Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1995), which combine emotional abilities with personality traits, motivation, and social skills (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). By framing EI strictly as a set of cognitive-emotional abilities, the Mayer and Salovey model offers a precise and theoretically parsimonious lens for examining how teachers perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions in the classroom.

The Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence is directly relevant to this study because the instrument used to measure RME teachers’ emotional intelligence, the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS), was developed by Wong and Law (2002) based on the four-dimensional structure derived from this ability-based conceptualisation of EI. The WLEIS operationalises EI along four corresponding dimensions, namely self-emotion appraisal, others’ emotion appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion, which mirror the perceiving, understanding, facilitating, and managing branches articulated by Mayer and Salovey (1997). This theoretical congruence between the instrument and the underlying model strengthens the validity of using the WLEIS to assess the first research question regarding the level of RME teachers’ emotional intelligence in the Accra Metropolis.

Furthermore, the Ability Model provides the conceptual basis for hypothesising that emotional intelligence will predict teacher self-efficacy (H_0). Teaching is an emotionally demanding profession that requires teachers to accurately perceive students’ emotional states, use emotional information to guide instructional decisions, understand the emotional dynamics of the classroom, and regulate their own emotional responses under pressure (Wang, 2022). RME teachers, in particular, are tasked with nurturing values, morality, and spirituality, a role that places sustained emotional demands on them as they navigate sensitive religious and moral content with diverse learners. According to the Ability Model, teachers who are more skilled at perceiving, facilitating, understanding, and managing emotions are theorised to approach the complex emotional terrain of teaching with greater confidence, thereby strengthening their sense of teacher self-efficacy (Wang, 2022; Drigas & Papoutsis, 2018).

Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory

The second theory underpinning this study is Bandura's (1977) Self-Efficacy Theory. Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as an individual's belief in their capability to organise and execute the courses of action required to achieve specific outcomes. Self-efficacy beliefs are theorised to be among the most powerful predictors of human motivation and behaviour because they determine the goals people set for themselves, the effort they invest, their persistence in the face of obstacles, and their resilience when confronted with failure (Bandura, 1997).

Bandura (1997) proposed that self-efficacy beliefs are constructed from four principal sources of information. The first and most influential source is mastery experience, which refers to an individual's direct successes and failures in performing a task; successful performances raise self-efficacy, whereas repeated failures, particularly early in the development of a sense of efficacy, tend to lower it. The second source, vicarious experience, involves observing others, especially perceived peers or role models, successfully perform a task, which can strengthen the observer's belief in their own capability to accomplish similar tasks. The third source, verbal persuasion, refers to encouragement, feedback, and affirming statements from credible others that a person possesses the capabilities to succeed. The fourth source, physiological and affective states, concerns how individuals interpret their bodily and emotional reactions, such as anxiety, stress, or calmness, when evaluating their capability to perform a given task (Bandura, 1997).

In the teaching profession, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) operationalised Bandura's general self-efficacy construct as the domain-specific teacher self-efficacy (TSE), defined as a teacher's judgement of their capabilities to achieve desired outcomes in student engagement and learning, even with students who may be difficult or unmotivated. This conceptualisation led to the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), which measures three interrelated dimensions of teacher self-efficacy: efficacy for instructional strategies, efficacy for classroom management, and efficacy for student engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

Bandura's Self-Efficacy Theory is directly relevant to this study because it forms the theoretical foundation for the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, the instrument used to measure RME teachers' teacher self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The theory provides the conceptual basis for addressing the second research question on the level of RME teachers' teacher self-efficacy, as well as for interpreting teachers' efficacy beliefs across the instructional, classroom management, and student engagement dimensions captured in the twenty-four-item TSES.

Importantly, Bandura's theory also offers a critical pathway for understanding the hypothesised relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher self-efficacy. This is because physiological and affective states constitute one of the four sources from which self-efficacy beliefs are formed (Bandura, 1997). Teachers' capacity to perceive, understand, and regulate their own emotions, that is, their emotional intelligence, can be theorised to shape how they interpret their affective states while teaching, and consequently, how confident they feel in their instructional abilities. A teacher who can manage classroom-related stress, anxiety, or frustration through emotional regulation is, according to Bandura's framework, more likely to interpret their physiological and affective experiences favourably, thereby reinforcing rather than undermining their self-efficacy beliefs (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009; Wang, 2022). This theoretical linkage

provides strong justification for examining emotional intelligence as a predictor of teacher self-efficacy among RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis.

