MODEL OF COUNSELLORS' LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS PREDICTORS OF STUDENTS' SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING OUTCOMES

By

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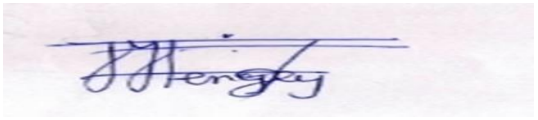
DECLARATION

Student number: **60901578**

I JULIET EDWINA YAYRA TENGEY; hereby declare that "**MODEL OF COUNSELLORS' LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS PREDICTORS OF STUDENTS' SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING OUTCOMES**" is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted in this thesis, have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. APA 6th Ed was employed in the study.

SIGNATURE  DATE: OCTOBER, 2021

JULIET E. Y. TENGEY

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"*He has made everything beautiful in its time. He has also set eternity in the human heart; yet no one can fathom what God has done from beginning to end" (Ecclesiastes 3:11 – New International Version)*

No human being is an island and, for that matter, no major task and responsibilities can be accomplished on one's own or in total isolation. This thesis was no exception and I would accordingly like to show my appreciation to everyone who supported me through this research journey, especially the following persons:

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ABSTRACT

MODEL OF COUNSELLORS' LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS PREDICTORS OF STUDENTS' SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING OUTCOMES

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DEGREE: **DCOM**
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Students will complete school and shortly thereafter take up work roles in organisations. Research indicates that secondary school students do not necessarily complete school with the needed and necessary social and emotional skills to be successful and fruitful in work and in life. The main aim of this study was to create a model of counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes. This model will help educational institutions, particularly senior high schools, and organisational psychologists to better understand the interrelatedness of the three constructs in order to optimally advance counsellors' and educational leaders' emotional intelligence and students' social and emotional learning competencies. This study was conducted in five senior high schools in the Greater Accra region of Ghana, utilising a sample of 800 level-three (SHS 3) students. In this study, emotional intelligence was conceptualised based on Goleman's (1995) theory of emotional intelligence and Wong and Law's (2011) education and skills model, leadership as viewed by transformational leadership theory, and social and emotional learning from the Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning's (CASEL) five social and emotional learning competencies framework.

Partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) was employed in an empirical study to develop the model of counsellors' leadership and emotional

intelligence as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes. The model showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between counsellors' emotional intelligence and counsellors' transformational leadership and students' social and emotional learning competencies. In addition, there was a positive and significant relationship present between counsellors' transformational leadership and students' social and emotional learning competencies. Furthermore, counsellors' transformational leadership was found to partially mediate the relationship between counsellors' emotional intelligence and students' social and emotional learning competencies. The model fit indices were all found to be within acceptable limits. The results further indicate that significant differences did not exist between students' biographical factors and the dimensions of the social and emotional learning competencies apart from age.

This research contributes towards a broad and comprehensive understanding of the relationships among emotional intelligence, leadership and social and emotional learning. The newly developed model and recommendations based on the findings of the empirical research will contribute to the body of knowledge in the areas of emotional intelligence, leadership and social and emotional learning in secondary schools. They will also, to a great extent, help in predicting social and emotional learning competencies in students in senior high schools. They may also guide researchers and practitioners in other institutions to improve current organisational and institutional interventions.

KEY TERMS

Emotional intelligence, emotional intelligence models, leadership, transformational leadership, social and emotional learning, social and emotional learning competencies, CASEL, school counsellors, structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) testing, senior high schools in Ghana.

TRANSLATION (IsiZulu)

ISIFINQO

IMODELI YOBUHOLI BABELULEKI NOBUHLAKANI NGOKOMPHEFUMULO, NJENGABABIKELI BEMIPHUMELA YOKUFUNDA YABAFUNDI KWEZENHLALO KANYE NEMIZWA YOMPHEFUMULO

ngo

JULIET EY TENGEY

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USUKU ETHUNYELWE NGALO: OKTHOBA 2020

Abafundi baqede isikole futhi kungekudala ngemuva kwalokho bathathe izindima zomsebenzi ezinhlanganweni. Ucwaningo lukhombisa ukuthi abafundi bezikole zamabanga aphakeme abaqedi isikole ngamakhono adingekayo futhi adingekayo kwezenhlalo nomuzwa womphefumulo ukuze baphumelele futhi bathele izithelo emsebenzini nasempilweni. Inhloso enkulu yalolu cwaningo kwakungukudala imodeli yobuholi babeluleki nobuhlakani ngokomphefumulo, njengababikeli bemiphumela yokufunda yabafundi kwezenhlalo kanye nemizwa yomphefumulo. Le modeli izosiza izikhungo zemfundo, ikakhulukazi izikole zamabanga aphakeme, kanye namasayikholoji ezinhlangano zokusebenza ukuze zikuqonde kangcono ukuhlangana kwalezi zakhiwo ezintathu ukuze kuthuthukiswe kahle ubuhlakani bezemizwa ngokomphefumulo yabeluleki nabezemfundo kanye namakhono

abafundi okufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yomphefumulo. Lolu cwaningo lwenziwe ezikoleni eziphakeme ezinhlanu esifundeni iGreater Accra eGhana, kusetshenziswa isampula labafundi abangama-800 ezingeni le-3. Kulolu cwaningo, ubuhlakani obungokwemizwa yomphefumulo babucatshangwa kususelwa kumqondo kaGoleman (1995) wokuhlakanipha ngokwemizwa yomphefumulo kanye nemodeli yezemfundo namakhono kaWong noMthetho (2011); ubuholi bubhekwa ngokulandela umbono wenguquko wobuholi obuguqukayo; nokufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemiza yezomphefumulo kwahlolwa kusetshenziswa uhlaka lwamakhono wokufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yomphefumulo oluhlanganyelwe lweCollaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning's (CASEL).

Ukumodeliswa kokulinganisa okuyisikwele okuyingxenye encane (i-PLS-SEM) kwaqashwa ocwaningweni olunamandla ukuze kuthuthukiswe imodeli yobuholi babeluleki nobuhlakani obungokwemizwa yomphefumulo, njengabaqageli bemiphumela yokufunda yabafundi yezenhlalo nemizwa yomphefumulo. Imodeli ikhombisile ukuthi kunobudlelwano obubalulekile ngokwezibalo phakathi kobuhlakani bemizwa yabeluleki nobuholi bezinguquko kanye nekhono labafundi lokufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yimphefumulo. Ngaphezu kwalokho, kwakukhona ubudlelwano obuhle nobubalulekile obabukhona phakathi kobuholi bezinguquko kanye namakhono abafundi okufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yemphefumulo. Ngaphezu kwalokho, abeluleki bezinguquko zabeluleki batholwa ukuthi buxhumanisa kancane ubudlelwano phakathi kobuhlakani bemizwa yabeluleki kanye nekhono labafundi lokufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yomphefumulo. Izinkomba zokulinganisa imodeli konke kutholakale ukuthi kunemikhawulo eyamukelekayo. Imiphumela iqhubeka ikhombisa ukuthi umehluko omkhulu ubungekho phakathi kwezici zomlando womfundi nobukhulu bamakhono okufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yomphefumulo, ngaphandle kweminyaka.

Lolu cwaningo lufaka isandla ekuqondeni okubanzi nokuqondakalayo kobudlelwano phakathi kobuhlakani bezemizwa yomphefumulo, ubuholi kanye nokufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yomphefumulo. Imodeli nezincomo ezisanda kuthuthukiswa, ngokususelwe kokutholakele ocwaningweni lwezobuciko, kuzoba nomthelela kokuqukethwe kwolwazi ezindaweni zobuhlakani bezemizwa yomphefumulo, ubuholi kanye nokufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa

yomphefumulo ezikoleni zamabanga aphakeme. Bazosiza futhi, ngezinga elikhulu ukubikezela ngamakhono okufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yomphefumulo kubafundi basezikoleni zamazinga aphakeme. Bangabuye baqondise abacwaningi nabasebenza kwezinye izikhungo ukwenza ngcono ukungenelela kwamanje kwenhlangano zabasebenzi nabe zikhungo.

Ubuhlakani ngokwemiza yomphefumulo, amamodeli wobuhlakani ngokwemizwa yomphefumulo, ubuholi, ubuholi obuguqukayo, ukufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yomphefumulo, amakhono okufunda kwezenhlalo nangokwemizwa yemphefumulo, i-CASEL, abeluleki bezikole, ukuhlolwa kwesakhiwo sokulinganisa (PLS-SEM), izikole eziphakeme eGhana.

TRANSLATION (Sesotho)

KAKARETSO

MOHLALA WA BOETAPELE BA BAELETSI LE BOHLALE BA MAIKUTLO E LE DIKGAKANYO TSA DIPHETHO TSA HO ITHUTA HA PHEDISANO LE MAIKUTLO HA BAITHUTI

ka

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Baithuti ba tla qeta sekolong mme nakwana kamora moo ba qale mesebetsi mekgatlong. Patlisiso e supa hore baithuti ba dikolo tse mahareng ha ba qete sekolo ka bokgoni bo hlokahalang ba phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo hore ba atlehe le ho ba le molemo mosebetsing le bophelong. Sepheo sa mantlha sa phuputso ena e ne e le ho theha mohlala wa boetapele ba baeletsi le bohlale ba maikutlo, e le dikgakanyo tsa diphetho tsa thuto ya phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo. Mohlala ona o tla thusa ditheo tsa thuto, haholo-holo dikolo tse phahameng(di-SHS), le ditsebi tsa thuto ya kelello tsa mekgatlo ho utlwisisa habetere kamano e kopaneng ya dikgaho tse tharo molemong wa ho ntshetsa pele bohlale ba maikutlo ba baeletsi le ba baetapele ba thuto le bokgoni ba baithuti ba ho ithuta phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo. Phuputso ena e entswe dikolong tse phahameng tse hlano sebakeng sa Greater Accra naheng ya Ghana, ho sebediswa sampole ya baithuti ba 800 ba boemo ba 3 (SHS 3). Phuputsong ena, bohlale ba maikutlo bo ile ba nahanwa ho ipapisitswe le kgopolo ya Goleman (1995) ya bohlale ba maikutlo le mmotlolo wa

thuto le bokgoni wa Wong le Law (2011); boetapele bo tadingwa ka ho latela mohopolo wa boetapele wa phetoho; mme thuto ya phedisano le maikutlo e ile ya hlahlojwa ho sebediswa moralo wa bokgoni o arotsweng ka dikarolo tse hlano tsa thuto ya phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo wa Kopano ya Thuto, Thuto ya Phedisano le Taolo ya Maikutlo (CASEL).

Mmotlolo wa tekanyo wa dibopeho tsa disekwere tse arotsweng ka ho lekana (PLS-SEM) o sebeditswe phuputsong e matla ho ntlafatsa mmotlolo wa boetapele ba baeletsi le bohlale ba maikutlo, e le dikgakanyo tsa diphetho tsa ho ithuta ha phedisano hwa baithuti le taolo ya maikutlo. Mmotlolo o bontshitse hore ho na le kamano ya dipalo-palo pakeng tsa bohlale ba maikutlo ba baeletsi le boetapele ba phetoho le boiphihlelo ba baithuti ba ho ithuta phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo. Ntle le moo, ho na le kamano e hantle le ya bohlokwa e neng e le teng dipakeng tsa boetapele ba phetoho le boiphihlelo ba baithuti ba ho ithuta phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo. Ho feta moo, boetapele ba phetoho ya baeletsi bo fumanwe bo kena dipakeng tsa kamano dipakeng tsa bohlale ba maikutlo ba baeletsi le boiphihlelo ba baithuti ba ho ithuta phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo. Dipontsho tsa ho lekana ha mmotlolo kaofela di fumanwe di le kahara meedi e amohelehang. Diphetho di boetse di bontsha hore diphapano tse kgolo di ne di le siyo pakeng tsa dintlha tsa maphelo a baithuti le ditekanyo tsa bokgoni ba ho ithuta phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo, ntle le dilemo.

Patlisiso ena e kenya letsoho kutlwisisong e pharalletseng le e phethahetseng ya dikamano dipakeng tsa bohlale ba maikutlo, boetapele le ho ithuta phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo. Mmotlolo le dikgothaletso tse sa tswa ntlafatswa, tse ipapisitseng le diphumano tsa patlisiso ya matla, di tla kenya letsoho sehlopheng sa ditsebo dibakeng tsa bohlale ba maikutlo, boetapele le thuto ya phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo dikolong tse phahameng. Hape, di tla thusa haholo ho hakanyetsa bokgoni ba ho ithuta phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo ho baithuti ba dikolong tse phahameng. Di kanna tsa tataisa bafuputsi le ditsebi ditheong tse ding ho ntlafatsa ho kena dipakeng ha hajwale ha mekgatlo le ditheo.

Bohlale ba maikutlo, dimmotlolo tsa bohlale ba maikutlo, boetapele, boetapele ba phetoho, ho ithuta phedisano le taolo ya maikutlo, bokgoni ba ho ithuta setjhabeng

le maikutlong, CASEL, baeletsi ba dikolo, diteko tsa sebopeho sa tekano ya mehlala (PLS-SEM), dikolo tse phahameng tsa Ghana.

CHAPTER 1: SCIENTIFIC BACKGROUND

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This study examined whether school counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership skills could predict students' social and emotional learning competencies, with particular reference to senior high schools in Ghana. This chapter provides the background of the study, leading to the problem statement, research objectives and related deliverables. It also provides an overview of the relevance of the study, together with its contribution to the body of knowledge. An overview of the research model is presented that include the research philosophy, approach, design and strategy. A summary of the data collection techniques employed in the research and ethical considerations of the study are done in this chapter. The chapter concludes by providing an overview of the thesis outline and its chapter summary.

1.2. BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

As Goleman (1995) states, while much importance has been placed on cognitive intelligence (IQ), general intelligence becomes less important when emotions are involved. A person when faced with making and taking decisions and choosing courses of action, often has as much of an impact, if not more than the person's thoughts. Actually, Goleman (1995) maintains that the two elements are negatively correlated. The more intense the feelings and emotions, the more indecisive the coherent mind becomes.

Increased acceptance of emotion, especially emotional intelligence in the workplace, has coerced leaders to interact with and encounter more emotions than ever before. Leadership development programmes including emotional intelligence have caught the attention of researchers and experts alike (Day, 2000; Goodwin, 2016). Research on leadership in the social science domain grew in the 1970s and has emerged as one of the most debated, studied and questioned topics in the human behaviour literature for the past four decades (Bennis & Nanus, 2007). All this while, scholars from the psychology, management and cognitive intelligence fields amongst others have revealed the path of theoretical and empirical studies allowing for questioning

involving definitions of leadership (Jackson, 2016), the antecedents and consequences of leadership, leadership performance and leadership measures (Lloyd, Boer & Voelpel, 2015; Scanlan & Johnson, 2015). These studies continue to energize academic investigations of leaders and leadership (Badewi, 2016; Banihashemi, Hosseini, Golizadeh & Sankaran, 2017; Javed, Naqvi, Khan, Arjoon & Tayyab, 2017; Tabassi et al., 2016). The notion of emotional intelligence has advanced as one of the most prevalent in the leadership and management literature; thus it has become important to understand and promote it for the sake of improving the capacity of human capital in organisations. Reseachers have posited that increased emotional intelligence leads to accomplishment in various aspects of life including work and relationships (Demirel & Sarlak, 2009; Farh, Seo & Tesluk, 2012; Gutierrez, Candela & Carver, 2012).

