Effectiveness of Emotional Intelligence Training in Enhancing Teaching Self Efficacy of Career-frustrated Teachers in Ondo State, Nigeria

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Abstract

This study experimentally investigated the effectiveness of Emotional Intelligence Training on teaching self-efficacy of career-frustrated teachers in Ondo State, Nigeria. The sample consisted of 60 randomly selected career-frustrated secondary school teachers (Male = 48 & Female 42; Internal Locus of Control = 24 & External Locus of Control = 36) in Ondo state. Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale, Locus of control of Behaviour scale and demographic data form were administered to the teachers. Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) and Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) were used to analyse the data .The results of the study showed that Emotional Intelligence Training effectively enhanced teaching self-efficacy of career-frustrated teachers. Locus of control significantly influenced teaching self-efficacy of the experimental group, while gender was not significant. The implications of the findings for counselling and school administration were discussed. It was recommended that emotional intelligence training of career-frustrated teachers should be encouraged to improve their teaching self-efficacy.

Teachers are highly fundamental to the realization of quality education worldwide. In whatever angle the teacher is viewed, he/she seems one of the most important human characters in the life of a child. The success of a child could, therefore, depend greatly on what he/she makes out of the different encounters he/she has with his/her teachers as he/she journeys through the school system. The effectiveness or otherwise of the teacher in the school system would be apparent in the lives of their students now and in the future.

The National Policy on Education (NPE) in Nigeria acknowledges the central position teachers occupy in the educational system by stating that no education system can rise above the quality of its teachers.

The concepts, "teacher" and "teaching" are interdependent variables, and both are crucial to school effectiveness (Ajibade, 2005). Their relationship is likened to sight and seeing. Without the eye, it is impossible to see. Thus, in like manner, without the teacher, teaching may neither be done nor effective. In spite of the computer, the teacher is still needed to prepare the materials to be fed into the computer for the use of the students. According to Okolie (1991), a teacher is one at the centre of the success of any educational programme no matter the quality of learning activities' blue-prints, learning materials and available prevailing physical facilities. This further stresses the importance of teachers in the school system and society at large. Thus, it is very important to regularly carry out research into the activities and psycho-social conditions of teachers in order to maintain efficiency and high productivity in the teaching profession. For teachers to be effective and committed to their jobs, high teaching self-efficacy has to be maintained among them. Gorrell and Hwang (1995) have argued that there is a research trend towards "understanding teaching and teacher education in terms of development of teaching and personal efficacy beliefs.(p.101)" Indeed, teaching self-efficacy has been found to be one of the important factors consistently related to positive teaching behavior and student outcomes (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Ashton & Webb; 1986; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990; Enochs, Scharmann, & Riggs, 1995; Henson, 2001).

However, studies (Adegoroye, 1999, Ajibade, 2005; & Aremu, 2007) have demonstrated that many secondary school teachers in Nigeria have low teaching self-efficacy. Low job performance has also been found among them. Most teachers in Nigerian schools are also reported not to be satisfied with their jobs (Adegoroye, 1999; Adeyoju, 1999 & Uwaimeiye & Onyewadume, 2001). According to Nwagwu and Salami (1999), there is high turnover syndrome among teachers. This low teaching efficacy among the Nigerian teachers is fallout of poor service, low prospects and low prestige (Salami, 2007). These could have been the major causes of career frustration among secondary school teachers. From this perspective, it stands to reason that Nigerian teachers might probably be unhappy and could be living unfulfilled lives. This assertion could be the reason why many Nigerians see teaching job as a last resort when looking for employment. In spite of the efforts being made by the professional body of teachers in Nigeria, Nigeria Union of Teachers to better the professional lots of teachers, through advocacy for better conditions of service, teaching remains the least sought job in Nigeria.

Studies into the teachers' affective domain, which includes emotions, moods, and the feeling states, seem to be one of the areas of research which probably would provide answers to these problems. The reason being that teaching transcends physical contacts with learners; it also involves expression of feelings of which emotional intelligence is involved. Emotional Intelligence (EI) was partly derived from earlier ideas about social intelligence, which was first identified by Thorndike who defines social intelli-

gence as the ability to understand (Fatt & Howe, 2003).