Methodology

Research design and participants

A cross-sectional descriptive survey design was used in this study. Descriptive survey research involves collecting and analysing responses from a large sample of people to polls and questionnaires designed to elicit their opinions, attitudes and sentiments about a particular issue (Sileyew, 2019; Siedlecki, 2020; Queirós, Faria, & Almeida, 2017). The design, premised on the positivist paradigm, allows researchers to use quantitative measures to describe the views, opinions, and characteristics of a sample and generalise these to a population. All public basic (primary and junior high) school RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis constituted the population for this study. The teachers were the target of the study because they are best placed to respond to items in the instrument that the study sought to measure. According to the Education Management Information System (2026), there are 441 RME teachers in the eight (8) circuits in the Metropolis, which has seventy-two (72) basic schools. A census strategy was employed to involve all 441 RME teachers in the study (MacDonald, 2020). The census method allowed the researcher to include all elements within the population in the study. This strengthens generalisation claims and eliminates sampling errors (Babbie, Wagner & Zaino, 2022). Table 1 details the demographic characteristics of the RME teachers.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Teachers (N=441)

Variable	Sub-scale	No.	%
Gender	Male	207	46.9
	Female	234	53.1
Age	20-30 years	110	24.9
	31-40 years	220	49.9
	41-50years	89	20.2
	51-60 years	22	5.0
	Diploma	89	20.2
Highest Academic Qualification	First Degree	340	77.1
	Master's Degree	12	2.7
	1-5 years	141	32.0
Number of Years of Teaching	6-10 years	99	22.4
	11-15 years	90	20.4
	16-20 years	65	14.7
	More than 20 years	46	10.4
Religious Affiliation	Christianity	354	80.3
	African Traditional Religion	43	9.8
	Islamic Religion	44	10.0

Measures

Data on Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Teacher Self-Efficacy (TSE) were collected using a questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised 45 items, categorised into three sections. Section “A” contained 5 items that collected participants’ demographic data. Section “B” assessed the level of RME teachers’ emotional intelligence using an adapted version of the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS), developed by Wong and Law (2002). The WLEIS comprised 16 items and four sub-scales (4 items for self-emotion appraisal, 4 for others’ emotion appraisal, 4 for use of emotion, and 4 for regulation of emotion). Section “C” assessed the level of RME teachers’ teacher self-efficacy using an adapted version of the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001). The TSES comprised 24 items and three sub-scales (8 items for instructional strategies efficacy, 8 for classroom management efficacy, and 8 for students’ engagement efficacy). All items in Sections “B” and “C” were measured on a 5-point scale: 5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Uncertain, 2 = Disagree, and 1 = Strongly Disagree.

Validity and reliability

Before the main data collection, face and content validity were assessed with the help of two faculty members at the University of Education, who are experts in quantitative instrument construction. The instrument was scrutinised to ensure it could measure and relate to the variables of interest for the study. Internal consistency of the instrument was also established. A pilot test was conducted with 105 RME teachers from public basic schools in Effutu Municipality. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients for the Emotional Intelligence sub-scales were determined as: Self-Emotion Appraisal (SEA) = 0.78; Others’ Emotion Appraisal (OEA) = 0.88; Use of Emotion (UoE) = 0.86, and Regulation of Emotion (RoE) = 0.84. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficients for the Teacher self-efficacy sub-scales were determined as: Instructional Strategies Efficacy (ISE) = 0.96; Classroom Management Efficacy (CME) = 0.95, and Students Engagement Efficacy (SEE) = 0.95. The overall reliability coefficient for the instrument before the main data collection was determined as 0.98. It is essential to note that the pilot test was conducted on 13th April, 2026.

Test of the measurement model (outer model)

Measurement biases were assessed by testing the construct reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity of the reflective measures of the latent variables (Hair et al., 2017). Table 2 and Figure 1 present the results.