Organisations tend to spend lots of money on training and development programmes geared to furnishing vital leadership abilities and skills with the sole purpose of increasing employee effectiveness and organisational performance (Farh et al., 2012; Zijlmans, Embregts, Gerits, Bosman & Derksen, 2011). Most of these programmes are leadership development programmes laying emphasis on emotional intelligence (EI). EI involves a person's ability to control and manage their emotions of other individuals (Zijlmans et al., 2011). EI specifies the knowledge about emotions and how this knowledge inspires interpersonal relationships.

EI skills are cultivated from the ability to be conscious of a person's own emotions and ways of behaviour, to handle negative or destructive emotions efficiently to participate in constructive relationships and understandings with others in ways that foster learning and life satisfaction. Studies reveal that life satisfaction originates from the growth of pro-social behaviour, the antecedent of empathy, and contemporary empirical research has shown that EI has an impact on a variety of workplace outcomes (Farh et al., 2012; Goodwin, 2016; Walter, Cole & Humphrey, 2011; Zijlmans et al., 2011).

Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2004) proclaim that EI is vital for leadership because leaders work with emotions and their principal job is emotional. EI has been found to be important in the improvement of successful leadership, assisting in self-awareness, self-management, interpersonal and intrapersonal skills toward more effective

communication and problem solving in organisations (Goleman, 2006; Harms & Crede, 2010; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). Leadership is a concept mainly debated in relation to emotional intelligence (Goodwin, 2016). Effective leaders exhibiting high emotional intelligence frequently help the persons they lead to advance their own level of emotional intelligence, probably resulting in a more dynamic organisation and a healthier organisational climate (Choi, Tran & Park, 2015; Momeni, 2009).

Howard (2005) defines leadership as a manner of communication (verbal and non-verbal) which comprises instructing, encouraging or inspiring, coaching or supervising and advising others. Heifetz and Linsky (2004) state that leadership is the skill to encourage and assemble persons recognised with definite skills to deliberate and accomplish specific tasks and to be able to accomplish goals. The leadership definition of Heifetz and Linsky (2004) points out the human and social components of leadership. Dorbrzanska (2005) adds that the human factor is vital in such undertakings, since leadership is perceived as the skill to show and pass on individual independence. Humphrey (2002) perceives leadership as an inherently emotional course where leaders recognise subordinates' emotional states, try to arouse emotions in subordinates and then subsequently continue to handle subordinates emotional states and conditions.

Groysberg and Slind (2012) assert that an inclusive leader is a role model for novel developments in general behaviour, pays attention to and obtains the opinions of different individuals and takes note of these opinions, without being partial and judgemental in their decision-making. These leaders value their followers for their ideas and contributions. The ability to recognise emotions makes leaders conscious of their own feelings and emotions. This competence also enables leader to specifically recognise the emotions of the populace and of subordinates. Subordinates also show emotions accurately and feel associated with and sympathetic to each other (Javed et al., 2017).

According to Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2006), good leadership is more than merely executing controls and scheduling an agenda. Hughes et al. (2006) mention that although rational analysis can augment effective leadership, good leadership also includes stimulating the emotions of others, stressing that emotions are vital in leadership too. Many researchers have specified that significant relationship exists

between EI and leadership effectiveness (Boyatzis, 2008, 2009; Goodwin, 2006; Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2006; Walter et al., 2011).

Studies have also indicated that the EI of an organisational leader relates with the superiority of the leader's association with subordinates (Javed et al., 2017; Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall & Salovey, 2006). Leaders with higher emotional intelligence have an inclination to have healthier working relations with their followers. For this reason, healthier working relationships with subordinates yield healthier and improved employee outcomes, such as organisational commitment, job performance and employee retention (Hunt, Layton & Prince, 2015; Javed et al., 2017; Petrides & Furnham, 2006).

There are several models of leadership that concentrate on diverse types of leadership. These types of leadership are at the personal or leader level, of which a fundamental model is that of transformational leadership (Fulcher, 2017; Goodwin, 2016; Saxe, 2011; Webb, 2005). Studies show that EI is a way of assisting the advancement of transformational leadership behaviours and leadership attainment (Fulcher, 2017). Literature supports the notion that transformational leadership, although not demonstrative of all types of leadership, offers a model of clear theoretical interactions with emotional intelligence (Fulcher, 2017; Fullan, 2014; Goodwin 2016). Javed et al. (2017) reveal that leaders who care about the feelings of their subordinates and show this by engaging in reciprocal interactions, who influence them and allow subordinates to contribute to the vision so that subordinates feel appreciated, serve as the most effective solution for the greater good. Jadhav and Gupta (2014) also state that the person who is able to detect the emotions of other individuals is more capable of building emotional links with them, thereby fostering closer relationships with them. Emotional intelligence aligns with the ability and capability to understand the emotions of oneself and others, and to handle these emotions, as well as use them in handling the stresses associated with own emotions and those of other individuals (Austin, Saklofse, Smith & Tohver, 2014).

Much emphasis is laid on employees to build knowledge and abilities, and to raise their efficiency and organisational effectiveness; i.e. on individuals who are already working (Day, 2000). However, little has been done to build the knowledge and skills of children (students) who will grow to become future employees in organisations

(Sinek, 2014; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). According to labour market research and findings from international educational assessments, high school and college students do not complete school with the social and emotional competencies required to be successful and fruitful at work and at life (Hedrick & Homan, 2012; National Research Council, 2012).

According to Goodwin (2016), EI skills can be used to forecast student achievement in education, predominantly the skills linked to leadership, as well as other competencies, some of which include social awareness, empathy, decision-making, effective communication, emotional self-control and empathetic differences in individuals. Since research has revealed that EI can be imparted and incorporated into the school programme, EI skill development may assist in providing for the education and development of more effective student occupational leaders (Fulcher, 2017; Goodwin, 2016). Theorists and researchers have consistently cited the importance of effective school leadership in relation to improved educational outcomes (Fulcher, 2017; Sinek, 2014; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015) and have stated that educational leaders need skills in human development and the ability to have an impact on human behaviour (Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Sinek, 2014; Wiseman, Allen & Foster, 2013).

According to Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom and Anderson (2010), the Wallace Foundation commissioned an exhaustive research project on the relationship between school leadership and student learning. The writers subsequently established that when principals and educators share leadership, educators' operational relations with each other are stronger and student achievement is advanced. It is no longer accepted that the proprietor is the only leader of a school. Leadership is dispersed across the school with managerial leaders, teachers and principals assuming corresponding roles and responsibilities. Contemporary researchers researching educational institutions have stated that administrators can no longer lead an instructional programme for an entire school without the extensive contribution and involvement of other educators (Ackerman & Anderson, 2010; Fulcher, 2017; Fullan, 2014; Sinek, 2014; Wiseman et al., 2013).

The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (2007) maintains that it is generally established that contemporary educational systems should empower

students to undertake core academic subjects and focus on collaborating with other personalities from diverse upbringings and contexts in socially and emotionally skilled methods to be able to espouse responsible, resilient and reverential behaviours. Studies support the notion that students who advance in terms of social and emotional learning competencies have a better life and perform better in school (Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor & Schellinger, 2011; Rogers, 2015; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). For this reason, educators, policymakers, stakeholders and governments universally are taking important steps to encourage and foster social and emotional learning (SEL) skills to increasing students' achievement and success in schools and further in work and life (Durlak et al., 2011; Fulcher, 2017; Sinek, 2014; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015).

Social emotional learning (SEL) is the manner in which individuals develop social and emotional learning (CASEL, 2003). Social intelligence is the skilfulness to recognise and handle individuals thoughtfully in social relations. Education delivery coupled with a counselling programme ensures quality teaching and learning outcomes. The learner in the centre of the learning process develops a stable mind to concentrate on learning. Learning improves, the scale of enrolment and participation is improved and students' achievement level is enhanced as challenges associated with it are adequately addressed (Ministry of Education, 2010). This is embedded in Carl Rogers' person-centred counselling theory otherwise known as the student-centred theory (Rogers, 2007). Carl Rogers' individual-centred counselling comprises conversation therapy which situates customers at the core of their own psychotherapy. Person-centred psychotherapists work to create a rapport with their customers with whom therapists are then able to advance customers' self-awareness. Through this medium, psychotherapists assist them to effect changes in their lives centred on a better comprehension of their emotions and behaviour, a course that positively leads to the customer (student) living a more satisfying and significant life.

When they grow up, students will occupy work and social roles in societies and communities that are now filled by adults (Sinek, 2014; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). There is a considerable gap between what is learnt in the classroom and the real-life context of students' current or would-be world (Tengey, 2016, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). Most of the problem lies in the fact that educators lay emphasis on classroom

knowledge and teaching, as opposed to teachings outside of the classroom which encompass the total education and skills development of students. The development of children's potential can be realised from home through school to the world of work and should involve school leaders (school counsellors), as well as school children's (students') participation in the development of their latent intellectual abilities (Tengey, 2016, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015).

SEL is built on positive youth development in line with Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory. Positive youth development stresses and advocates for the essential requirements of adolescence to be understood by constructing a context or atmosphere that stimulates outcomes such as school success, empathetic relationships with grownups and colleagues, problem-solving skills and communal engagement (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczek & Hawkins, 2004; Greenberg, Kusche & Riggs, 2003; McCuin, 2012). Interventions to support positive youth development differ from those centred on preventing risk factors because they are intended to cultivate abilities, build assets and stimulate adaptability to achieve positive outcomes (Catalano et al., 2002; McCuin, 2012). Positive youth development competencies such as SEL programming characteristically use skill-building; total youth development that is centred on ongoing interventions and not just on checking difficulties (Catalano et al., 2004; Tengey & Ganu, 2015).

It is in the ineffective accomplishment of basic necessities that an individual's behaviour deviates from the standard. The reality therapy method of counselling and problem-solving emphasises the here-and-now activities of the customer and the capability to develop and choose a better future. When teenagers have an understanding of their thoughts, feelings and needs, they understand an important component of what it is to be an exceptional and skilful individual. When possessing these skills and competencies, school children are capable of developing empathy. However, individuals are not generally able to know how to develop these competencies without direction and counselling (Rogers, 2015).

School counsellors are tasked with being frontrunners and leaders for systemic change through the delivery of a developmental school counselling programme (American School Counsellor Association [ASCA], 2008). The outcome of the acquisition of relevant skills and the right attitudes to satisfy the essential needs to

meet industrial and societal demands requires a balance between the affective (EI) and the social/skills (SEL) domains of the learner. Students who are well guided and counselled have a better chance of developing their latent abilities, leading to self-discovery (Rogers, 2015; Sinek, 2014; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). School children who develop EI competencies and empathy seem to be assertive, confident, natural leaders and win the hearts of their cohorts and educators, as well as enhance their own development as persons, thus allowing efficiency and diversity in the domain in which we live (Tengey 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015).

Since SEL is geared to developing the skills of students it will be prudent to focus more attention on SEL in preparation for EI skills (Tengey, 2016, 2015; Tengey & Ganu 2015). This will improve students' social and emotional learning competencies (SELC) which will culminate in and translate to positive EI when they grow to occupy leadership positions. The constructs of the study; emotional intelligence, effective leadership and social and emotional learning competencies (SELC) are elaborately discussed in the subsequent chapters.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to the National Research Council (2012), educators in district schools face problems in preparing students for skilled work and individual success. While developing a student's educational competency is arguably the most vital element of an educator's career responsibilities, educators also need to assist students to develop skills important for their careers. Beside the academic curriculum, students need to nurture a range of supplementary skills and capabilities to be institutionally and occupationally ready. These skills comprise collaboration, self-regulation and responsible decision-making (National Governors Association Centre for Best Practices & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010; Student Achievement Partners, 2012; Yoder, 2013). Adolescents will one day take over the organisational and social roles and responsibilities now being assumed by adults. There is a substantial and noteworthy gap between what is acquired in the classroom and the real-life situation of students' current and imminent world (Tengey & Ganu, 2015). Researchers (National Research Council, 2012; Tengey & Ganu, 2015) indicate that some students are not sufficiently trained to assume work right after completing

school, not only in developing countries but also in developed countries (American Management Association, 2010). According to Sinek (2014), to cultivate an attitude that confronts the existing situation and advances participation and development of these skills, school authorities and leaders need to obtain, cultivate and show increasing levels of EI.

EI offers leaders the awareness required to meet the needs of educators involved in evolving a mutual idea for their school, sustaining an emphasis on superior accomplishments for all students, building school principles and the values of trust and respect. According to Moore (2009) and Sinek (2014), leadership continues to be a pivotal theme for school development and, for that matter, institutions of higher education and policymakers need to work on studies and research that disclose the relationship between EI and effective leadership. Research reveals EI as a means of supporting the development of transformational leadership behaviours and leadership achievement, possibly supporting student success in institutions (Goodwin, 2016).

Harms and Crede (2010), as well as Lam and O'Higgins (2012), amongst other researchers, state that EI is found to be significant in the development of effective leadership, supporting self-awareness, self-management and interpersonal and intrapersonal skills toward effective communication and problem-solving. Pirola-Merlo Hartel, Mann and Hirst (2002) assert that the need for research into the emotional spheres of work is vital and the lack of it is impeding progression in understanding organisational behaviour. In the Ghanaian setting, there is a scarcity of research studies on the relationship among these variables, especially among educational institutions. Johnson and Indvik (1999) explain that previously, employees were expected to leave their emotions at home, as the intellect was valued in most institutional cultures. Researchers who endorse leadership research have focused largely on the leader's outward behaviour and on cognitive traits, while the exploration of the emotional development of leaders has been ignored (Yukl, 2002). EI can help explain the effects of the emotional aspects of effective leadership and organisational life. Albrow (1992) states that emotions may be seen as interfering with rationality and effective decision-making, which has resulted in them being ignored in the literature.

Cherniss (2003) postulates that leaders may not be able to attain their maximum potential without EI; for that matter, it may be as vital as rational or cognitive

intelligence. EI can cushion leaders in specifically recognising reality through understanding and connecting to others' emotions. Studies have shown that accepting and relating to others is important in leadership, taking subordinates' opinions and emotions into consideration by empowering them (Cherniss, 2003; Javed et al., 2017).