Emotional intelligence is also included in Gardner's inter and intra personal intelligence in his theory of multiple intelligence (Gardner, 1983). The interpersonal intelligence consists of the ability to understand others. Intrapersonal intelligence is the ability to develop an accurate model of the self and use it effectively to operate through life. These skills are very important for social interaction and understanding of one's own emotions and behaviours. However, the re-conceptualization of inter-personal and intra-personal intelligence in a broader and comprehensive framework was done by Salovey and Mayer in 1990 (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Salovey and Mayer (1990) define EI as the ability to monitor one's own and others' feeling and emotions, to discriminate among them and use this information to guide one's thinking and actions.

Goleman (1995) sees emotional intelligence as ability to know what you are feeling and using that knowledge to make good decisions. Goleman (1995) then identifies five components of emotional intelligence as self awareness, self regulation, motivation, empathy and adeptness in relationship. These components were later broken down into two abilities: empathy and social skills. In an attempt to further simplify the concept, Bar-On (1997) makes a case for EI as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well with people and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Bar-On (2006) also later divides EI skills into 5 components and 15 sub-components. These include:

Intra-personal Abilities: These include awareness of oneself and an understanding of one's emotions, the ability to express thoughts and feelings nondestructively, the ability to be self-reliant and free of emotional development on others and the ability and drive to set and achieve personal goals.

Inter-personal Abilities: These include awareness of others and emotions, feelings, and needs, as well as the ability to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. People who are skillful in this area tend to be good listeners and are able to understand the feelings of others.

Stress Management: This is the ability to effectively manage and control emotions.

Adaptability: This includes ability to realistically and flexibly cope with immediate situation and effectively solve problems as they arise.

General Mood: This involves the emotional skills that fuel the self-motivation needed to set and achieve goals. These skills include an optimistic and positive outlook combined with a feeling of happiness and contentment with ourselves, others and life in general.

In literature, EI is considered very important for success in the world of work (Bellamy & Bellamy, 2003; Adeyemo & Aremu, 2005, 2007; Aremu & Lawal, 2009; Adeyemo, 2009). Specifically, Goleman (1995) affirms that EI contributes as much as 80% to an individual's success in life, while the remaining 20% could be as a result of other factors. While this remains contentious in literature, the overall import of EI to effective human functioning cannot be overemphasized in that human accomplishment is tied to his/her state of emotions. In fact, utilizing these emotions in a best possible way and for the good of self and others is the hallmark of the philosophy behind EI. In this wise, this paper experimentally investigates the effect of emotional intelligence training on teaching self-efficacy of career-frustrated teachers.

Teaching-self efficacy is consistent with the general formulation of self-efficacy. Teaching self-efficacy is defined in various ways, such as the extent to which the teacher believes he or she has the capacity to affect students' performance (Berman, McLaughin, Bas, Pauly & Zellman, 1977); teachers belief in their abilities to have a positive effect on students' learning (Ashton, 1985); the extent to which teachers believe they can affect students' learning (Dembo & Gibson, 1985); teachers' beliefs or convictions that they can influence how well students learn, even those that may be difficult or unmoti-

vated (Guskey & Passaro, 1994); and they believe that he or she can reach even the most difficult students and help them learn (Woolfolk, 1998). From these definitions, it is clear that a teacher with a strong self-efficacy would not only impart knowledge effectively, he/she would also do so with ease and passion. The underline inference from the teaching behaviour of such a teacher is that even his/her difficult students would be more motivated to learn.