Construct reliability and convergent validity

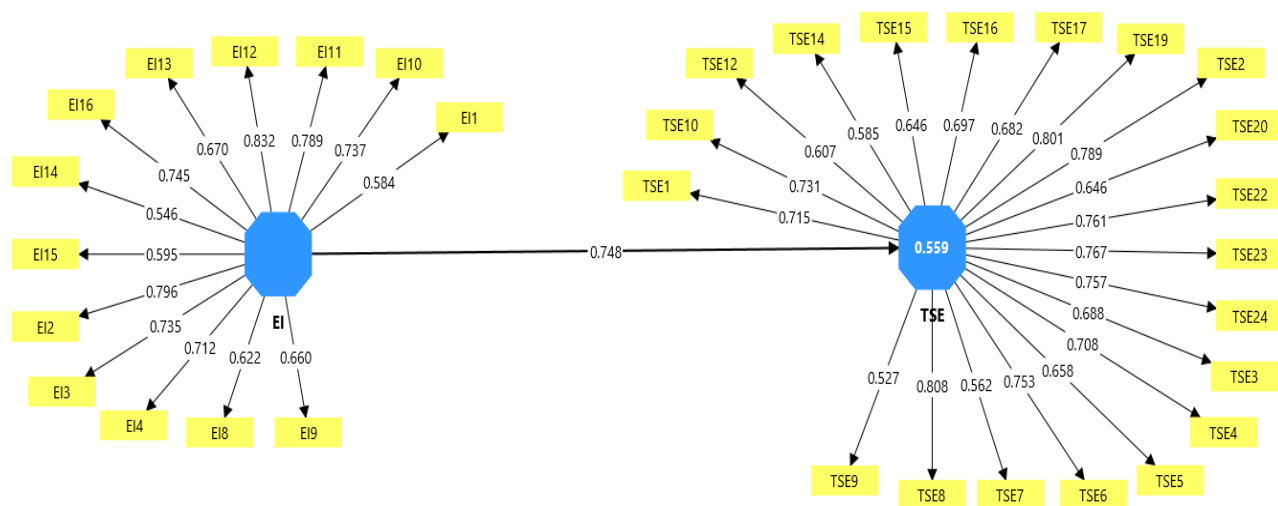
The measurement models were examined to assess the construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the reflective measures of the latent variables (Hair et al., 2014). Tables 2 and 3 present the values for the tests of construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the variables.

Table 2: Construct Reliability and Convergent Validity

Variable	Item	Factor Loading	α	rho_a	rho_c	AVE
EI	13	0.546-0.832	0.904	0.914	0.919	0.586
TSE	20	0.527-0.808	0.944	0.950	0.952	0.591

Key: EI = Emotional Intelligence, TSE = Teacher Self-Efficacy.

In Table 2, the factor loadings for emotional intelligence ranged from 0.546 to 0.832, and those for teacher self-efficacy ranged from 0.527 to 0.808. These values were above 0.50, providing evidence of convergent validity. Thus, all items represent the underlying constructs (Hair et al., 2017; Vinzi et al., 2010). Furthermore, the internal consistencies of the latent variables were good, with Cronbach's alpha values ranging from 0.904 to 0.944. Composite reliabilities (rho_a and rho_c) ranged from 0.914 to 0.950 for emotional intelligence and from 0.919 to 0.952 for teacher self-efficacy. These reliabilities were above the threshold of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2017). Finally, the average variance extracted (AVE) values ranged from 0.586 to 0.591, which were above the acceptable threshold of 0.5, indicating acceptable levels of convergent validity for all constructs (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009). Figure 1 presents the structural model for the PLS-SEM algorithm, and Table 3 provides the results for discriminant validity using the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT).

**Figure 1: PLS-SEM Algorithm Results****Table 3: Discriminant Validity**

Construct	EI	TSE
Fornell-Larcker Criterion		
EI	0.700	
TSE	0.750	0.771
Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio		
EI		
TSE	0.776	

Key: EI = Emotional Intelligence, TSE = Teacher Self-Efficacy.

Discriminant validity of the model was established in Table 3. The square roots of the AVE were 0.700 for emotional intelligence and 0.771 for teacher self-efficacy (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2017). In addition, using the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio, discriminant validity was

confirmed because the HTMT ratio values were below the threshold of .850 or .90 (Collier, 2020; Henseler et al., 2015). The implication is that the constructs in the model are distinct from one another.