The National Centre for Children in Poverty recognises the association between EI and overall mood and urges states to provide and support programmes that develop social-emotional intelligence in children (Isakson, Davidson, Higgins & Cooper, 2011). In a fledgling field like EI, with less than four decades of theory, practice and research, an excessive amount of work must be accomplished to evaluate the effect of SEL programmes. School counsellors are the professionals to whom teachers and administrators refer students with academic, emotional and behavioural problems. These problems and their urgent consequences often require school counselling services (Adams, Benshoff & Harrington, 2007). The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, amongst other policies, have had a profound impact on the school counselling profession. These legislated mandates require school counsellors to deliver evidence-based and accountable school counselling services. In closing these achievement gaps, school counsellors (SCs) are called upon to be leaders for systemic change through the delivery of a developmental school counselling programme (ASCA, 2008

One of the goals of the government of Ghana is to create wealth and to transform the country to middle-income status. This goal will be an illusion if the greater proportion of its population remains not only illiterate and unskilled but also emotionally unbalanced (GES, 2010). EI may be the missing component needed within the school system. In this vain, research on EI, leadership and SELC could make a valuable contribution to organisations in understanding EI as essential, which could in turn have a positive effect on education and the training of school counsellors and influence students' emotional learning competencies (Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). More research is also needed regarding how to successfully incorporate these competencies into everyday assessment practices in content areas in the academic year and with regard to future work (Denham & Brown, 2010; Jones & Bouffard, 2012; Voogt & Roblin, 2010).

This study aims to benefit not only industrial and organisational psychologists but also secondary education institutions in order to provide an understanding of the way EI

can lead to effective leadership, thus improving school counsellors' emotional state and having a positive effect on their leadership skills; in turn, positively influencing students' SEL outcomes. It is expected that a model of school counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence could be developed in this study to predict students' social and emotional learning competencies and the findings of this study could inform interventions for effective leadership, EI and SEL in educational institutions.

Based on the above discussion, the general research question is posed as follows:

To what extent can the model of counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence predict students' social and emotional learning competencies?

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The specific research questions are as follows:

1.4.1 Research questions regarding the literature review

RQ 1: Based on the literature review, how can the construct of emotional intelligence and leadership as they relate to educational leaders be expounded and explained and what are their key dimensions?

RQ 2: Based on the literature review, how can the construct of social and emotional learning in students be expounded and explained and what are their key dimensions?

RQ 3: Based on the literature review, how can the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership be conceptualised in order to understand their predictive impact on students' social and emotional learning outcomes?

RQ 4: Based on the literature review, do biographical factors influence students' social and emotional learning outcomes?

RQ 5: Would it be possible to develop a theoretical model of counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes?

1.4.2 Research questions pertaining to the empirical study

RQ 1: In what way can the constructs emotional intelligence and leadership of counsellors and their key dimensions be measured within a sample of students in senior high schools?

RQ 2: In what way can the construct social and emotional learning of students and their key dimensions be measured within a sample of students in senior high schools?

RQ 3: What is the empirical relationship between counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership skills and senior high school students' social and emotional learning outcomes?

RQ 4: In what way can the variation in the demographic data of senior high school students be explained?

RQ 5: In what way can an empirical model of counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership predict the social and emotional learning outcomes of a sample of senior high school students?

1.5 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

In relation to the empirical research questions posed, the following aims, as well as the general aim of the study, were formulated as follows:

To develop a model of counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes.

1.5.1. Specific aims of the literature review

The literature review had the following aims (LAs):

LA 1: To expound and explain the constructs of emotional intelligence (EI) and leadership in counsellors and their key dimensions.

LA 2: To expound and explain the construct of social and emotional learning (SEL) in students and its key dimensions.

LA 3: To explain the theoretical relationship between EI and effective leadership in order to understand their predictive impact on students' SEL outcomes.

LA 4: To explain the variation in the data of senior high school students through group differences or moderation

LA 5: To develop a theoretical model of counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of students' SEL outcomes.

1.5.2 Specific aims of the empirical study

The aims of the empirical study (EA) were as follows:

EA 1: To measure the constructs of EI and leadership in counsellors and their key dimensions in a sample of senior high school students.

EA 2: To measure the construct of SEL in students and its dimensions in a sample of senior high school students.

EA 3: To determine the empirical relationship between counsellors' EI and leadership skills, and senior high school students' SEL outcomes.

EA 4: To determine whether there is a variation in the data of senior high school students has through group differences or moderation

EA 5: To develop and test an empirical model of counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of SEL outcomes in a sample of senior high school students.

Based on the research questions and aims formulated for the study a conceptual framework is presented below in Figure 1.1.

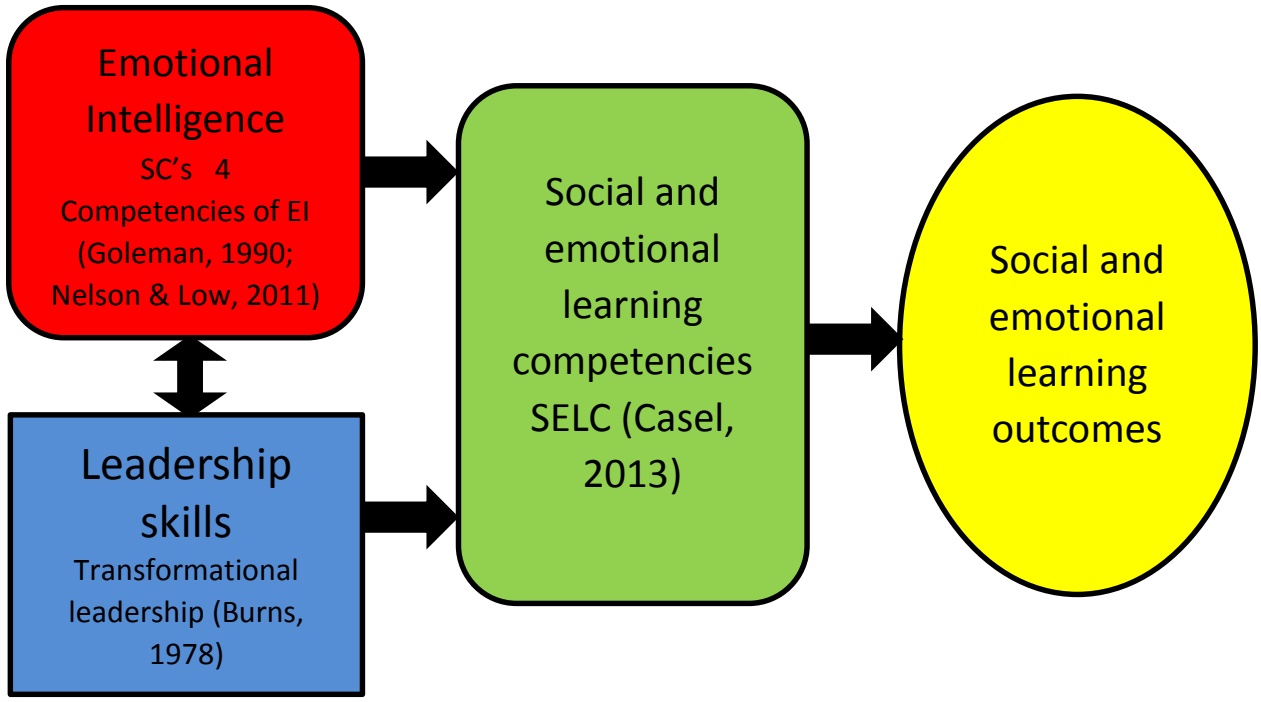

Figure 1.1: *Illustration of the Conceptual Framework of the Study*

In the current study, the independent variables investigated were school counsellors' EI and effective leadership, while the dependent variable was students' SEL competencies. The study concentrated on finding out whether there is a substantial and/or significant relationship between these variables and possibly propose a model of school counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence in predicting students' social and emotional learning outcomes.

1.6 CENTRAL HYPOTHESIS

Based on the conceptual framework of the study, the central hypothesis is formulated as follows:

There is a significant fit of the model of counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of students' social and emotional learning competencies.

1.7 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

This study assumed post-positivist assumptions by employing a scientific method, comprising quantitative research, positivist research and empirical science (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006) explain a paradigm as an all-inclusive scheme for connecting application and philosophy which describes the type of the study alongside the scopes of ontology (the nature of the reality and what can be studied about it), epistemology (the nature of the relationship between the researcher and what is researched) and the methodology (how the researcher hopes to study what they contemplate can be known).

1.7.1 Intellectual climate

Mouton and Marais (1992) maintain that the term "intellectual climate" refers to a range of meta-theoretical principles and beliefs assumed by those functioning within the same discipline and takes the form of assumptions. The disciplinary relationship in this study centres primarily on organisational psychology. Organisational psychology can be defined as the science of human behaviour in the work setting. This implies scientific observation, evaluation and the influencing of behaviour (Truxillo, Bauer & Erdogan, 2016).

In this study, the review of the literature on EI, effective leadership and SEL is conducted in line with a humanistic paradigm. A humanistic paradigm supports the notion that individuals have free will and may be termed a "pathology of consciousness" (Sdorow & Rickabaugh, 2002). The humanistic paradigm debates whether individuals are free and independent in making individual choices, and

whether they have the potential for originality and development. The philosophies underpinning humanism are as follows (Hiemstra & Brockett, 1994):

- The human being is inherently good.
- Every individual is free and independent, and is hence capable of making major individual choices.
- Human potential for growth and development is essentially unlimited.
- In advancement and development, self-concept plays an essential role.
- Everyone has the desire to attain self-actualisation.
- Everyone is defined by reality.
- The individual is responsible for himself and others.

The humanistic paradigm is highly relevant and important for this study, as it focuses on all the ideologies underlying humanism, especially that the human potential for growth and development is essentially limitless, and individuals (students) have the potential to develop social and emotional learning competencies (SELC). In addition, individuals have a responsibility to both themselves and to others, which is a core element (self and social awareness) of EI and SEL (CASEL, 2013; Grigoriou et al., 2012).

The theories that underpin the study include Glasser's (1965) reality therapy and choice theory; positive youth development theory which draws on Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory and Rogers' (2007) student centred, person-centred theory. All of these draw from humanistic ideologies. Reality therapy and choice theory, which were proposed by William Glasser (1965), contemplate realism, responsibility and right or wrong, thus focusing on the present and the future. Glasser's (1965) theory gives individuals the choice to be responsible by choosing the right behaviour. He postulates that social and psychological problems are the extensions and results of poor choices and decisions made about social relationships. Accordingly, he assists people to identify behaviours that are inconsistent and that vary from accepted social norms, to accept them as irresponsible and to change them for more socially appropriate ones. In his opinion, good psychological health rests on loving and being loved and feeling valuable and useful to ourselves and others (Glasser, 1998).

Rogers (2007), on the other hand, theorised from experience the idea of the individual entity in its entirety and self-confidence in the ability to act individually. Person-centred therapy is based on views about certain attitudes and on the three core conditions of congruence, empathy and unconditional positive regard. Rogers (2007) succeeded in linking these with therapeutic understandings and the confidence, drawn from his training, experience and practice that, the client usually tells well how to progress than the psychotherapist. This method is one that supports the client (student) to gain more understanding of his or her own thought processes and discover an inner commitment.

This paradigm is applicable in knowing the influence the institutional and communal setting has on students in ascertaining their SELC.

1.7.2 Meta-theoretical statements

Meta-theoretical assertions are viewpoints or philosophies that reveal the type of field and that position the research questions within a context (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). This stimulates the integration of theories and sets margins for prediction by definite theories and within certain contexts (Abrams & Hogg, 2004). In practice, the research is focused on models and theories in association with the variables identified. As a discipline, the study emphasises Industrial and Organisational Psychology as a field of application. The meta-theoretical assertions that are applicable to the research are discussed in the following sections.

1.7.2.1 Industrial and Organisational Psychology (IOP)

Truxillo et al. (2016) assert that Industrial and Organisational Psychology (IOP) is the science of human behaviour in relation to work and applies psychological theories and philosophies to organisations and persons in their workplaces as well as in the person's work life more generally. The general aim of industrial and organisational psychologists is to uphold and advance structural processes by considering the collaboration between individuals and their work settings from a psychological viewpoint. Research on EI and transformational leadership are among the work-related attitudes that IOP considers. Fundamentally, research into the link between EI

and leadership as predictors of SEL may add new knowledge to existing knowledge and may advance school counsellors' EI as well as students' SELC in educational institutions.

1.7.2.2 Personnel psychology

Personnel psychology focuses particularly on the individual. The emphasis of this field of psychology is on employing the personal differences in workers in envisaging ideal acceptance between the establishment and the worker (Bergh & Theron, 2009). Personnel psychology is consequently concerned with areas such as psychological assessment, employee selection and placement, remuneration, training and development, among others (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). This research focuses on the variances in age, sex and ethnicity in relation to students' SEL outcomes.

1.7.2.3 Career psychology

Bergh and Theron (2009) posit that career psychology focuses on issues related to the career development of persons and is related to employment and unemployment, career concerns in institutions as well as non-organisational issues. As conceptualised by Schreuder and Coetzee (2011), career psychology tries to define the outlines of status occupied and subsequent involvements in one's lifetime. This study assesses and predicts students' SEL. It is expected that students will develop SELC at an early stage which will lead to acquiring EI in leadership positions later at work. Findings from this study will add to current, contemporary information in the field of career psychology.

1.7.2.4 Theoretical models

The literature on EI that is reviewed in this study is drawn from Goleman (1995) and Nelson and Low's (2011) four competencies of EI – the Interpersonal, Leadership, Self-Management and Intrapersonal model of EI. Nelson and Low (2011) presented an EI model with an education and skill-based method for developing EI (Ashworth,

2013). Effective leadership is drawn from Burns' (1978) transformational leadership and SEL is discussed in line with the Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning model (CASEL, 2013).

1.7.3 Conceptual descriptions

The study variables are briefly described below:

- ***Emotional intelligence*** (EI) – a person's ability to recognise their emotions and those of other individuals and to handle their own emotions and those of others (Grigoriou et al., 2012; Zijlmans et al., 2011).
- ***Leadership*** – a way of communicating verbally and non-verbally which includes instructing, encouraging or motivating, leading or supervising and assisting or advising other individuals (Howard, 2005).
- ***Social and emotional learning competencies*** (SELC) – these competencies refer to the abilities, awareness and attitudes essential to comprehend, control and handle feelings (self-awareness), establish and accomplish optimistic aims (self-management), show and express compassion for other people (social awareness), create and uphold optimistic relations (relationship skills) and make informed choices (responsible decision-making). (CASEL, 2013).

1.8 Research variables

According to Neumann (2006), a variable is a notion that can be measured. It is also either independent or dependent. An independent variable is a symbol that stands for a random input and has an outcome or effect on other constructs, while a dependent variable is a symbol that stands for an arbitrary output and is the product, result or outcome of other variables (Stewart, 2011). In the current study, the independent variables are school counsellors' EI and effective leadership, while the dependent variable is students' SELC. The study concentrates on finding out whether there is a substantial and/or significant statistical relationship among the variables; EI, leadership and SEL and possibly propose a model for these variables.