The teaching of self-efficacy begins with the evaluation of whether teachers believe they could control the reinforcement of their actions (Armor, Conroy-Oseguera, Cox, King, McDonell, Pascal, Pauly & Zellman, 1976). Research works have demonstrated that teachers with a strong sense of efficacy tend to exhibit greater levels of planning, organisation and enthusiasm, spend more time teaching in areas where their sense of efficacy is higher, more open to new ideas, and more willing to experiment with the same ideas to meet and better the needs of their students. In this wise, such teachers persist when things do not go smoothly and are resilient in the face of setbacks. In addition, studies show that they tend to be less critical of students who make errors and work longer with students who are struggling (Gibson & Dembo, 1984, Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibbs, 2002; Coladarci, 1992; Tschannen and Woolkfolk, (2001), Coladarci & Brenton, 1997, Saklofske, Michayluk & Randhawa, 1988). It is therefore no overstatement to reason that a self-efficacious teacher is a complete teacher whose main preoccupation is to effectively impact on the students.

In the United Kingdom, where the standard of education is higher than that of Nigeria, the Department of Education and Training (2005) states that improving teacher efficacy has four times impact on students' outcomes than improving school effectiveness. By inference, and although school effectiveness represents a sine qua non for teaching-learning, the overall import of teaching and effective learning is on a self-efficacious teacher whose emotion is on giving his/her students the best. Sutton and Wheatley (2003) then suggest that "the substantial variation in teacher efficacy may result in part from

variance in teachers' emotion" (P.339). In essence, emotions are tied to teaching. A few studies have reported some links between emotional intelligence and teaching self-efficacy. Penrose, Perry and Ball (2007) examine the linkage between emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy beliefs. Their finding shows a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and teaching self-efficacy. They recommend the use of emotional intelligence education to enhance teaching self-efficacy. Salami (2007) similarly examines the relationships between emotional intelligence and self-efficacy to work attitudes among secondary school teachers in Southwestern Nigeria. In his finding, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy were found to have significant relationships with teachers' attitude to work. Ng and Hor (2005) investigate the relationship between teaching attitudes and emotional intelligence. Their finding shows that teachers' attitude positively correlated with emotional intelligence. Chan (2004) further underscores the relationship between EI and self-efficacy by reporting that self-efficacy beliefs are significantly predicted by the components of emotional intelligence.

Empirical evidences show that emotional intelligence is related to career commitment (Carmeli, 2003; Aremu, 2005) and career commitment is related to job satisfaction and self-efficacy (Iaffaldono & Muchinsky, 1985; Ostroff, 1992; Hellman, 1997; Jamal, 1997; Bamigbade, 2000; Adeyemo, 2001). The established relationships among emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, career commitment and self-efficacy show that if career-frustrated teachers are exposed to appropriate and effective emotional intelligence training programme, their teaching self-efficacy could be enhanced. This research antecedent is not well documented in Nigeria probably because researchers have not deemed it necessary to study secondary school teachers who are frustrated. Given that career frustration could hamper effective functioning in the work place, and that emotions could be worked on to redirect thoughts of frustrated teachers, the current study investigated the influence which EI could engender in an experimental condition on the teaching efficacy of career-frustrated teachers. In attempting to realize this objective, we set out to address three research hypotheses:

There is no main effect of treatment on the teaching self-efficacy of participants exposed to emotional intelligence training and the non-treated group. There is no main effect of treatment on the teaching self-efficacy of male and female participants exposed to emotional intelligence training. There is no main effect of treatment on the teaching self-efficacy of the participants with internal and external locus of control exposed to emotional intelligence training.

Methods

Research Design

A pre-test, post-test and control group quasi-experimental approach that utilized a 2 x 2 x 2 quasi factorial design was adopted in the study. The participants of the study were divided into three groups A_1, and A_2. Group A_1 was treated, while group A_2 served as the control. Therefore, the experimental and the control groups made the two rows - A_1 and A_2, while the male and female participants were constituted into columns – B_1 and B_2. Internal and external locus of control respondents were assigned into the column C_1 and C_2. Experimental group was pre-tested and subjected to the therapeutic treatment (Emotional Intelligence Training). The control group was equally pre-tested and subjected to a non-therapeutic talk.