Data collection procedures and ethical considerations

To ensure a high return rate, the instrument was administered by the researcher with the assistance of seven field research assistants. Four of the field research assistants were master's students at the University of Education, Winneba, and the remaining three were national service personnel at the same university. The researcher organised two days of online training for the research assistants. The training was conducted via Google Meet and lasted one hour each day. The training focused on the purpose of the study, understanding the items, and how to administer the questionnaire. After the training, each research assistant was assigned to one circuit. To collect the data within a period of three weeks (20th April to 8th May, 2026), research assistants who had finished retrieving their questionnaires from their respective schools were encouraged to help colleagues with more schools. During data collection, participants were given detailed explanations of the study, particularly its purpose and the need to be involved. Stringent ethical protocols were followed to ensure that the conduct of the study aligned with the ethical principles laid down by the University of Education, Winneba (UEW) Ethical Review Board. Consent was obtained from all respondents before administering the questionnaire. In addition, written informed consent to publish the study was obtained. Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any time. Efforts were made to maintain the confidentiality of respondents' responses. Participants were assured that their responses would be kept confidential and that no one known to them would have access to the information provided. During data collection, the researcher maintained regular communication with the field research assistants about the progress of data collection. Four hundred and forty-one (441) questionnaires were distributed and retrieved. The questionnaires were placed in an envelope and kept in a cabinet to prevent loss after data collection.

Data processing and analysis

After collecting the quantitative data, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 27.0 was used for data coding, entry, and cleaning. Before coding, entry, and cleaning, the Emotional Intelligence (EI) items were coded as "EI1 to EI16". Following that, the Teacher Self-Efficacy (TSE) items were coded as "TSE1 to TSE24". Coding the items in this order, as initially stated, made it easier for the researcher to identify the correct items for each variable. SPSS-generated means and standard deviations were used to analyse the research questions. Afterwards, the researcher imported the SPSS data into SMART PLS (version 4.1.1.7). PLS-SEM statistics were used to analyse the hypotheses formulated to guide the study. Using SMART PLS (version 4.1.1.7) statistical software, data for this study were analysed through Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM). This technique was chosen for its effectiveness in handling complex statistical models that incorporate multiple latent and observed variables. The analysis involved assessing both the measurement model and the structural model. The reliability of the measurement model was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability, while convergent validity was assessed through the average variance extracted (AVE). In the same vein,

discriminant validity was examined using three key criteria: the Fornell-Larcker criterion, the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT), and the uniqueness of the latent variables.

Results

Level of Emotional Intelligence among RME Teachers in the Accra Metropolis

The first research question sought to find out the level of RME teachers' emotional intelligence in the Accra Metropolis. The mean scores and the overall mean were interpreted as follows: 1.0-1.9 (Low), 2.0-3.4 (Moderate) and 3.5-5.0 (High). The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Level of RME Teachers' Emotional Intelligence

Self-Emotion Appraisal		
Statement	M	SD
I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.	4.26	0.54
I have a good understanding of my own emotions.	4.40	0.63
I really understand what I feel.	4.35	0.58
I always know whether I am happy or not.	4.38	0.66
Average	4.36	0.61
Others' Emotion Appraisal		
Statement	M	SD
I always know the emotions of my friends from their behaviour.	4.15	0.58
I am a good observer of others' emotions.	4.04	0.68
I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	4.05	0.59
I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	4.16	0.58
Average	4.10	0.63
Use of Emotion		
Statement	M	SD
I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	4.50	0.59
I always tell myself I am a competent teacher.	4.25	0.66
I am a self-motivated teacher.	4.37	0.63
I would always encourage myself to try my best.	4.52	0.55
Average	4.41	0.62
Regulation of Emotion		
Statement	M	SD
I can control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	4.30	0.61
I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	4.35	0.48
I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	4.17	0.79
I have good control of my own emotions.	4.27	0.83
Average	4.28	0.68

Table 4 presents the level of RME teachers' emotional intelligence. The items measuring teachers' emotional intelligence are grouped into four sub-scales: self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion and regulation of emotion. For self-emotion appraisal, many ($M=4.26$; $SD=0.54$) of the teachers agreed that they have a good sense of why they have certain feelings most of the time. This implies that the RME teachers are perceived as emotionally aware and empathetic towards their students. Specifically, it suggests that teachers can recognise, understand,

and correctly interpret the emotional experiences of their students. Also, the majority ($M=4.40$; $SD=0.63$) agreed that they have a good understanding of their own emotions, and their responses were homogeneous. Taken together, the responses ($M=4.36$; $SD=0.61$) show that RME teachers have high levels of self-emotion appraisal.