1.8.1 Methods used to ensure reliability and validity

Sufficient measures were put in place to guarantee a reliable and valid research study:

1.8.1.1 Validity

According to Babbie and Mouton (2009), validity is the degree to which the measuring tools sufficiently reveal the actual association between the ideas being studied. Internal and external validity are vital for a worthy research procedure. Terre Blanche et al. (2006) highlight the significance of plainly stating the purpose of the study, hypothetical models supporting the research, capturing the framework in which the study will be conducted and the research method. The characteristics of the sample and the measuring tools employed are also vital in guaranteeing the validity of the research. In the current study, validity is ensured by

- Employing the models and philosophies from the literature review applicable to the study topic, aims and the statement of the problem as guiding principles.
- Choosing valid and reliable assessing tools that are appropriate and relevant to the theories and models underpinning the research and ensure that they are offered in a consistent and standardised form.

The selection of a sample was done in a way that would guarantee external validity. Data was collected physically, stored and then analysed using IBM SPSS (VERSION 25).

1.8.1.2 Reliability

Reliability is referred to as the degree to which the assessment tools provide matching results when used over and over again (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Reliability was ensured in the study process as follows:

- ***Data collection****.* Senior high school students in the Greater Accra region who had gone through counselling were requested to participate in the survey.
- ***Data management***. The data collected was coded and stored in an Excel sheet.

- ***Data analysis***. A statistical package IBM SPSS (VERSION 25) was used to analyse the data. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to establish internal consistency and the subsequent reliability of the instruments used to collect data. According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006), a reliability coefficient of between 0.70 and 0.75 is suitable for research instruments.

1.8.2 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis refers to the objects or things that are investigated in order to convey generalisations of these objects and to additionally explain the differences among them (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). According to a Ministry of Education, Ghana Education Service & National Education Assessment Unit report (Ministry of Education, 2016), there are 91 senior high schools in the Greater Accra region of which 52 are private and 39 are public senior high schools. Students in these senior high schools in the Greater Accra region accordingly formed the population (N) of the study. The following five schools: Tema secondary school, St. Thomas Aquinas Senior High, Presbyterian Senior High Teshie, the Presbyterian Boys Senior High, and the Legon and Accra High School students were earmarked as the study sample owing to their counselling services.

Eight hundred respondents (students) were selected from the above five senior high schools in the Greater Accra region of Ghana to form the sample size (n = 800). The respondents comprised senior high school students who had gone through counselling with school counsellors in the capital region (Greater Accra) of Ghana.

1.9 RESEARCH METHOD

The study involved two stages. The first stage comprised a review of the literature while the second entailed the empirical research. These stages are discussed below:

Stage one: Literature review

This stage entailed the following steps:

Step 1: Expound EI from a theoretical perspective.

Step 2: Expound leadership from a theoretical perspective.

Step 3: Expound SEL from a theoretical perspective.

Step 4: Integrate the variables and expound the theoretical relationship between the variables by means of a theoretical model.

Step 5: Formulate the study hypotheses to be able to achieve the study objectives.

Stage two: Empirical study

Stage two consists of the following steps:

Step 1: Determination and description of the sample

Given the focus of this study, senior high school students from both public and private schools in Ghana formed the population for the study. Eight hundred respondents were included in the study. Senior high school students in levels one to three (SHS 1–3) aged 18 and above from the Greater Accra region of Ghana were each given a self-report and a multi-rater questionnaire to complete. The questions were related to their SELC and their school counsellors' EI and leadership skills. Ghana is situated on the west coast of Africa. It is made up of ten administrative regions and Greater Accra is the capital city. The Greater Accra region was chosen for the study population because it is the capital city of Ghana and there are more senior high schools in the city than in any of the other regions.

1.9.1 Sampling technique

Convenience sampling, which was used to select the respondents in this study, is a kind of nonprobabilty or non-random sampling in which participants of the target

population that meet the criteria at that given moment or the willingness to partake are included for the purpose of the study (Saumaure & Given, 2008).

Step 2: Choosing and motivating the measuring instrument

1.9.1.1 Measurement instrument

The measuring instrument, i.e. the questionnaire, was divided into the following parts:

Section A – questions eliciting biographical data including age, gender, ethnicity and senior high level (SHS 1–3)

Section B – questions relating to school counsellors' EI

Section C – questions relating to school counsellors' leadership skills

Section D – questions relating to students' SELC

The measuring tools employed in assessing the study variables are discussed as follows:

1. **Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)**

Wong and Law (2002) developed a scale to measure EI (WLEIS) founded on the four-branch model. The WLEIS scale is a free-to-use (Perdue, 2016; Tett, Fox & Wang, 2005) simple and practical means to measure EI successfully for a large sample. The WLEIS contains 16 questions on a seven-point Likert Scale (Wong & Law, 2002). The WLEIS scale is divided into four subsections: self-emotions appraisal (SEA), others-emotions appraisal (OEA), use of emotion (UOE) and regulation of emotion (ROE). The subsections established in the WLEIS support the concept of EI being multidimensional (Shi & Wang, 2007; Wong & Law, 2002). Karim (2010) established that there is satisfactory reliability for each of the WLEIS scales due to acceptable Cronbach's alpha levels of 0.81 (SEA), 0.80 (OEA), 0.78 (UOE) and 0.79 (ROE) which shows an acceptable reliability score. In addition, composite factor reliability was conducted for each WLEIS scale with values of 0.82 (SEA), 0.81 (OEA), 0.80 (UOE), and 0.81 (ROE). The WLEIS scale has also been tested for construct validity in

measuring EI (Karim, 2010; Law et al., 2004; Shi & Wang, 2007; Wong & Law, 2002), as well as reliability when the scale was matched to other EI measurements (Karim, 2010; Shi & Wang, 2007; Wong & Law, 2002).

2. **Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI)**

The Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI), developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) contains 28 items responded to on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. The TLI is used to measure transformational leadership behaviours by measuring the six dimensions of transformational leadership, namely, articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, and providing individualised support and intellectual stimulation.

3. **Social and Emotional Competence Questionnaire Scale (SECQs)**

The Social-Emotional Competence Questionnaire (SECQ) is a pool of 25 items developed by Zhou and Ee (2012) on the basis of the theoretical model developed by CASEL (2008). The SECQ is a survey designed to measure how aware children and adolescents are of themselves as well as others and how they respond and react to family, school, civic and public contexts individually and socially.

3: Data administration

1.9.1.2 Data collection

A clearance letter from the Industrial and Organisational Psychology Department/the College of Economic and Management Sciences research ethics review committee, was given to the researcher indicating approval of the research. Verbal instructions for completing the questionnaires were given to the respondents and respondents were given the questionnaires in individual packets. After that was done, the researcher administered the questionnaires. The respondents were briefed on how to complete the questionnaires and all outstanding and unclear issues were clarified. Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaires. The questionnaires took approximately

25 minutes to complete. When respondents had completed the questionnaires, they were collected and collated by the researcher, and will be stored for five years.

1.9.1.3 Data scoring

Responses to the questionnaires – the WLEIS, TLI and SELQ – were made on a seven-point scale (1 – strongly disagree, 2 – disagree, 3 – slightly disagree, 4 – neutral, 5 – slightly agree, 6 – agree, 7 – strongly agree).

1.9.1.4 Data analysis

A quantitative research method was used for this study and the statistical data was processed and analysed by means of descriptive (means and standard deviations) and inferential statistics and structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM is a general, linear and primarily cross-sectional statistical modelling technique. Factor analysis, path analysis and regression analysis all characterise special cases of SEM which include confirmatory factor analysis, partial least squares, path modelling and latent growth modelling, all of which were used in explaining the relationships among the constructs of the study. Hierarchical moderated regression analyses, also known as cluster analyses, were used to empirically examine whether certain biographical groups of variables had an influence in the nature of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Kline, 2011).

The stages in the study are outlined in the flow diagram below:

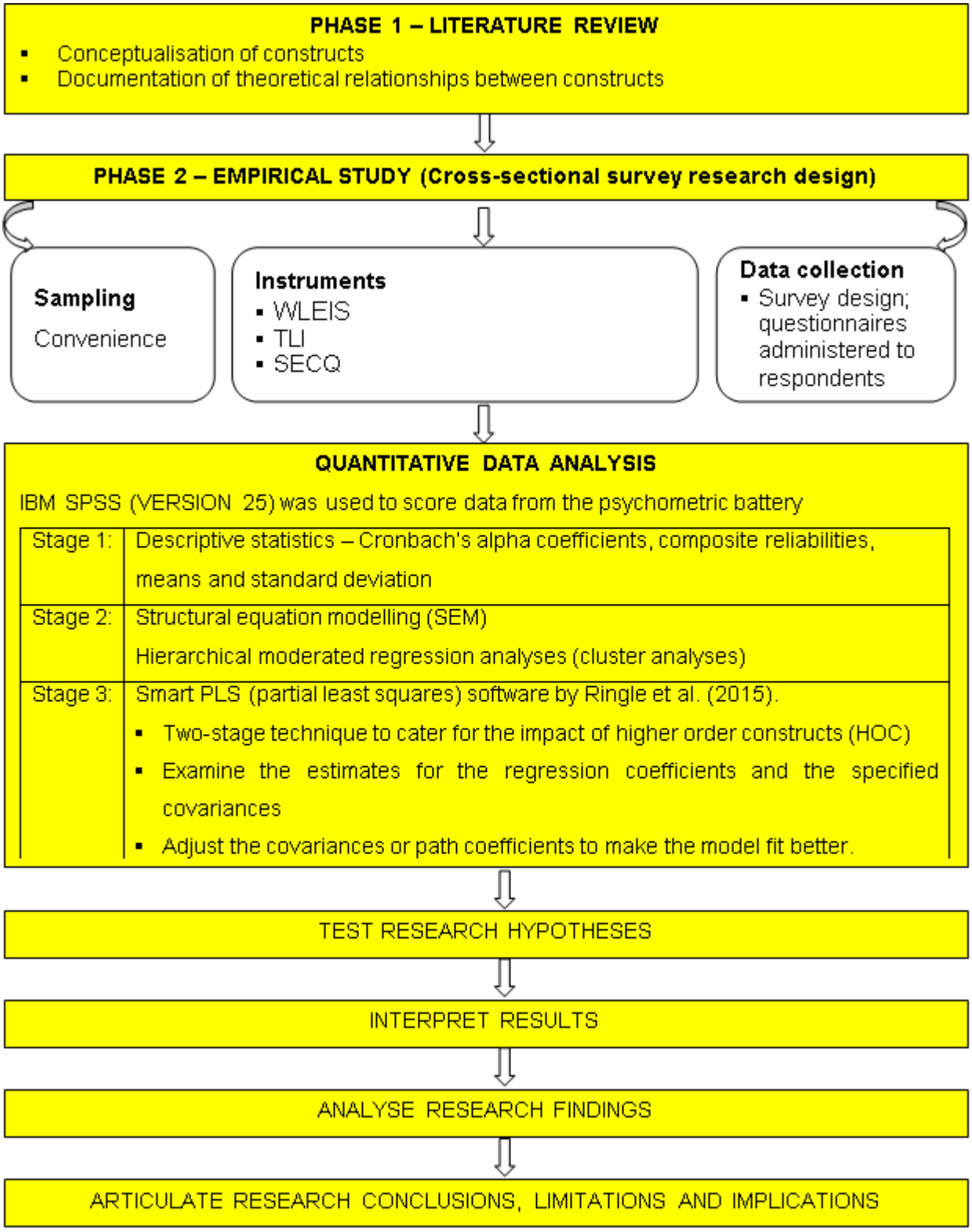

Figure 1.2: *An Outline of the Stages and Flow Diagram of the Study*

1.10 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The chapter layout of the study is organised as follows:

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the study

The aim of this chapter is to present the subject matter and discuss the variables to be studied. This chapter offers the procedures for the design of the study and the methodology employed in gathering and analysing data.

Chapter 2: Emotional intelligence

Chapter 2 provides a theoretical framework and review of the literature on EI. The concept of EI was initially introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990), with theories that underpin the construct being offered by Goleman (1995). Subsequently, Nelson and Low (2011) used these theories to establish a model of EI, which the current study focused on.

Chapter 3: Leadership

This chapter discusses the inception of leadership as a concept. Theories and studies of leadership are reviewed from Plato's concept leadership, to the evolution of contemporary perspectives of leadership. These include competency, behavioural, contingency and transformational perspectives from which transactional, transformational, charismatic and contingent leadership styles emerged. These are discussed with much emphasis and focus on Burns' (1978) transformational leadership which forms the basis for the current study.

Chapter 4: Social and emotional learning

This chapter discusses the theories that underpin youth development. These include William Glasser's (1965) reality therapy and choice theory, Carl Rogers' (2007) client/student-centred theories and positive youth development which draws from Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory. Related studies on SEL, which is based on CASEL's framework especially CASEL (2013), are also reviewed. A conceptual model will subsequently be developed based on the three main constructs.

Chapter 5: Methodology

Chapter 5 presents the methodology comprising the sample of units, data collection and analysis. The design of the study is also discussed. The assessment tools are presented and statistical information from the data analysis relevant to the study aims and hypotheses is presented.

Chapter 6: Research results

Results from the empirical studies is presented. A discussion of the results and integration of the findings of the empirical research with the literature review is done. Descriptive and inferential statistics are employed in reporting the statistical results. Structural equation modelling is used to test the conceptual model of EI and effective leadership in predicting students' SEL. The chapter ends with a summary and an integration of the research results.

Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This, the final chapter, encompasses a comprehensive analysis and discussion of the results and conclusions are drawn. Recommendations for educational institutions are also made in this chapter. In addition, the limitations encountered in the course of the study are presented and suggestions are made for future studies and for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to offer an overview of the research. The context and motivation for the study of the constructs of EI, leadership and SEL were highlighted. The general aim was formulated as deriving a model for counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of students' SEL outcomes. An overview of the research design and stages of the research were given. The next chapter deals with a review of the construct of EI.

CHAPTER 2: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter entails an analysis of the theories and the review of the literature on the construct of emotional intelligence (EI). The aim of this chapter is to focus on phase one of the literature review, namely, to expound the concept of EI. To begin with, the definition, paradigmatic and theoretical foundations of EI are presented and the theoretic models of EI are presented and assessed. The chronology of EI as a construct is given and the chapter ends with a discussion of EI in education, psychology and school counselling.

2.2 DEFINING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The notion of EI has been defined in several ways but most researchers agree to a salient definition that an individual's knack of recognising an individual's emotions and the emotions of others and managing emotions within themselves and those of others (Goleman, 1998; Grigoriou, Vasiliki, Tachias, Gilyana & Bougiesi, 2012; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). EI refers to a total awareness that individuals have of emotions, a skill to control reactions and an aptitude to analytically assess situations. EI consists of empathy, sympathy and altruism. Mayer et al. (2001) indicates that, EI is more than just handling emotions; it is the consideration of and understanding of emotions. The core of EI relates to sufficiently identifying emotions. Mayer, DiPaolo, and Salovey (1990) claim that EI affords a person to recognise and comprehend what he or she is feeling and how emotions affect and influence behaviours. Seal and Andrews-Brown (2010) are of the opinion that the idea of EI can be challenging to describe due to the several definitions and interpretations. The authors (Seal & Andrews-Brown, 2010) state that in order to define EI effectively, its fundamentals must be comprehended.