Population and Sample

The population of the study consisted of all secondary school teachers in Ondo State, Nigeria. Ondo State which is one of the 36 states in Nigeria is in the Southwestern part of the country. There were 11,680 teachers in the State as at the period of the field work (Ondo State Teaching Service Commission, 2008). It was from this population that a sample of 60 career-frustrated teachers was randomly selected from nine secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. The participants were randomly selected into the experimental and control groups. There were 32 males (53.3%) and 28 (46.7%) females. The participants also had 24 (40%) and 36 (60%) internal and external locus of control respectively. The mean scores of the sample and population/group norm on frustration scale were 145.83 and 128.32 respectively. Thus, teachers selected for this study were more frustrated in their job than an average teacher in Ondo State, Nigeria. Futhermore, the pretest mean score of the participants was 77.42 (S.D=10.98) on teaching self-efficacy, while that of the population was 119.5 respectively. This revealed that the participants' level of teaching self-efficacy was very low compared to an average teacher in Ondo State. For the locus of control, the mean score of the participant was 36.32. Notwithstanding, for the purpose of this study, respondents who scored 68 and above were randomly selected for external of locus of control, while those who scored 17 or less than that on the questionnaire were selected for internal locus of control. These baselines were chosen in order to ensure that the participants chosen for this study truly had either internal or external locus of control. Based on the scoring of the instrument used, 17 is the maximum score a participant could get if he/she completely demonstrated internal locus of control, while 68 is the minimum score a participant could get out of 85 if he/she completely yielded external locus of control.

Measures

teacher frustration scale (TFS.)

Teacher Frustration Scale (TFS) was adapted from Organisation Frustration (OF) by Spector (1975). The OF was constructed to measure personal frustration in an organization, while the adapted TFS is meant to measure the frustration level of teachers in schools. TFS is a 32-item scale which examines individuals' perception of co-workers acts of aggression, time-wasting, sabotage, unreasonable demands to self and government neglect. TFS is at the one end of a continuum with jobs satisfaction. The scale is 6-point likert scale ranging from Disagree Completely to Agree Completely. Scores above 128 indicate high frustration and scores less than or equal to 128 indicate absence of frustration.

For Organisation Frustration Scale (OFS), Spector (1975) provides the psy-

chometric properties for American samples, while the properties for Nigerian samples were extrapolated from a frustration test developed by Dicke (1997) that is equivalent to OF in content and number of items. A coefficient alpha of 0.88 was reported by Spector (1975) for a sample of 50 medical employees and a construct validity coefficient of 0.59. Dicke (1997) correlated the OF equivalent with frustration Anxiety Inventory by Girdano and Everly (1979) and obtained a concurrent validity of 0.98. To determine the psychometric properties of the adapted TFS, a pilot study was conducted prior to the experimentation. The researchers used test re-test method after a two-week interval to find the reliability of the instrument on a separate sample of career-frustrated teachers. The test re-test reliability coefficient of 0.86 was obtained.

the locus of control of behaviour scale.

The Locus of Control of Behaviour Scale constructed by Craig, Franklin and Andrews (1984) was used for the study. The scale is a 17 item scale measuring the locus of control of behaviour. It was constructed with reference to I.E. scale by Rotter (1966). Respondents are to indicate their degree of agreement with each item by ticking one of the four options-Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD). For the purpose of minimising the possible effect of social desirability in responding, some items were reversed in terms to internality and instructions emphasised no right or wrong answers.

The 17- item test was scored in the externality direction. That is, SA=5, A = 4, D =1 and SD = 0. The seven items relating to internality (items 1, 5, 7, 8, 13, 15 and 16) were reversed such that SA = O, A=1, D= 4 and SD= 5 respectively. According to Nunnally (1967), the coefficient alpha for the 17 items was .79. This demonstrated that the scale has high internal reliability. A test-retest reliability of the scale was determined by Salami (1999) using Nigerian students. Salami (1999) reports a reliability coefficient of 0.75. This correlates with Rotter's I.E scale (r = 0.67 for male and r = 0.67 for females). This shows that the

instrument is suitable for Nigerian respondents. To further affirm the reliability coefficient value of the scale, the researcher, with the assistance of the study's supervisor, obtained 0.83 coefficients using a test-retest method.

teacher sense of efficacy scale.