Looking at the items under others' emotion appraisal, it emerged that most teachers agreed that they always know their friends' emotions from their behaviour ($M=4.15$; $SD=0.58$). This suggests that teachers can recognise and interpret their friends' emotional states by observing their verbal and non-verbal behaviours. Also, most teachers agreed that they have a good understanding of the emotions of people around them, and their responses were homogeneous ($M=4.16$; $SD=0.58$). This implies that they perceive themselves as possessing a high level of social awareness, which is a key component of emotional intelligence. It can be observed that the RME teachers have high levels of others' emotion appraisal ($M=4.10$; $SD=0.63$).

Additionally, regarding the use of emotions, the majority of the teachers agreed that they always set goals for themselves and then try their best to achieve them, and their responses clustered around the mean ($M=4.50$, $SD=0.59$). This shows that RME teachers have the expertise to manage their emotions to the point that they do not allow those emotions to prevent them from achieving the goals they set for themselves. In the same direction, the teachers agreed that they would always encourage themselves to try their best ($M=4.52$; $SD=0.55$), and their responses were homogeneous. The composite means and standard deviation scores ($M=4.41$, $SD=0.62$) for the use of emotion show that RME teachers have high levels of use of emotions.

On the items for the last sub-scale for emotional intelligence, the results show that most of the teachers agreed that they can control their temper and handle difficulties rationally ($M=4.30$; $SD=0.61$). The results imply that RME teachers possess a strong level of self-regulation. It was not surprising that most RME teachers agreed that they are quite capable of controlling their own emotions ($M=4.35$; $SD=0.48$), with no differences in their responses. The overall mean of means and standard deviation scores ($M=4.28$; $SD=0.68$) for regulation of emotion shows that RME teachers have high levels of regulation of emotion. Taken together, the results of the four sub-scales (self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, use of emotion, and regulation of emotion) of emotional intelligence indicate that RME teachers have a high level of emotional intelligence.

Level of Teacher Self-efficacy Among RME Teachers in the Accra Metropolis

The second research question sought to find out the level of RME teachers' self-efficacy in the Accra Metropolis. The mean scores and the overall mean were interpreted as follows: 1.0-1.9 (Low), 2.0-3.4 (Moderate) and 3.5-5.0 (High). The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Level of RME Teachers' Self-Efficacy

Instructional Strategies Efficacy		
Statement	M	SD
I can use a variety of assessment strategies.	4.35	0.53
I can provide an alternative explanation when students are confused.	4.47	0.55
I can craft good questions for my students.	4.48	0.59
I can implement alternative strategies in my classroom.	4.50	0.56
I can respond to difficult questions from my students.	4.45	0.58
I can adjust my lessons to the proper level for each individual student.	4.39	0.54
I can measure student comprehension of what I have taught.	4.28	0.55
I can provide appropriate, challenging tasks for very capable students.	4.40	0.54
Average	4.42	0.66
Classroom Management Efficacy		
Statement	M	SD
I can control disruptive behaviour in the classroom.	4.41	0.54
I can do much to get my students to follow classroom rules.	4.45	0.59
I can do much to calm my student who is disruptive.	4.32	0.61
I can establish a classroom management system with each group of students.	4.50	0.54
I can keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson.	4.33	0.68
I can respond to disobedient students.	4.23	0.61
I can make my expectations clear about student behaviour to a large extent.	4.30	0.56
I can establish routines to keep activities running smoothly.	4.58	0.53
Average	4.46	0.81
Students Engagement Efficacy		
Statement	M	SD
I can get my students to believe that they can do well in schoolwork.	4.43	0.58
I can help my students to value learning.	4.47	0.59
I can motivate my students who show low interest in schoolwork.	4.33	0.52
I can assist families in helping their children do well in school.	4.25	0.53
I can improve the understanding of my student who is failing.	4.38	0.48
I can help my students think critically.	4.25	0.58
I can foster student creativity.	4.58	0.56
I can get through to the most difficult students.	4.30	0.59
Average	4.37	0.59