The basis of EI is profoundly entrenched in social intelligence (Killian, 2012; Law, Wong & Song, 2004; Seal & Andrews-Brown, 2010) and social intelligence has been pronounced as having both self-motivated and static abilities (Clarke, 2006). This ever-

changing characteristic of social intelligence supports EI because emotional reactions are exclusive, and exceptional explanations may be needed for demanding circumstances (Mayer et al., 2001). EI can offer upgraded understanding into future behaviours (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008). EI permits an examination of the magnitudes that occur as a result of destructive emotions, thus analysing reactions to emotions can have an impact on an individual's overall outlook. EI is an exceptional construct compared to traditional intelligence (Ciarrochi, Deane & Anderson, 2002) and other constructs. Testing for these other constructs leads to diverse outcomes (Bar-on, Tranel, Denburg & Bechara, 2003; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Killian, 2012; Mayer et al., 2001). Thus EI has efficiently met the standards to be referred to as a unique construct (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004; Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000). EI will therefore be one of the constructs to be studied together with leadership and SEL in the current study.

Salovey and Mayer (1990. P. 189) stated that emotional intelligence is "the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions". This definition has been the most extensive and scientifically suitable description of EI. On the other hand, Goleman (1998, p. 317) defined EI as "the capacity for organising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and our relationships".

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000) and Salovey and Mayer (1990), mentioned EI as interconnected competencies which can be categorised into these clusters below:

- Being able to perceive precisely, appraise and exhibit emotion
- Being able to access or construct emotions when they enable thinking
- Being able to understand emotions and emotional information
- Being able to regulate emotions to stimulate emotional intellectual advancement (Gerber, 2014)

The scope of EI which is expounded and discussed in the current study is as follows:

- Being able to consciously identify individual's own emotions
- Being able to ascertain emotions of others
- Being able to control an individual's own feelings
- Being able to recognise and cope with others' emotions

Seal and Andrews-Brown (2010, p. 144) indicate that “emotional intelligence is the intelligent use of emotions”. For that matter, EI is the incorporation of emotion and intelligence (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2007; Freshwater & Stickley, 2004). Following is a discussion on emotions and intelligence in relation to EI;

2.2.1 Emotions

Emotions are necessary when trying to understand the construct of EI. On the one hand, researchers such as Russel (1980), Yik and Russel (2003) and Watson and Rellegen (1985) have presented models of major emotions which conceptualise these along different scopes. On the one hand, researchers such as Ortony and Turner (1990) and Scherer (1992) back a conceptualisation in which emotions entail more fundamental primary components (compound process theory). The description in this study will not concentrate on whether basic emotions are present, but will rather concentrate on the categorisation of emotions from the outlook of an emotional vocabulary.

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2004) recommend the use (and practice) of a widespread emotional vocabulary to advance a better understanding of emotions. Mayer, Caruso and Salovey’s (2004), dictionary although more inclusive than that of Goleman (1995), is similar and entails the dimensions of Russel’s (1980) circumplex model and the consensual structure of the mood model of Watson and Tellegen (1985).

The emotional vocabulary proposed by Caruso and Salovey (2004) is presented below:

Table 2.1

Emotional vocabulary

Cluster	Emotions	Associated Term
Happiness	Ecstasy Serenity Happiness Joy	Pleasure Delight Euphoria Satisfaction Gladness Amusement Being happy for others Being positive Spreading cheer Sharing one's joy
Acceptance	Trust Admiration Acceptance	Loving Adoring Feeling interest Liking Cherishing Having faith Feeling confident Welcome Embrace

Anticipation	Vigilance Anticipation Interest	Charm Attraction Fascination Intrigue Expectation
Surprise	Surprise Distraction Amazement	Awe Wonder Shock Bewilderment Incredulity Astonishment Stupefaction Disbelief
Anger	Anger Annoyance Rage	Irritation Hatred Malice Indignation Fury Ill-will Frustration
Disgust	Boredom	Disliking

	Loathing	Being amoral Behaving in a gross way Revulsion Being averse to
Fear	Fear Apprehension Terror	Anxiety Dread Jitters Concern Worry Trepidation Edginess Wariness Nervousness Misgivings
Sadness	Sadness Pensiveness Grieve	Sorrowful Dejected Unhappy Anguish Distressed Lonely Down

		Blue “Bummed out”

Drawing from the above emotional vocabulary, which also underpins the current research, the definition of EI in section 2.2 can be captured in more concrete terms as:

> EI forms the precise discovery and bringing into awareness of the emotions enumerated in the emotional vocabulary of an individual and other individuals, the efficient employment of the above emotions to kindle and allow the consideration of these emotions and their control.

2.2.2 Intelligence

Intelligence has been referred to by Wechsler (1944, p. 3) as “the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment”. Killian (2012) posits that, Wechsler (1944) claimed a person’s thought processes entails creating emotions. Wechsler (1944) and colleagues generated intelligence consisting of nine scores in the era commencing from 1939 to 1991. Wechsler’s (1955, 1997) model offers three scores that are; a performance, a spoken and an international test. Weshsler (1955, 1997), in generating his scores, chose an inclusive pool of abilities necessary for universal intelligence and also attractive to followers or persons to do activities and not just reply to questions (Gregory, 2010).

Gardner (1983, as cited in Singh, 2013) offered a theory on multiple intelligence. The multiple intelligences entailed musical, bodily, spatial, person, linguistic and bodily kinaesthetic. Gardner (1983) all the same admits that these multiple intelligences are not isolated concepts but interconnected. Consequently, a common feature can be predicted all the same in the framework of these multiple intelligences (Gerber, 2014). Gardner’s (1983) personal intelligence can be compared to Thorndike’s social

intelligence. Thorndike (1920, as cited by Al-Bahrani, 2017) observed that social intelligence was the skill of recognising and coping with individuals and behaving cleverly in social environments. The single “g” during that era was the leading subject matter in studies of intelligence until the early 1980s when directness to precise or multiple intelligences was attained.

Gerber (2014) indicates that intelligence can be best clarified in many different forms of EI. It is obvious from the above discussion that the various researchers maintain that there are some missing elements in the explanation of intelligence. Wechsler (1997) requests that subjects responding to questions in tests should do more than just answer questions. However, he did not indicate which “things” should be done other than just responding to the questions. Wechsler should have clearly specified the things respondents should be doing.

2.3 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE THEORY

Abe (2011, p. 817) states that “according to the emotional intelligence (EI) theory, emotions provide us with vital information for making sense of our inner experiences and navigating our social environment”. Al-Bahrani (2017, p. 1) also states that Mayer and Salovey primarily established EI theory in 1990. EI theorists suggest that EI involves abilities and skills connected to comprehending emotions and emotional substance (Cherry, 2014; Killian, 2012). Researchers like Cherniss (2010) and Petrides (2010) have proposed theories that define EI as a trait more thoroughly associated with personality than intelligence. A third force has recommended mixed-model theories of EI that consist both traits and abilities (Bar-On, 2010; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Researchers have shown in their studies that EI can be developed and improved (Grant, 2007; McEnrue, Groves & Shen, 2009; Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak & Hansenne, 2009; Turner & Lloyd-Walker, 2008). EI being considered a skill means it can be taught and advanced with education and training. On the other hand, EI being considered as an ability model means it is considered inherent and therefore not responsive to training. Research bothering on EI effectiveness on teaching and training established that EI can be improved (Crosby, 2017; Goodwin, 2016).

Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1995) swap the words; skill and ability in the ability and mixed-models theory. Scholars normally linked skills to features with teaching, which can be learnt and improved upon. On the other hand, abilities are the qualities that are inherent and inherited. For that matter, EI as a skill can be taught and learnt.

2.4 CHRONOLOGY OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The notion of EI originates from the works of Socrates and the Greek theorists (Chopra & Kanji, 2010). Thorndike (1920) identified social intelligence early in the 20th century. Cherniss (2003) mentions that in the early 2000s, more than half of United States businesses accepted the idea that extraordinary performance is linked to EI features of individuals. Cherniss (2003) again indicates that besides Thorndike, some researchers also disagreed that other elements of intuition and emotions combine with intelligence to affect an individual's achievement on earth. According to Whitman, Van Rooy, Viswesvaran and Kraus (2009), researchers have written approximately 1,171 articles that contain emotional intelligence as keywords between the years 2000 and 2009. On the other hand, prior to 2000, just 106 articles contained the keywords emotional intelligence.

Brackett, Rivers, and Salovey (2011), mention that as far back as in the 1980s Gardner (1983) recommended the concept of multiple intelligences, consisting of interpersonal features that combine to produce a person's total intelligence. There is an ongoing disagreement in the research on EI concerning whether it is an ability that is intrinsic or a skill that can be learnt and improved (Fortner, 2013). Salovey and Caruso have been recognised by Meisler and Vigoda-Gadot (2014) as coining the term EI, though Payne used the expression in the title of a doctoral thesis in relation to emotions in 1985.

The subject matter was not openly known till the publication of Goleman's seminal book, *emotional intelligence*, in 1995 (Harms & Crede, 2010). The salient proposition of Goleman's book was that, EI could be more essential than an individual's achievements in their career and lifetime (Cherniss, 2010). Corporate leaders who were looking for a way to predict employee and leader accomplishment applauded Goleman's theory (Ybarra, Kross & Sanchez- Burks, 2014). Several models and

theories associated with EI differ from social skills to the realisation of emotion and the organisation of an individual's personality (Joseph, Jin, Newman & O'Boyle, 2015). Out of the numerous models, four are considered as major models (see Figure 2.1 below):

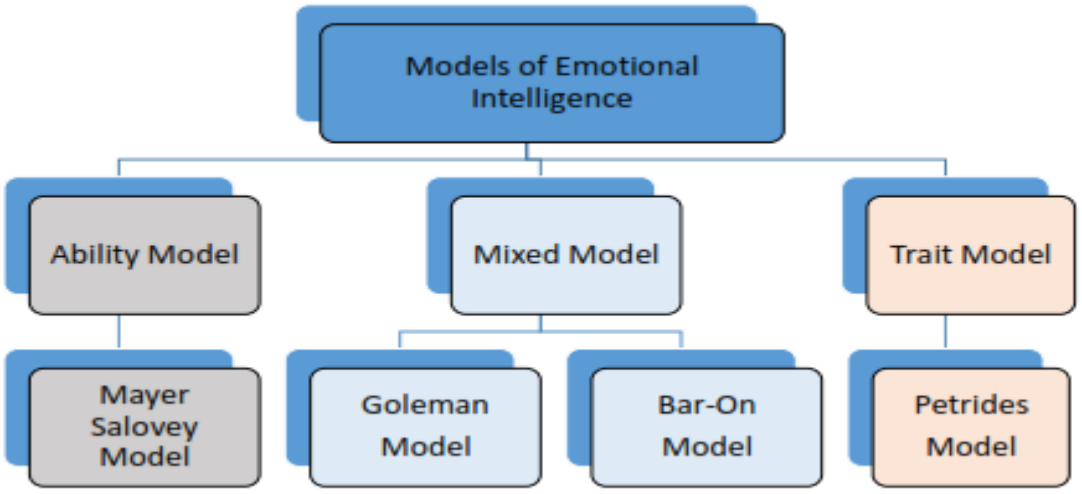

Figure 2.1: *Models of Emotional Intelligence* (Crosby, 2017, p. 25)

Figure 2.1 above portrays the four major models in the arena of EI. These four models are Goleman's 1995 model, Mayer-Salovey' (1997) model, Bar-On's (1997) model and Petride's (2010) model is also known as the trait-emotional-intelligence model. Each main model has its own assessment approach, ranging from self-assessment and report to multi-rater appraisal and ability-based assessments. Some researchers have varied the assessment tools developed for EI models to conform to their study objectives or to improve them for validity. The various EI models are discussed in the next section.

2.5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODELS

In this section, the various EI models are discussed in detail beginning with Goleman's (1995) model.

2.5.1 Goleman's (1995) model

Goleman, before authoring his book in 1995 was a Harvard expert psychologist who worked for the *New York Times* as a science journalist (Cherniss, 2003). According to Meredith (2008), Goleman's model of EI is the utmost basic and straightforwardly comprehended trait model and also the commonly read by non-scholars out of the four major EI models. Crosby (2017, p. 26) states that, Goleman (1990) extended the initial work increasing the EI model into five characteristic groups; (i) self-awareness or individual emotions, (ii) self-management individual instinct regulation, (empathy), (iv) relationship management and (iv) social awareness (Crosby, 2017; Goleman, 1998). Goleman (1995) connected EI to leadership and optimistic outcomes in an individual's occupational and personal life (Ahmetoglu, Leutner & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2011).

According to Segon and Booth (2015), Goleman teamed up with Boyatzis and Rhee to further classify EI into two competencies: the EI competency, which entails collections of self-awareness and self-management; the social intelligence competency, which entails clusters of social awareness and relationship management (see Figure 2.2 below). The emotional awareness group inhibits a person's ability to be in harmony with their own competencies and shortcomings and totally identify their own emotions, or as Goleman described it, "knowing what one feels" (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001, p. 30). Emotional self-management connects to the ability to regulate undesirable effect such as anxiety, anger and emotional instability (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Social awareness speaks to a person's capability to identify the emotions of other individuals and decide whether they are threats or may be trustworthy (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Also, relationship –management ability uses the first three skills to offer an individual to impact the moods of other persons (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Goleman (1995) posits that a person can learn EI and it characteristically increases as the person grows. This statement is vague. Further research is needed to throw more light on the stages of increment as individuals' EI increases.