Teachers' self-efficacy was measured using the long form of Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001). The developers have investigated both construct and discriminant validity for this instrument. The questionnaire includes 24 items measured on a nine threshold Likert-type scale, ranging from "nothing" (1) to a "great deal" (9). The instrument has three subscales namely: Efficacy in student engagement (SE), Efficacy in instructional strategies (IS) and, Efficacy in classroom management (CM). The internal validity of each of these subscales was satisfactory for our sample (SE: α= 0.87; IS: 0.91; CM: α=0.90). Respondents' scores would range between 24 and 216. In a study conducted by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), an estimate of 0.94 reported as the reliability coefficient of the scale. The test re-test coefficient value obtained by the researchers was 0.91.

Procedure

This study was conducted for a period of eight weeks consisting of four phases: recruitment, pretest, treatment and post-treatment evaluations. A written approval was secured from the Ministry of Education, Ondo State, before the commencement of the eight-week intervention. The 60 participants were randomly selected and distributed into Emotional Intelligence Training Group and a control group. The objectives of the emotional intelligence training include providing accurate information about the adaptive functions of emotions; assisting group participants to identify feelings and express them appropriately, particularly the negative; educating about emotions and their respective meanings and; Identifying helpful and adaptive mood and emotion regulation strategies in managing unpleasant or toxic feelings and enhancing pleasant feelings

experimental group A,-emotional intelligence training (EIT). There were eight sessions summarized as follows:

Session I: General orientation and administration of instrument to obtain pretest scores. In this session, the researchers had some initial rapport with the participants in which the purpose, objectives and benefits of the training programme were explained. Pretest administration was conducted in the session.

Session II: Discussion of historical background of intelligence. During the session, participants were exposed to evolution of emotional intelligence and how its impact is felt in education and other fields of human endeavour.

Session III: Explanation of the importance of emotional intelligence and characteristics of high emotional intelligence. Participants were trained on how to develop interpersonal abilities such as self awareness, understanding of one's emotion, and ability to constructively express thoughts and feelings. Participants practised how to convey their feeling to others along with the reasons behind those feelings.

Session IV: Explanation of interpersonal skills which include awareness of others emotions, feelings and needs. Participants were taught how to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and satisfying relationships. They practised how to effectively demonstrate empathy and basic social skills that are vital to building good working relationship.

Session V: Discussion of ways and methods of managing and controlling emotions. Benefits derivable from effective management of stress were explained. Suggestions for improving stress management skills were discussed and practised.

Session VI: Participants were provided psycho-educational materials on how to manage change. This requires people to realistically and flexibly cope with their immediate situation and effectively solve problems as they arise. Suggestions for improving adaptability skills were given.

Session VII: Emotional skills that stimulate self-motivation needed to set and achieve goals. Participants were taught how to develop optimistic and positive outlook combined with a feeling of happiness and contentment with oneself, others and life in general.

Session VIII: Revision of all activities and post-test administration. This is the closing session in which appraisal of the earlier sessions was done. Participants were protested. Generally, participants were given assignments at the end of each previous session.

Data Analysis

To assess the effect of emotional intelligence training on teaching self-efficacy of career-frustrated teachers, Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) and Multiple Classification Anaysis (MCA) were performed

Results

Table 1 below shows the difference in the participants' level of teaching self-efficacy before and after exposure to the experimental group. Table 1 reveals that pretest mean scores of 78.20 and 76.63 were obtained from emotional intelligence training and control groups respectively. Thus, the pretest mean scores of the two study groups demonstrated little or no difference in their teaching self-efficacy. The posttest mean scores of 178.00 obtained from the participants exposed to emotional intelligence training showed a significant and substantial improvement in their teaching self-efficacy compared to their counterparts in the control group that was not treated. This is an indication that there was a marked difference in the participants' teaching self-efficacy after treatment.