Results on the level of RME teachers' self-efficacy are presented in Table 5. Given the table's structure, attention was paid to reporting results for the self-efficacy items as they appear on the sub-scales, namely, instructional strategies efficacy, classroom management efficacy and students' engagement efficacy. In response to the statement that 'I can craft good questions for my students', the results showed that most RME teachers agreed, with no differences in their responses ($M=4.48$; $SD=0.59$). This finding indicates that RME teachers specify how students should respond to

questions by making each question clear and allocating marks to each one. It was observed that most RME teachers agreed that they can use a variety of assessment strategies, and their responses were homogeneous ($M=4.35$, $SD=0.53$). This means that most RME teachers possess adequate knowledge and skills in the methods used to evaluate their students' progress and to plan the content of their lessons.

Regarding the RME teachers' responses to the statement 'I can implement alternative strategies in my classroom', the results showed that most of them agreed, with little variation in their responses ($M=4.50$; $SD=0.56$). This suggests that the RME teachers can implement different methods, techniques, procedures and processes during their instruction. Following the results, it was found that most of the teachers agreed that they can respond to difficult questions from their students, and their responses differed from each other concerning the statement ($M=4.45$, $SD=0.58$). It can be deduced from the results that the RME teachers have the ability to respond to tough questions from their students during the RME lessons.

The overall mean and standard deviation of the instructional strategies efficacy of the RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis were 5.40 and 0.61, respectively. This, therefore, suggests that the RME teachers have high levels of instructional strategies efficacy. Practically, the findings indicate that the majority of the RME teachers in public basic schools in the Accra Metropolis possess high levels of knowledge of how to help students learn or gain a deeper understanding of the content in RME.

Regarding the items under classroom management efficacy, it was observed that most of the teachers agreed that they can establish routines to keep activities running smoothly, with some variation in their responses ($M=4.58$; $SD=0.53$). It was also found that most of the teachers agreed that they can do much to get their students to follow classroom rules, and there were no differences in their responses ($M=4.45$; $SD=0.59$). In other words, they have put in measures to ensure that their students obey the rules in the classroom. It was observed that most of the RME teachers agreed that they can control disruptive behaviour in the classroom, and their responses were homogeneous ($M=4.41$, $SD=0.54$). This means that most of the RME teachers can manage behaviours from students that distract other students in a manner that interferes with instructional activities.

The overall mean and standard deviation for the classroom management efficacy of the RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis were 4.46 and 0.81, respectively. These results suggest that the level of classroom management efficacy among the teachers was high. In practical terms, the results indicate that most of the RME teachers in public basic schools in the Accra Metropolis possess high levels of skills in the effective management of the classroom.

Regarding the students' engagement efficacy of the RME teachers, it was observed that the majority agreed that they can motivate their students who show low interest in schoolwork, and their responses were homogeneous ($M=4.33$; $SD=0.52$). This indicates that most of the RME teachers have the competencies to help their students build confidence in themselves, so that they, the students, can perform well in their schoolwork. It was also found from the teachers' responses that most agreed that they can help their students value learning, and there were no differences in their responses ($M=4.47$, $SD=0.59$). In other words, they can help each student hold learning in high esteem.

In addition, the results showed that most of the teachers agreed that they can help their students think critically, with no variation in their responses to the statement ($M=4.58$; $SD=0.81$). This indicates that the teachers are able to engage in the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualising, applying, analysing, synthesising, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action. Moreover, the teachers agreed that they can improve the understanding of a student who is failing ($M=4.38$; $SD=0.48$).

The overall mean and standard deviation of the students' engagement efficacy among RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis were 4.37 and 0.59, respectively. In practical terms, the finding indicates that the majority of RME teachers in public basic schools in the Accra Metropolis possess high levels of skill in effectively engaging students.

H₁: Emotional Intelligence will significantly predict RME teachers' self-efficacy in the Accra Metropolis

This research hypothesis was formulated to determine whether emotional intelligence predicts RME teachers' self-efficacy. Structural equation modelling (Smart-PLS path modelling algorithm, after 5000 bootstrap samples) was employed to analyse the hypothesis. Table 6 and Figure 2 display the outcomes of the measurement and structural models.