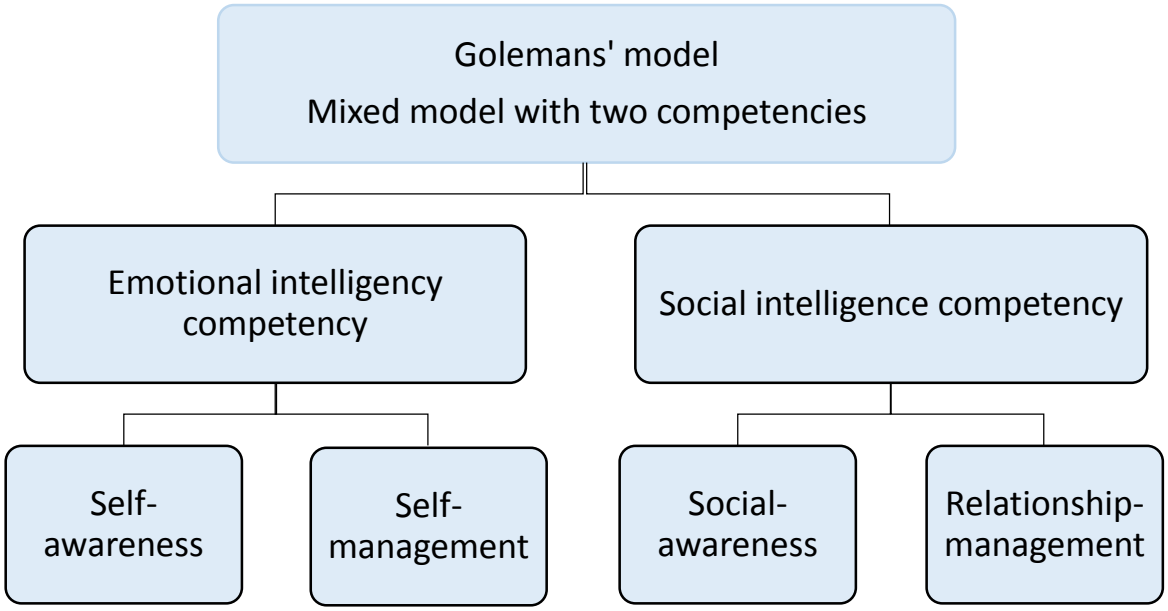

Figure 2.2 *Goleman's model of emotional intelligence (Crosby, 2017, p.27)*

2.5.2 Mayer-Salovey's (1997) model

The idea of EI was advanced by Mayer and Salovey (1997) from another viewpoint. Killgore et al. (2013) established that, the ability-based EI uses more grey matter in the brain than trait-based EI, because of the comprehending and handling of emotions. In furtherance of nurturing an understanding and a communication of emotions, Mayer and Salovey's model integrates EI with the skill to recover or create emotions that enhance reasoning with the aim of handling feelings, inspiring emotional clarity and refining academic capability (Crosby, 2017; Ybarra et al., 2013). According to Di Fabio and Saklofske (2014), a researcher, Caruso joined Mayer and Salovey in studying EI and the model is now referred to as the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso model. Out of the four main models, the Mayer-Salovey model is the only model concentrating solely on ability. Ability-based EI is akin to thinking about emotions and sieving emotional understanding, whereas trait-based EI is associated to personality traits and stresses on the self-reported awareness and assessment of emotions and individuals' capability to manage emotionally based occurrences (Crosby, 2016; Di Fabio & Saklofske, 2014).

Ermer, Kahn, Salovey and Kiehl (2012) and Song et al. (2010) are among the researchers who contend that the ability-based model is realistic because its features are not connected to the traits of personality (Crosby, 2016; Ermer et al., 2010, Song et al., 2010). In contrast to Goleman, Bracket et al. (2011) debate that although EI improves as an individual grows older, the skills associated with EI may also advance when the person is taught.

According to Grunes, Gudmundson and Irmer (2014), Mayer and Salovey (1997) joined their higher and lower skills which they refer to as linking emotions in a four-branch model. The four-branch model (see Figure 2.3 below) includes the ability to appropriately identify of a person's emotions and those of other individuals; the ability to use emotions to advance the cognitive processes; the ability to comprehend emotions and the language of emotions (the bodily and unspoken prompts) communicated through emotions; and skilfulness in accomplishing goals by handling emotions (Føllesdal & Hagtvet, 2013). Although Mayer and Salovey (1997) advanced the ides of EI from another outlook – as ability based – they concentrated too much on ability being a function of the brain. Mayer and Salovey (1997) claim that EI uses more grey matter in the brain because of the understanding and managing of emotions. Due to the focus on the grey matter in the brain, Mayer and Salovey (1997) seem to have lost the emotional element in EI.

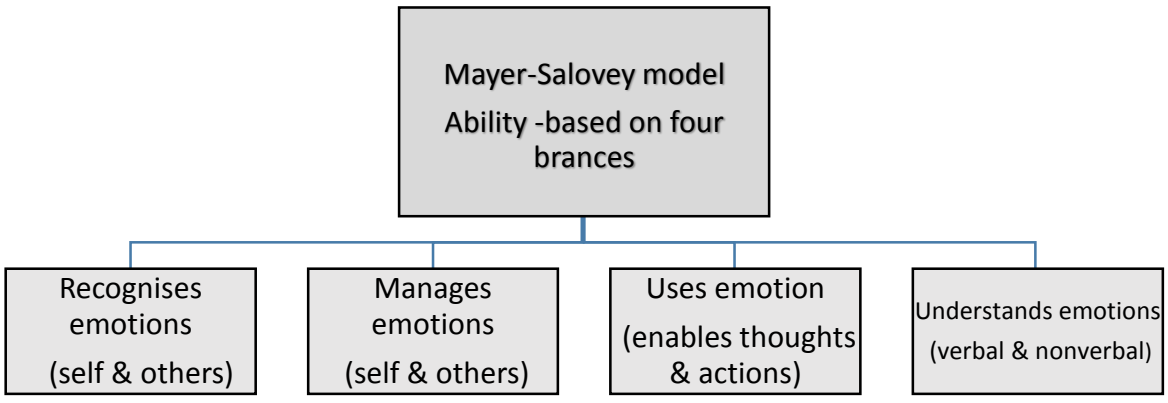

Figure 2.3: Mayer–Salovey Model of Emotional Intelligence (Crosby, 2017, p. 28)

2.5.3 Bar-On's (1997) model

Bar-On (1997) refers to individuals with high emotional quotient (EQ) scores as possessing the capability of making change and upholding personalised actualisation (Bar-On, 2010). Bar-On (2010) lays emphasis on the positive outcome that, EI has a significant effect on human performance, happiness, well-being and the pursuit for meaningfulness in life, all of which are the focus of interest in positive psychology (Bar-On, 2010). The Bar-On model of EI assimilates stress management and the total structure of emotion awareness prototype (Di Fabio, Palazzeschi & Bar-On, 2012); this is the distinction factor from the Goleman and the Mayer-Salovey models. According to Di Fabio et al. (2012), Bar-On used emotional-social intelligence in place of EI as a pool of emotive abilities and aptitudes that aids an individual's capability to progress in times when experiencing personal and other extended issues and problems. Bar-On's model (figure 2.4 below) classifies EI into five groups: intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management and general mood (Crosby, 2016; Di Fabio et al., 2012).

All categories entail subgroups of the main classification. Intrapersonal skills entail self-regard (self-respect and self-confidence), emotional self-awareness (comprehending one's emotions) assertiveness (to be able to express emotions and to defend oneself), self- actualisations (to be aware of one's personal skills and pursue self-advancement) and independence (to be able to achieve one's emotional needs, being independent and emotionally independent). On the other hand, interpersonal skills entail the sub-elements of empathy (understanding other individual's emotions and displaying genuine concern), social responsibility (acting conscientiously and appropriately) and interpersonal relations (showing of compassion, showing of kindness and being content in relationships).

Adaptability also entails reality testing (understanding the real state of circumstances), flexibility (to be able to adjust emotionally to situational changes) and problem solving (inclination to challenge issues, being practical and resolving problems). Stress management entails the sub-elements of stress tolerance (recognition of change and to be able to respond to stress) and impulse control (understanding and modifying impulsive needs).

Finally, the last primary classification in general mood contains positivity (having hope and showing an optimistic attitude when in difficulty) and happiness (satisfaction, passion, pleasure and contentment).

An issue however with Bar-On's model is that, it stresses too much on personality features which are not easy to measure and alter.

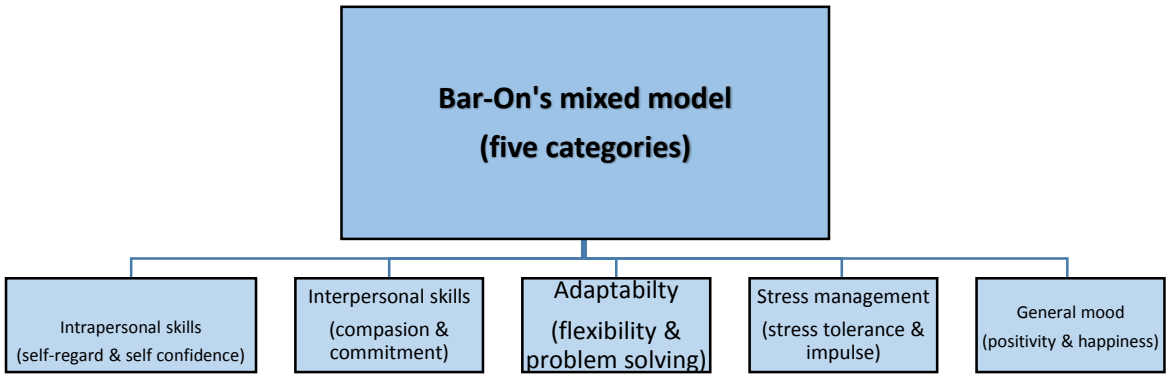

Figure 2.4*: Bar-On's Model of Emotional Intelligence* (Crosby, 2017, p. 30)

2.5.4 Petrides' (2010) model

Petrides and Furnham (2006) state that the operationalisation of the Petrides model self-report assessment tool distinguishes it from the Bar-On model and the Mayer-Salovey model. The Petrides (2010) model is the latest of the four models and is occasionally referred to as the trait EI model. It integrates the three other main models and is termed as the "second generation" (Cherniss, 2010). Emotionality relates to empathising and thoughtfulness on the part of an individual with regard to the emotions of other persons (Cherniss, 2010). The trait model emphasises EI in terms of four features: well-being, self-control, emotionality and sociability (Sanchez-Ruiz, Hernández-Torrano, Pérez-González, Batey & Petrides, 2011).

All of the four features (see Figure 2.5 below) are thus defined. Well-being supports self-safety and tranquillity. Sociability relates to commitment and the regulation of the other individual's emotions. Self-control refers to handling external stresses and

preventing impulsiveness. According to Van der Linden, Tsaousis and Petrides (2012), the Petrides (2010) model allows for researchers' definition in measurement based on the type of the research in EI. Van der Linden et al. (2012) state that it is difficult to operationalise EI due to the subjective elements of emotions in the Petrides trait model.

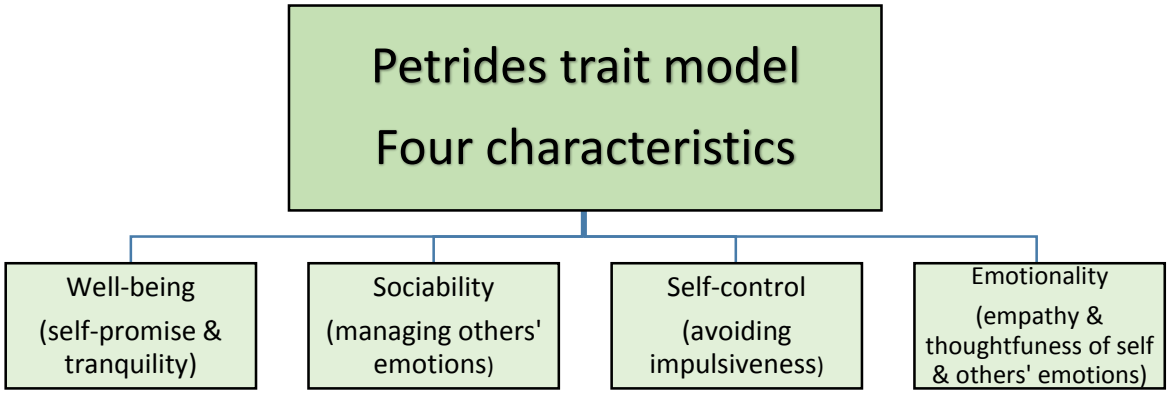

Figure 2.5: *The Petrides Model of Emotional Intelligence* (Crosby, 2017, p. 31)

2.5.5 Nelson and Low's (2011) Model

Nelson and Low (2011) developed a model of EI built on Goleman's (1990) model. Nelson and Low's model provided an education-based method for assessing EI. The framework is based on the idea that EI competencies can be learnt and advanced to back better personal, academic and career success. According to Nelson and Low's (2011) model, four competencies (see Figure 2.6 below) can be used to define and assess EI. These competencies include interpersonal, leadership, self-management and intrapersonal competencies. Backing these skills are 10 EI scales. The 10 scales which are used to describe each EI competency include, assertion, social awareness, empathy, decision making, and leadership, drive strength, time management, commitment ethics, self-esteem and stress management. EI competencies, which are vital to both personal and career success, can be learnt and developed (Nelson & Low, 2011).

Nelson and Low (2011) claim that increased awareness of preconscious thoughts can lead to learned constructive thinking, helping to improve emotional competencies.

The preliminary competency offered by Nelson and Low (2011) is interpersonal competency. The competency was branded as knowledge associated with human relations. The interpersonal competency is ascertained by the EI scale of assertion, which entails effective communication, emotional self- control and understanding and embracing differences in other individuals. The notion of emotional self-control is associated with self-awareness of emotions, which necessitates a consideration of and response to a person's emotions (Gragg, 2008). In association to leadership, self-control is critical for a leader to maintain emotional balance in handling the emotions of others in an emergency (Goleman et al., 2002). Leaders in institutions who practise emotional self-control provide a more trustworthy, satisfied and just atmosphere (Goleman et al., 2002).

Nelson and Low (2011, p. 42) defined assertive communication as "the ability to clearly and honestly communicate your thoughts and feelings ton others in a straightforward and direct manner". Accordingly, assertive communication permits the active and precise communication of emotions that supports constructive communication in which emotions are articulated completely towards achieving one's aims and goals and those of others (George, 2000; Nelson & Low, 2011).

The second competency is self-management. This competency relates to establishing and meeting goals, managing time and income, and adapting to unforeseen circumstances (Nelson & Low, 2011). This competency also relates to interpersonal competency in that self-management is vital to leaders' ability to manage the emotions of others effectively by assisting in positive self-control and management of their own emotions (Goleman et al., 2002). Being able to control one's own emotions is characterised by the skill of being best able to manage and assist other individuals to adapt to change.

Nelson and Low (2011) propose that three EI scales are linked with self- management. These three scales are: drive strength, commitment ethic and time management. Drive strength, an internal quality that encourages determination toward goal attainment, supports the ability to achieve significant goals resulting in positive feelings (Nelson & Low, 2011). Motivation and attention are essential to support drive strength,

allowing a manager to self-manage and achieve significant goals (Nelson & Low, 2011). Commitment ethic is referred to as the capability to efficiently and consistently meet responsibilities. Features of leaders with a high commitment ethic include self-motivation and tenacity toward task achievement notwithstanding obstacles or challenges (Nelson & Low, 2011). In addition, time management is the skill of vigorously and successfully managing time through self-management and self-direction (Nelson & Low, 2011) which supports goal achievement.