Table 2 reveals the difference in the participants' level of frustration before and after exposure to experimental treatment. As presented in Table 2, pretest mean scores of 151.70 and 149.93 were obtained from the participants exposed to emotional intelligence training and their counterparts in the control group respectively. This clearly revealed that both groups had similar level of frustration before the commencement of the

treatment program. The drastic reduction observed in the posttest mean score of 80.67 for the emotional intelligence group compared with 145.83 from their counterparts in the control group could be attributed to the positive effects of the treatment.

Table 3 shows if there was a significant difference in the participants' frustration level before the emotional intelligence training group was treated. The results presented in Table 3 revealed that the calculated t-value of 0.598 is less than critical t-vale of 2.00 at 0.05 level of significance. This showed that there was no significant difference in the teaching self-efficacy of the participants before they were exposed to treatment. Table 4 clearly demonstrates if there

was a significant difference in the participants' level of teaching self-efficacy before the emotional intelligence training group was treated. Table 4 above revealed that the calculated t-value of 0.334 is less than the critical value of 2.00 at 0.05 level of significance. This indicated that there was no significant difference in the pretest mean scores of the participants exposed to emotional intelligence training and their counterparts in the control group.

Hypothesis One: This hypothesis was tested at α = 0.05 level of significance using analysis of covariance. The result is as shown in Table 1

Table 5 above summarizes the computational details of the tested hypothesis

Table 1

Comparison of Pre and Posttest Mean and Standard Deviation Scores on Teaching Self-efficacy

Group	N	Teaching Self-Efficacy			
		Pretest		Posttest	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Emotional Intelligence Training	30	78.20	9.67	178.00	14.47
Control	30	76.63	10.62	78.83	11.73

Table 2

Comparison of Pre and Posttest Mean and Standard Deviation Scores on Teacher Frustration Scale

Group	N	Teacher Frustration			
		Pretest		Posttest	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
Emotional Intelligence Training	30	151.70	20.38	80.67	24.62
Control	30	149.93	20.92	145.83	19.71

Table 3

t-test Analysis of Difference in the Pretest Mean Scores of Participants on Frustration Scale

Group	N	$\overline{\chi}$	S.D	df	t-cal	t-cri	P
Emotional Intelligence Training	30	78.20	9.67	58	0.598	2.00	> 0.05
Control	30	76.63	10.62				

Table 4

t-test Analysis of Difference in the Pretest Mean Scores of Participants on Teaching Self-efficacy

Group	N	$\overline{\chi}$	S.D	df	t-cal	t-cri	P
Emotional Intelligence Training	30	151.70	20.38	58	0.334	2.00	> 0.05
Control	30	149.93	20.62				

using ANCOVA. The post-treatment scores of participants exposed to EIT and those in the control group showed that treatment effect was significant at the 0.05 alpha level, the F-ratio is $F_{(1, 56)} = 838.91$ and P < 0.05. Since P < 0.05, the null hypothesis was rejected. This reveals that there was significant main effect of intervention on the teaching self-efficacy of male and female participants exposed to EIT and those in the control group. In addition, there was a significant interaction effect between the treatment and gender of the participants ($F_{(1, 56)} = 5.73$ and P < 0.05).

Hypothesis Two: This hypothesis was tested at $\alpha = 0.05$ using analysis of covariance. The result is as shown in Table 6.

Table 6 summarizes the computational details of the tested hypothesis using the post-treatment scores of male and female participants exposed to EIT. The result of the analysis using ANCOVA at the 0.05 alpha level shows that there was no significant main effect of treatment in the teaching self-efficacy of male and female participants exposed to EIT. The gender had F-value of $F_{(1, 27)} = 3.17$ and P > 0.05. Since P > 0.05, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

In order to know the direction of the difference, Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA) was carried out as shown in Table 7.