Table 6 presents the results of the structural model assessment after bootstrapping. The structural model was evaluated using the coefficient of determination (R^2) and the standardised beta coefficients (β) for hypothesised associations. The significance of the effects was assessed using bootstrapping (Hair et al., 2014; Kock, 2015). The R^2 values in this study followed the categories from Chin (1998), which include 0.67 (substantial), 0.33 (moderate), and 0.19 (weak). The effect size (f^2) indicates the extent to which EI among RME teachers affects their TSE. In this research, the effect size (f^2) is divided into three categories, namely: small (0.02), medium (0.15), and large (0.35) (Hair et al., 2013).

Table 6: Path Coefficient Results for Emotional Intelligence as a Predictor of Teacher Self-Efficacy

Constructs	β	SD	T-Value	P	f^2	R^2	Bootstrap 95% CI	
							Lower	Lower
EI->TSE	0.748	0.072	5.958	0.000	0.387	0.559	0.712	0.790

Table 6 presents the path coefficients for emotional intelligence as a predictor of RME teachers' teacher self-efficacy. Emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of RME teachers' teacher self-efficacy ($\beta = 0.748$, $t = 5.958$, $p < 0.05$). Hence, the result is statistically significant. Emotional intelligence also explains 55.9% of the variance in teacher self-efficacy ($R^2 = 0.559$). The magnitude of the effect is large ($f^2 = 0.387$). The positive standardised coefficient ($\beta = 0.748$) indicates that a unit increase in the emotional intelligence of RME teachers would increase their teacher self-efficacy by the same proportion. Figure 2 shows the PLS-SEM bootstrapping results.