The third competency which is intrapersonal competency, is termed as the realisation of self-awareness, self-worth and improvement of self in the face of life's struggles, trials and challenges (Nelson & Low, 2011). There are two different scales used to describe intrapersonal competency; self- esteem and stress management. Self-esteem is the ability of individuals to perceive themselves as optimistic, capable and effective. It entails being hopeful and self-confident (Nelson & Low, 2011). The ability not only to recognise but also exploit a person's strength cushions the advancement of positive self-esteem, positivity and sense of self-respect (Nelson & Low, 2011). Positivity supports for the ability of a leader to communicate a positive outlook on the ability of other individual to complete tasks (Marzano, waters & McNulty, 2005); to view visions instead of risks (Goleman et al. 2002) and to maintain a confident outlook and expectancy for a positive transformation (Goleman et al., 2002).

the other module of the intrapersonal competency, stress management, is the capability of deciding on and using self-control in response to stress, which entails the skill to control one's emotional levels, employing defence mechanisms, if possible, in traumatic circumstances (Nelson & Low, 2011). Features that are common to persons who exhibit stress management abilities comprise a robust feeling of self-esteem, competency, assertiveness, time and management skills, in addition to confidence and positive impact (Nelson & Low, 2011). Nelson and Low (2011) assert that career effectiveness is positively correlated to learning and practising stress management skills.

The final competency, leadership, is defined as being people friendly and empathetic and valuing the desires, beliefs and objectives of other individuals (Nelson & Low, 2011). Leadership competency is defined by the four EI scales as social awareness, empathy, decision-making and leadership. Nelson and Low (2011) states that,

“[s]ocial awareness and empathy are interdependent and necessitate an assertive communication style; reasoning and emotions are interactive and both are essential for effective decision-making and people centred leadership” (Nelson & Low, 2011, pp. 73-74).

Individuals with social awareness have the skills to develop trust and bond in relationships which allows them to have a positive influence on others (Nelson & Low, 2011). Accordingly, social awareness has been linked to the skill to (a) feel and comprehend the emotional needs of others, (b) make others feel comfortable and (c) understand and build positive relationships (Nelson & Low, 2011). Social awareness skills involve the ability to notice intricacies in nonverbal communication, such as body language and emotional messages and behaviours within words (Nelson & Low, 2011). Social awareness may involve different levels as well; for example, having social awareness of the organisation in terms of understanding the social and political atmosphere of the organisation (Gragg, 2008) and also as key social networks and power relationships (Goleman et al., 2002).

The second EI scale associated with leadership competency is empathy. Nelson and Low (2011, p.80) states that, empathy is the ability to precisely understand and practically respond to the expressed feelings, thoughts and needs of others. Linking empathy to social awareness, Goleman and colleagues (2002) define social awareness as the capability to empathise with others, therefore stating that empathy is the essential competence of social awareness. Persons who show empathy are able to put themselves in the situation of others and view the matter through the other individuals’ eyes, allowing persons to be welcoming, thoughtful and capable of identifying the needs of other individuals (Goleman et al., 2002). Thus, empathy involves active listening and the ability to accept different views (Gragg, 2008).

The decision-making EI scale characterises an individual’s ability to solve problems and resolve conflict. An operational leader is able to use emotional effort and manage emotions that may obstruct decision-making (George, 2000). Goleman (1995) advocates that this is imperative because the ability to make better decisions is reliant on being in harmony with one’s instincts. Effective decision-making improves the planning, expressing, starting and implementing of ideas for and resolutions to individual concerns as well as organisational matters (Goleman, 1995).

Nelson and Low (2011) posits that, leadership is the capability to positively impact other individuals. Goleman (1998) advocates that those who significantly influence others do so because they are capable of sensing the emotions and foresee the reactions of others, permitting them to convince others toward the preferred goal. Positive influence, which creates an atmosphere that supports achievement and fulfilment, echoes the positive self-esteem, moral principles and confidence of the leader.

Generally, Nelson and Low (2011) posit that EI skills are the key features of personal, academic and professional excellence. Therefore, the literature review turned to the specific characteristics of EI that support student success and leadership skills. The current study is based on education and skills in regard to EI, using a survey to assess counsellors' EI levels. The framework described by Nelson and Low builds on the theory of constructive thinking (Ashworth, 2013), identifying constructive thinking as an important constituent of EI in view of the fact that all human beings exhibit two mentalities: the rational mind and the experiential mind. Although Nelson and Low (2011) elaborate on the education and skill-based model, the fourth construct; intrapersonal which consists of self-esteem and stress management was not elaborated on. This could have been due to the many sub constructs in the model.

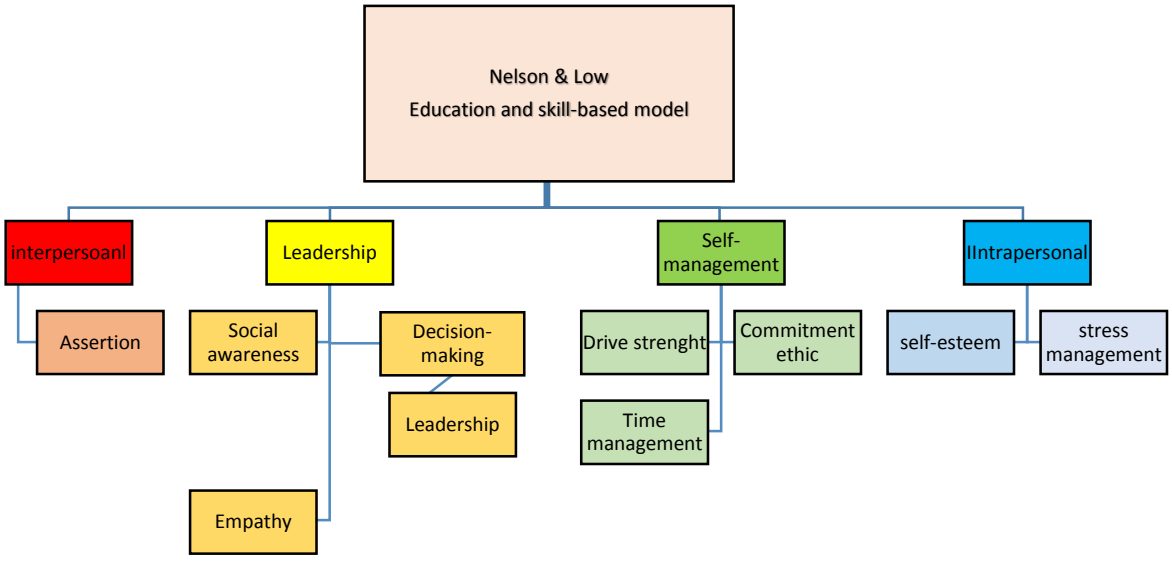

Figure 2.6*: Illustration of Nelson and Low's model of emotional intelligence*

2.6 MEASURING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Few years after Goleman (1998) raised awareness of EI, a number of researchers distinguished that numerous constructs are used to assess a person's EI. These scholars noted that there have been so many amendments to such constructs that they fall short in terms of consistency in structure and function (Schuttle et al., 1998). Models and theories of EI are to some extent quite different after two decades, as indicated by the widespread range of available assessment instruments produced and employed to measure the construct (Webb et al., 2013).

Employing all the differences in EI assessing tools, the four major instruments were developed into other ones; namely, the emotional and social competency inventory (ESCI) originated by Goleman and Boyatzis, the emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i) developed by Bar-On, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso EI test (MSCEIT) and the trait EI questionnaire (TEIQue), which is based on the Petrides trait model (Cherniss, 2010). All of these assessing tools have different use and measuring methods, as well as restrictions and limitations. An issue with EI mixed- model assessment tools and mainly self-report tools is that, they can be fabricated and biased which can result in more scores and a falsification of figures (Libbrecht, Lievens & Schollaert, 2010). The MSCEIT is an ability-based instrument whereas the EQ-I and TEIQue are self-report assessments. The ESCI however is a multi-rater assessment (Cherniss, 2010).

The EI evaluation instruments are presented in Table 2.2 below:

Table 2.2

Emotional intelligence evaluation instruments

NAME	INVENTOR	TYPE	NUMBER OF QUESTIONS	RELIABILITY (CRONBACH'S ALPHA)
ESCI	Goleman & Boyatzis	360°	72 (1–5 Likert)	Average of 0.79 (0.74–.89)
EQ-I	Bar-On	Self	133 (1–5 Likert)	Average of 0.89 (0.69–0.94)
MSCEIT	Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso	Exam	141 (varied)	r value of 0.93 for expert; r value of 0.91 for consensus
TEIQUE	Petrides	Self	153 (1–7 Likert)	Global score of 0.96
WLEIS	Wong & Law	Self	16 (1–7 Likert)	Average of 0.84 (0.70–0.92)

Note. ESCI = Emotional and Social Competency Inventory; EQ-i -= Emotional Quotient Inventory; MSCEIT = Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test; TEIQue = Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire = WLEIS = Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale.

Table 2.2 shows that the ESCI was developed by Goleman and Boyatzis (1999) and is a 360-degree scale. This means it is used as a multi-rater scale in measuring other participants. ESCI contains 72 questions and is scored on a Likert scale from 1to 5. The ESCI has an average reliability (Cronbach alpha) of 0.79 (0.74–.89). The EQ-I, on the other hand, was developed by Bar-On (2012). It is a self-administered scale with 133 questions. It is also a Likert scale scoring from 1to 5 and has an average reliability of 0.89 (0.69–0.94). The MSCEIT was developed by Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004). It is administered as a test with 141 questions. It can be used for various purposes including academic determinations, thus the reliability values for experts are 0.93 and 0.91 for consensus. TEIQue was developed by Petrides (2010). TEIQue is a self-administered questionnaire with 153 questions. It also comprises

Likert scales with ratings ranging from 1 to 7. It has a Cronbach alpha score of 0.96. The WLEIS was developed by Wong and Law (2002). It is a self-administered questionnaire with 16 questions and is also scored on a Likert scale. The WLEIS has an average reliability (Cronbach alpha) of 0.84 (0.70–0.92). These instruments are further discussed in detail below.

2.6.1 Emotional and social competency inventory (ESCI)

The ESCI is an upgraded version of the original assessing instrument; the emotional competence inventory developed by Goleman and Boyatzis in 1999 (Segon & Booth, 2015). The ESCI incorporates the elements of EI and social competencies (Boyatzis, Good & Massa, 2012). EI competence consists of emotional self-awareness and self-management, which entails the regulation of an individual's emotions, flexibility, positive attitude and wellbeing. Social competence entails social awareness (compassion and group emotional awareness) and a relationship-management feature that entails five sub-competencies: inspirational leadership, mentoring abilities, persuasiveness, the ability to resolve difference and the ability to create and function in a team (Nath, 2013).

The Hay group is managing the ESCI. The assessing instrument is assessed online and the Hay group workers administer the test and the scores; otherwise researchers can acquire accreditation to handle the test by participating in a two-day seminar and attaining a firm set of specialised criteria before pursuing accreditation. The test is a 360-degree evaluation which allows colleagues, peers, supervisors, clients and subordinates to evaluate participants. The instrument's self-awareness dimension has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87, the self-management dimension has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.97 whiles the social awareness dimension has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.91. Furthermore, the relationship- management dimension has a Cronbach's alpha of 0.97 (Rodrigues & Madgaonkar, 2013). The assessment uses a Likert- like scale with scores ranging from 1 to 5 in answering a total of 72 questions and allows respondents to choose a response of "I don't know, which does not show in the assessment (Galleno & Liscano, 2013). For educational or research purposes, the ESCI can be obtained by contacting Richard Boyatzis rebz@case.edu (EI consortium, 2021). Although the ESCI is a renowned EI evaluating instrument, it was not employed in the

current because none of the ESCI dimensions is centred on the educational aspect of EI which the current study focuses on.

2.6.2 Emotional quotient inventory

The EQ-I is a self-report assessment developed to evaluate the emotional and social intelligence of an individual above the age of 17. The EQ-I entails 15 subscale scores that contains five main competencies: intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability and general mood (Stanimirovic & Hanrahan, 2012). The intrapersonal scale describes a person's understanding of emotions as well as the person's inspiration to attain goals and attain self-actualisation. The interpersonal scale evaluates a person's comprehension of emotions of other individuals, their understanding of group dimensions and their ability to forge and maintain relationships. Furthermore, the stress-management dimension evaluates a person's ability to manage and regulate emotions. Adaptability competency on the other hand, focuses on adjusting individual emotions to new circumstances and resolving individual differences. Finally, the general–mood scale evaluates happiness and optimism with oneself and total contentment with life in general (Bar-On, 2010).

The EQ-I more so entails 133 questions employed on a five point Likert scale (Bar-On, 2012). The assessment is administered within half an hour and is fashioned for individuals with a minimum of a sixth-grade reading ability (Moya & Kacirek, 2009). Cronbach's alpha for the score of 0.89 has been established by researchers for the EQ-I (Muyia & Kacirek, 2009). Bar-On (2012) developed the tool to present a complete EQ assessment with a mean score of 100 with computer-generated results. The instrument is available online or in written form and is handled by the Multi health systems and requires a certification before use. Researchers who want to employ the EQ-I for educational purposes are contact r&d@mhs.com (EI consortium, 2021). Again, though the EQ-I is a popular EI measuring instrument, it was not employed in the current because none of the EQ-I dimensions focuses on the educational domain of EI which the current study is centred on

2.6.3 Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004) developed the MSCEIT to evaluate EI while separating extraneous variables that are parallel with the Big five personality traits which are openness, conscientiousness, extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. MSCEIT evaluates EI abilities without relying on subjective answer from respondents (Choi & Kluemper, 2012). The instrument assesses the most precise answer to questions about images and looks revealing emotions, emotional circumstances, emotional correlations and emotional advancements (Circi, Lanciano, Soleti, Zammuner & Salovey, 2013). Two approaches define correctness: agreement on the results from former respondents and answers provided by 21 experts in the field of emotion researches and answers given by members of the international society for research on emotions (Mayer, salovey & Caruso, 2016).

The instrument centres on the four branches of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso model which are managing emotions, understanding one's emotions and that of others, using emotions to cause reflection and appreciating emotional expression (Mayer et al. 2004). The evaluation instrument entails 141 questions or images and uses approximately 45 minutes to complete. The evaluation entails certification available in a booklet form. Another way of evaluating is through personal training given by one of the developers of MSCEIT (Caruso) at a venue offered individuals to be certified (Caruso, 2016). Findings are generalised and equivalent to a standard mean score of about 100 with an average score ranging from 84 to 166 (Maul, 2012).

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2012), in a re-evaluation of the reliability of the MSCEIT offered information on the reliability of the MSCEIT rather than validity. The Cronbach alpha values were found to be 0.93 for consensus scoring and 0.91 for expert scoring. Scores from research that used MSCEIT scores from 183 medical students, the Cronbach's alpha was 0.79 (Brannick, Wahi & Goldin, 2011). The results organised for the MSCEIT are global and offer all-inclusive information on each part of the 15 scales, though data is offered to the test administrator following the American Psychological Association (APA) guidelines and regulations. The MSCEIT is administered to individuals who are 17 years and older. It takes approximately 30-45 minutes to complete the MSCEIT. Reseachers can also obtain the MSCEIT for academic purposes by sending an email to r&d@mhs.com (EI consortium, 2021).