The result from Table 7 shows the mean for the two groups, male and female treated with emotional intelligence training. The male group had the highest adjusted post-test mean score (= 181.18), while the female group had the least adjusted post-test mean score (= 170.39). The values were obtained by adding the grand mean (= 178.00) with the respective adjusted deviation. Though no significant difference between the teaching self-efficacy of male and female participants exposed to EIT was found, the results in Table 3 show that male participants were more likely to benefit from the treatment more than their female counterparts

Hypothesis Three: This hypothesis was tested at $\alpha = 0.05$ using analysis of Co-

variance. The result is as shown in Table 8

Table 8 shows that there is significant main effect of treatment in the teaching self-efficacy of the treated participants with internal and external locus of control. The computed outcome has the F-ratio of $F_{(1, 27)} = 32.52$ and was significant at 0.05 alpha level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In order to know the direction of the difference, MCA was carried out as shown in Table 9

Table 9 shows the mean scores for participants with internal and external locus of control treated with emotional intelligence training. The participants with internal locus of control had the highest adjusted post-test mean score (= 191.42), and the participants with external locus of control had the least adjusted post-test mean score (= 170.39). The values were obtained by adding the grand mean (= 178.00) with the respective unadjusted deviation. From the results, participants with internal locus of control were more likely to benefit from

Table 5

2x2 Analysis of Covariance using EIT and Control Groups

Source of Variation	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean squares	F	P	Remark
Rows	1	9249.00	9249.00	838.91	<0.05	S
Columns	1	20.06	20.06	1.82	>0.05	NS
Interaction	1	63.12	63.12	5.73	<0.05	S
Error	56	617.68	11.03			
Total	59	9949.86				

* Significant at p. < 0.05

Table 6

Analysis of Covariance Using EIT and Gender

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P	Remarks
Pre-test	1	557.19	557.19	2.87	0.01	NS
Gender	1	614.78	614.78	3.17	0.09	NS
Explained	2	1171.97	585.99	3.02	0.07	NS
Residual	27	5236.03	193.93			
Total	29	6408.00	220.97			

* Significant at p. < 0.05

Table 7

Multiple Classification Analysis of EIT and Gender

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted Deviation	ETA	Adjusted for Independent Variable	BETA
Gender					
Male	16	2.25		4.54	
Female	14	-2.86		-5.19	
			0.18		0.33
Multiple R Squared					**0.183**
Multiple R					**0.428**
Grand mean = 178.00					

Table 8

Analysis of Covariance Using EIT and Locus of Control

Source of Variation	DF	SS	MS	F	P	Remarks
Pretest	1	557.19	557.19	5.67	0.25	NS
Locus	1	3196.90	3196.90	32.52	0.00	S
Explained	2	3754.09	1877.05	19.96	0.00	S
Residual	27	2653.91	98.29			
Total	29	6408.00	220.97			

*Significant at p. < 0.05

Table 9

Multiple Classification Analysis of the EIT and Locus of Control

Variable + Category	N	Unadjusted Deviation	ETA	Adjusted for Independent variable	BETA
Locus					
Internal	12	13.42		12.88	
External	18	-8.94		-8.59	
			0.75		0.72
Multiple R Squared				**0.586**	
Multiple R				**0.765**	
Grand mean = 178.00					

the treatment than the participants with external locus of control.

Discussion

It should be reiterated that the goal of this study was to investigate the experimental influence of emotional intelligence on teaching self-efficacy of career-frustrated teachers. This specific goal sums up the direction of the discussion of the results obtained in the study. On the hypothesis one, the post-treatment scores of the EIT group were significantly different from that of the control group. This result shows that emotional intelligence, irrespective of the gender of the participants, was very effective in enhancing the teaching self-efficacy of career-frustrated teachers. This explains that there was a significant observation from the post-test behaviour of teaching self-efficacy of teachers exposed to emotional intelligence education. Thus, emotional intelligence could be said to contribute to this change in observed behaviour of the treated teachers. This finding is aligned to the assertion of Byron (2001) that understanding one's emotional processes can have far-reaching effects for social functioning and the quality of individual life, irrespective of gender. Similarly, Chan's (2004) study reports that self-efficacy beliefs are significantly predicted by the components of emotional intelligence. From these two submissions, and the finding in the current study, significant influence of emotional intelligence in enhancing teaching self-efficacy of career-frustrated teachers cannot be overemphasized. Aremu (2007) similarly reported a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and

teaching self-efficacy of career-frustrated teachers in Delta State, Nigeria. Inferentially, this could promote teaching effectiveness in that a teacher with enhanced self-efficacy would not only be committed to his/her job, but would also be effective in the discharge of his/her duties.