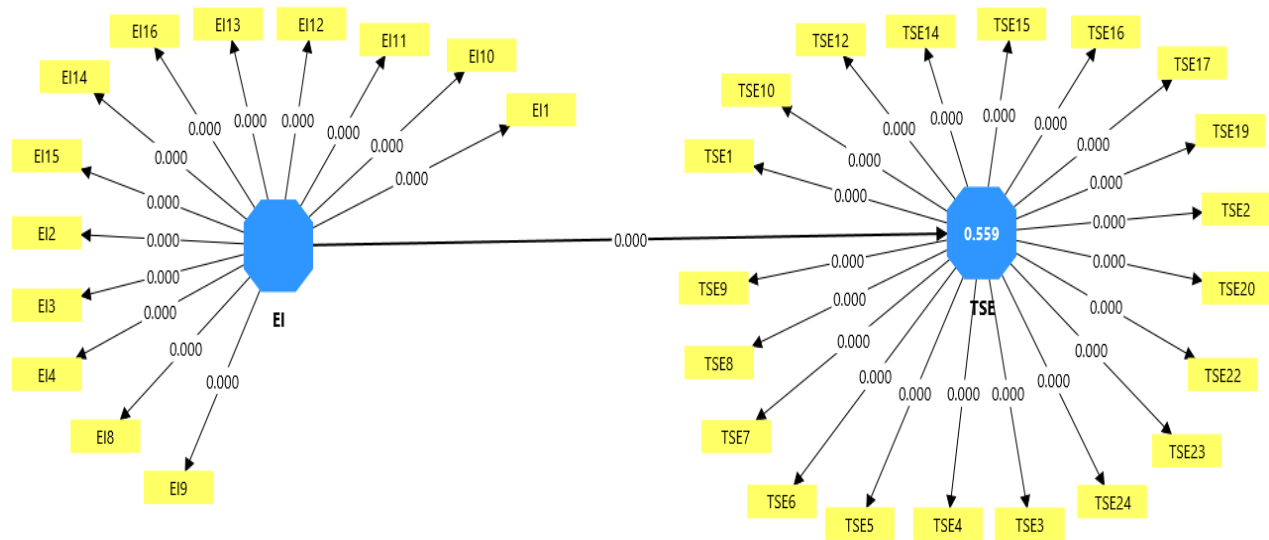


Figure 2: PLS-SEM Bootstrapping Results

Discussion

The overarching goal of the study was to determine whether emotional intelligence predicts teacher self-efficacy among Religious and Moral Education teachers in the Accra Metropolis. The results revealed that RME teachers in public basic schools in the Accra Metropolis have a high level of emotional intelligence. Consistent with this, Keller et al. (2014) found that an instructor with a high level of emotional intelligence can regulate complex interpersonal relations, manage diverse classrooms, and maintain a positive learning environment. Manzoor and Rasool (2025) reported a high level of emotional intelligence among public sector college teachers in the Multan division of Pakistan. However, Caballero, Mantawil and Lumapenet (2024) found that high school teachers in the Philippines have moderate levels of emotional intelligence. Brackett et al. (2010) found that teachers' ability to identify, regulate, and manage their emotions enables them to build healthy relationships with their students, foster a positive learning environment, and manage classroom dynamics by reducing stress.

Based on the second research question, it was found that RME teachers have a high level of TSE. These findings align with those of researchers who have examined teacher self-efficacy. For instance, Zuya et al. (2016) reported that in-service teachers had a high level of confidence in mathematics and in mathematics content, and they also rated their confidence in teaching mathematics as high. El-Deghaidy (2016) found that participants felt confident they would be able to teach science effectively and make a difference in students' academic achievements. The study noted that teachers' high level of self-efficacy was due to the nature of the methods class they had undergone; the class adopted the constructivist teaching and learning approach. Adjei (2018) discovered that junior high school teachers had a high level of self-efficacy. The implication is that the higher teachers perceive their efficacy levels, the more successful they become in practising

classroom management. Kumi (2023) found that the overall mean was $M=4.57$; $SD=0.57$, indicating that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for teaching SHS Mathematics are firm.

Finally, the results brought to the fore that emotional intelligence is a significant predictor of RME teachers' self-efficacy. This means that teachers with high levels of emotional intelligence can be more efficacious in teaching religious education in basic schools. In alignment with the above finding is that of Wu et al. (2019), who found that the emotional intelligence of teachers in middle schools in China influenced their teacher self-efficacy. Caballero, Mantawil and Lumapenet (2024) found a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and teaching efficacy of teachers. Acquah and Agbo (2024) found that Economics teachers' emotional intelligence affected their self-efficacy. Johani and Rashid found a positive and significant relationship between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among basic school teachers in the state of Sabah, Malaysia.

Conclusions and Recommendations

It can be concluded that, despite the emotionally demanding nature of teaching a value-laden subject to religiously and culturally diverse learners, RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis are generally well-equipped to perceive, interpret, harness, and regulate emotional experience in themselves and others. This is significant, given that RME teachers must model the very moral and emotional competencies the subject seeks to instil, and it suggests that the subject's emotional demands have not compromised, and may even have sharpened, teachers' emotional competence. Secondly, it can be concluded that RME teachers in the Accra Metropolis are confident in their capacity to plan and deliver varied instruction, manage classroom behaviour, and engage even reluctant learners. Finally, it can be concluded that the more RME teachers are able to perceive, use, understand, and regulate emotion, the more confident they become in their instructional practice, classroom management, and ability to engage students.

It is recommended that the Ghana Education Service and Colleges of Education integrate structured emotional intelligence training, covering self-emotion appraisal, appraisal of others' emotions, use of emotion, and emotion regulation, into pre-service teacher education curricula and in-service professional development programmes for RME teachers. Secondly, it is recommended that circuit supervisors and head teachers in the Accra Metropolis continue to design continuous professional development sessions specifically for RME teachers, using experiential and reflective methods such as role-play, peer mentoring, and case-based discussions of emotionally charged classroom incidents, to strengthen emotional competence alongside subject-matter pedagogy. Finally, it is recommended that teacher education institutions intentionally integrate emotional intelligence into pre-service teacher education programmes, particularly for students specialising in Religious and Moral Education. Equipping prospective teachers with strong emotional intelligence before they enter the teaching profession will foster higher levels of teacher self-efficacy, enabling them to respond effectively to classroom challenges, build positive teacher-student relationships, and create supportive learning environments that enhance students' academic, moral, and socio-emotional development.

Acknowledgement

I am sincerely grateful to the RME teachers in public basic schools in the Accra Metropolis for their assistance and support during data collection. I am also sincerely grateful to all who took time out of their busy schedules to proofread this article.

Funding

The author did not receive any funding.

Data Availability

The datasets used for this study are available. The author is willing to provide the data on a reasonable request.

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