Perry, Ball and Stacey (2004) are of the opinion that emotional intelligence enhances teachers' effectiveness. In the same vein, Fer (2004) also submits that emotional intelligence training could be used to foster teachers' effectiveness in their private lives and in the classroom. Therefore, an emotionally intelligent teacher would be a complete teacher.

Our research hypothesis concerning the main effect of treatment on the teaching self-efficacy of male and female participants exposed to emotional intelligence training indicates that there was no significant difference between the teaching self-efficacy of male and female participants exposed to emotional intelligence training. This finding provides that the gender of career-frustrated teachers (male and female) had no significant influence on their teaching self-efficacy. In this wise, what dictates teaching self-efficacy of the participants was not a function of their gender. This finding contradicts that of Russell-Bowie and Dowson (2005) and Huang, Liu and Shiomi (2007) that gender significantly influenced the teaching self-efficacy of teachers. In Russell-Bowie and Dowson's (2005) study, for example, female teachers were more likely to report self-confidence in teaching than their male counterparts. Variation in these findings perhaps could be as a result of the fact that Russell-Bowie and Dowson (2005) made use of pre-

service teachers for their study, while the present study made use of in-service career-frustrated teachers.

This, notwithstanding, the finding, however, is in harmony with the ones reported by Bursal (2008) in which gender effect was not a significant factor among pre-service elementary teachers' teaching self-efficacy. Along the same contention, Cakiroglue, Cakiroglue and Boone (2005) also reported no significant difference in the teaching self-efficacy of teachers.

The existence of no significant difference between the teaching self-efficacy of male and female participants in the current study seems to stem from the fact that both were frustrated as testified by Adeyemo and Aremu's (1999) that teaching profession has suffered a reversal of fortune in Nigeria. Besides, both male and female participants had equivalent amount of representation, exposure and experience related to the scale items. This, perhaps, reveals that the proportion of benefits gained from the programmes by male participants is commensurate with that of female participants. In essence, each treatment could be applied effectively across male and female gender.

On the third hypothesis, there was a significant difference in the teaching self-efficacy post-test scores of participants with internal and external locus of control treated with emotional intelligence. This finding extends the previous study by Rockstraw (2007) who examined the influence of locus of control on self-efficacy of undergraduate students and found a significant increase in self-efficacy of internal locus of control students than the external ones. There was, however, no direct evidential finding to the current one being reported. This may be due to the paucity of related literature in this area.

In spite of this, we feel strong to submit that the significant improvement made by teachers with internal locus of control in teaching self-efficacy could be explained on the premise that people with internal locus of control do generally engage in activities that could improve their situation, strive for achievement and work hard to develop their knowledge, skills and abilities. One other explanation is that such people are always inquisitive and try to fig-

ure out why things turn out the way they do. Our finding therefore suggests that when teachers are frustrated on the job, their locus of control could be worked upon if they are emotionally intelligent. Implications of our findings concern improvement of teaching quality through appropriate psychological interventions of which emotional intelligence was an educational tool in the present study. Government and other educational stake holders could facilitate teaching of emotional intelligence with a view to enhancing teachers' effectiveness. Second, career-frustrated teachers should be exposed to attributional retraining programme. From the study, teachers with internal locus of control significantly improved their teaching self-efficacy than their counterparts with external locus of control. Moreover, the study reveals on one hand that most of the career-frustrated teachers were teachers with external locus of control. From this perspective, teachers with internal locus of control could be less susceptible to career-frustration., and when they do, they could be easily assisted to readjust. The clues provided in the study add to the literature base on career frustration in teaching profession, most especially in Nigeria where there is paucity of research in the area.

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