The MSCEIT was established on personality traits hence was not employed in the current study as the focus of the current study is centred on Goleman's 4 branches of EI which is established on abilities and competencies.

2.6. 4 Trait emotional intelligence (TEIQue)

Trait EI is the broadest mixed model of EI, entailing 15 aspects drawn from the ability model of emotion as well as the two models of emotional competence (Siegling, Nelson & Petrides, 2014). The four ability elements in the model are (i) correctly identifying emotions in an individual self and that of others, (ii) articulating and communicating emotions clearly, (iii) managing others' emotions and (iv) modifying individual's own emotions (Petrides, 2010). The non-ability elements involves assertiveness, adaptability, stress management, trait happiness, trait empathy and trait optimism (Petride, 2007). The trait EI model is appraised with the trait EI questionnaire (Petrides, 2007) which has a short form version, adolescents form, child version and the adolescent and child versions. The TEIQue is very often used in EI peer review studies. The TEIQue results exhibit very high relationships with the five main aspects of personality (Van der Linden et al., 2017).

It has been argued that the problem for discriminant validity of EI trait is that, EI is not disguisable from personality. A meta- analysis reveals empirical rationalisation for this notion, indicating that EI correlates at 0.85 with a general personality feature acquired from the five main arenas of personality, indicating that these two constructs are very much alike and even identical (Van der Linden et al., 2017). Personality is for this reason seen to predict academic performance over the effects of personality. The TEIQue is also a well-known instrument for assessing EI. The TEIque instrument is available free of charge, for academic and clinical research purposes. Translations and adaptations of different TEIQue forms are available in more than 20 languages. Information about the use of TEIQue can be obtained on their website including academic and research purposes (EI consortium, 2021; Petrides, 2007). The TEIQue was also not employed in the current study because it also does not offer any EI educational dimensions which is a considerable aspect of the current study.

The WLEIS is another reliable EI instrument (Carvalho et al., 2014) and has been employed in earlier research as an instrument to assess the EI of diverse groups. In addition, the WLEIS is deemed as a significant concept for further studies (Law et al. 2004). Karim (2010) posits that the WEIS instrument has been used for the general population and also for students in the university (Libbrecht, Lievens, & Schollaert, 2010). WLEIS instrument is employed in the current study to ascertain the magnitude of EI for school counsellors and is discussed in detail Chapter 5 of the study.

2.7 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE-RELATED STUDIES

In the African context, Vrba (2007) discovered comparable findings from research conducted in an insurance company in South Africa. Using data collected from managers, both male and female, the researcher established that EI led to effective leadership (Vrba, 2007). Vrba (2007) further revealed based on the scores of the leaders in her study that EI has a positive association with transformational leadership. These findings showed that the higher the scores of a leaders' EI, the more scores the transformational leader has (Vrba, 2007). Vrba (2007) results are similar to those of Hayward, Amos and Baxter (2008) who also established that there is a strong relationship between EI and transformational leadership in the South African context. Hayward et al. (2008) discovered that, leaders who exhibited a transformational leadership style were more emotionally intelligent than those who did not. These researches, all carried out in the insurance industry, greatly agree that there is a positive relationship between EI and effective leadership.

Durlak, Weissberg, Dymnicki, Taylor and Schellinger (2011), in a meta-analysis performed specified that there is a lot of indication that EI has a positive link with academic performance. Durlak et al.'s (2011), meta-analysis indicate that social and emotional learning programmes are perceived to increase academic performance. Durlak et al. (2011) posits that the social and emotional learning programs leads to an 11- percentage advancement in academic performance. Social and emotional learning centres on advancing five vital competencies that corresponds considerably with Goleman's (1990) emotional learning competencies which are: self-awareness; social awareness, self-management, relationship management and responsible decision making (CASEL, 2003; CASEL, 2017). Durlak et al. (2011) mentions that, programmes

were more operational when they followed a certain trend, a sequential process of learning offered ample time for skill advancement and obvious learning objectives. The impacts of SEL programmes on academic performance was sturdier when educators offered the programmes (d_ 0.34) than with non-school educators (d_0.12) (Durlak et al. 2011).

Richardson, Abraham and Bond (2012) studied the association between EI and academic performance part of meta-analytic appraisal of 42 non-cognitive associations of academic performance. Richardson et al. (2012) recounted a slightly smaller association between EI and academic performance (d_0.17) but incorporated only 14 researches and did not separate ability scales from rating scales. The contemporary all-inclusive meta-analysis develops on previous studies in five ways. To begin with, Richardson et al. (2012) covers all applicable studies whiles previous studies incorporated a small division, that is, 162 citations were located and the Richardson's k of 14 researches represented less than 10 percent of the available data. Again, Richardson et al. (2012) incorporated ability based EI measurements as well as the rating instruments. The association between ability EI and academic performance has not been formerly presented in a meta-analysis, although it has been the most objective and valid evaluation of EI (Mayer et al., 2008). Also, Richardson et al. (2012) employed the now-standard classification of EI instruments into ability EI, self-rated EI and mixed model EI to differently assess the impacts of EI on academic performance all over the different constructs (Boyle et al., 2011).

Furthermore, Richardson et al. (2012) investigated a range of moderators of the effects comprising EI stream, EI facet, sample age, gender composition and publication type. Finally, Richardson et al. (2012) most essentially examined the incremental validity of EI above and beyond the impacts of personality and intelligence by construct and a correlation matrix of EI, intelligence, personality and academic performance. The relationships in the matrix were drawn from (i) their original meta-analyses which is EI and academic performance and intelligence/ academic performance relationships and (ii) formally published meta- analyses of personality and EI, personality and performance, intelligence and performance and the associations among personality arenas (Linden et al., 2017).

Turner and Lloyd-Walker (2008) examined EI training and its impact on individual's in an institution in the defence arena. The researchers employed a pre-test design that used an experimental and control groups to examine whether EI trading could improve EI scores and if development in EI would increase job satisfaction. (Turner & Lloyd-Walker, 2008). The EI training initially entailed general information on EI and then combined discussions about the EI core competencies of emotional self-awareness, emotional self-control, empathy and essential group communication capabilities. Lastly, researchers employed practices that were centred on emotional circumstances in which participants could employ emotional intelligence skills. The emotional intelligent evaluation used was the emotional competence inventory with self-report and peer-rated assessments. The EI scores of those receiving EI training, i.e. participants with bachelor's degrees considerably increased, most with an edge of 10%

Turner and Lloyd-Walker (2008) also established that peer ratings continued to be unaffected after training. These researchers discovered that EI training has a positive impact on job satisfaction, performance and total EI scores. This is significant in the current study due to the fact that school counsellors should obtain high EI scores to be able to have an impact on senior high students. The study will reveal school counsellors' scores and if necessary, recommend training in EI for the development of school counsellors.

Ayiro (2014) in another African context conducted a study in Kenya examining the relationship between school principal's EI and their school performance. A positive result was established by Ayiro (2014) between EI and school principals' performances. The research employed 100 high school principals from different regions in Kenya. The researcher considered high performance or low performance of the school based on the school's tests performances. The results of the research revealed the relevance of EI for school leaders, as well as an optimistic association between the school leaders' EI and the accomplishment and accomplishment of a school. This result backs Cai (2011) who established that the EI of an institution's principal can guarantee the institution's improvement and advancement. Ayiro (2014) additionally revealed that school principals who exhibited EI were much more effective.

A study Roy and Chaturvedi (2011) aimed at assessing experience and EI, sought to discover whether work experience had an influence on a person's levels of EI. The researchers revealed that when a job has a high emotional feature, individuals concentrate on the emotion and use it to inspire themselves toward task completion. Person's with more emotional occurrences are more able to adjust to differences and are more practical and appreciative of the emotions of others and their impacts on situational change. Person's with more emotionally associated work experiences behave in a way that is thought of as functional for the conditions and work at hand (Roy & Chaturvedi, 2011).

Kotzé and Venter (2011) in a quantitative study in South Africa using 114 leaders in the insurance industry revealed that EI is associated with effective leadership. The findings of the study disclosed that effective leaders scored very high on EI while not so effective leaders scored very low. These findings are in line with universal results by Cai (2011) who also established a relationship between EI and transformational leadership.

In a study ascertaining whether a relationship exists between EI and leadership effectiveness among senior leaders in a South African financial services organisation, Du Toit (2014) revealed that, there was a statically significant relationship between EI and leadership among the leaders. Employing a sample comprising of 973 participants, Du Toit (2014) also specified that the prediction value between these variables was not significant. The research was centred on a convenience sample because the leaders were a part of a strategic organisational initiative and were involved in completing both of the evaluating tools.

This may have had a participant bias effect on the study in view of the fact that the study did not use primary data collection. Some leaders might have offered social desireability bias thus enabling them to be seen as being effective.

2.8 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN EDUCATION

Cohen (2006), a renowned researcher in the arena of social and emotional education, advocates that socio-emotional skills and abilities offer the basis for equality and a better quality of life. Educators and professionals increase their effectiveness in the

educational arena by increasing their knowledge and ability to communicate the theories of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence and state that skills within these areas permit individuals to see their own emotions and initiatives and to control them to meet individual goals.

According to Mayer et al. (2008), it may be argued that EI has a number of essential uses in the educational field. Mayer et al. (2008) state that accurate emotional awareness and how it affects a student's ability to respond to classroom social engagements and a measurable model of the mental abilities affected by emotions, relate to a student's cognitive reactions. Individuals with high EI seem to perform better in mental health, are accurate in identifying physical responses to stimuli and a strong ability to understand the emotional concerns of proceedings.

Studies on EI have shown that persons with high EI are more socially knowledgeable and have better work relationships. They are regularly seen as more interpersonally thoughtful than individuals with low EI (Mayer et al., 2008). EI potential connection to advance social interaction has increased awareness in the educational arena in the past two decades. As attention increased, educationalists and researchers in the social sciences began to adjust the theories and framework of EI in educational settings as this is an issue that affects individual success and requires research and assessment (Coryn et al., 2009).

2.9 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN PSYCHOLOGY, PSYCHOTHERAPY AND SCHOOL COUNSELLING

As far back as in the early 1980s, Shön (1983) developed his theory on performance development which focuses on the capacity of the specialist to us reflection in their practise (Barbash, 2015). The model portrays that a practical-systematic approach is not always appropriate especially in psychotherapy. Rather, the theory proposes that effective psychologists use intuitive practices, using their own experiences to be able to attend to clients successfully, while concurrently employing reflection to observe their clinical procedure. Shön's (1893) theory can be used to indirect, emotionally loaded process of psychotherapy that often warrants a psychologist to act in a responsive and emotional manner (Barbash, 2015).

In a qualitative study carried out with 10 masters' level psychologists, six doctorial-level psychologists, these masters' level social workers and one psychiatrist, Jennings and Skovholt (1999) proposed the first model of master psychologists entailing three arenas: cognitive (C), emotional (E) and rational (R). The cognitive arena signifies the psychologist who is and passionate learner and maintains mental agility. The emotional aspect embraces the fact that a psychologist must nurture abilities in all three spheres to be able to achieve competency in counselling. Also, the CER model competencies identified in their studies are comparable to other highly assessed factors of mastery growth in the literature such as feature presented in other studies (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1997; Shön, 1983).

It is obvious after the investigation above that every one of these theories advocates that the very effective psychologist is capable of constantly recalling and redeeming both intellect and competence to be able to see to and respond to the client (Barbash, 2015). On an actualised level, this procedure would happen in a virtually intuitive way. The CER theory is linked to the ability of leading psychotherapy (Jennings & Skovholt, 1999). The emotional sphere involves the psychologist that is emotionally considerate. They can be recognised as open-minded, empathic, being aware of themselves, developed, receptive and practising reflective practice (Jennings & Skovholt, 1999).

Students obtaining their masters in psychology who usually excel in the emotional arena may participate in their own personal psychotherapy and possibly partake in sessions or supervision on a regular basis. These psychologists tend to understand themselves well which leads to very successful answers to client desires. Their honesty, mostly in terms of receiving response, assists them to develop as practitioners and perfect their psychotherapy competencies. Furthermore, the psychologists who have attained mastery usually shine at identifying their need for self-care, do that in being humble and purposefully incorporate stability into their existence. As it relates to psychotherapy, the emotionally competent psychologist has a very advance understanding of their own opinions, emotions and needs. They mostly attempt to be reliable in their personal and professional lives and identify their continuing advancement as humans (Ronnestad & Skovholt, 1997).

The rational sphere comprises the psychologist who is individually or mutually skilful. This arena advocates that the interpersonally skilful psychologist does well at

attending to, listening to, identifying and assisting other individuals. Jennings and Skovholt (1999) specify that the participants in their research exhibited kindliness, sympathy, respect and a genuine concern for other individuals. Stemming from these findings, they suggest that master psychologists may relate to other individuals in ways that permit them to feel unique, which helps in advancing the therapeutic association. Master psychologists can use their interactive competencies in the most difficult circumstances such as when opposing clients or handling distressing or sensitive discussions, without destroying the therapeutic connection. Participants in this arena also did not exhibit anxiety regarding robust client emotions and were able to relax during such periods. These competencies are essential in the practice of psychotherapy, as psychologists must regularly show affection and regard for clients, as well as have the ability to nurture the therapeutic cooperation by comprehending and recognising client feelings and necessities.

This study proposed CER theory but emphasised only the C – cognitive and the E – emotional aspects, with little mention of the R which is the rational aspect. This may be as a result of the C and R meaning the same thing.

Burger (2009) conducted a study in South Africa to ascertain whether an EI involvement programme was effective in raising participants' state of EI, reducing the state of stress felt and reducing the negative outcomes of teacher stress. Using 31 participants, the results revealed an inadequate and insubstantial indication that the EI training programme was effective in cultivating teachers' levels of EI. One substantial drawback of this research is that it did not include a control group. The use of a control group allows the researcher to identify any effects of the research and can act as a guard against these influences as well as the influences of any external events (Babbie & Mouton, 2002).

The data in the above study was collected employing self-report assessment tools. Participants inclined more to a constructive and affirmative impression of themselves may result in the social desireability bias. Obviously, 31 respondents in a quantitative study is relatively small and did not even allow the researcher to split the groups into experimental and control groups. For this reason, the researcher could not carry out further tests to determine alpha coefficients for the study (Burger, 2009).

Gottlieb (2015) in an exploratory study interviewed seven individuals in a training opportunity. The six participants were doctoral-level school psychologists who were involved in the study because they were observed by the members of the nominating committee as being highly effective and emotionally intelligent school psychologist leaders. This exploratory research concentrated on how effectively school psychologist leaders used EI abilities to deal with thought-provoking circumstances and achieve important goals within their institutions. An effect of the study was that the school psychologists established the relevance and importance of the four core competencies included in the Mayer-Salovey model of EI. Also, the study showed several additional important characteristics of EI.

Gottlieb's (2015) study found that for these school psychologists, EI was not merely a set of tools, but was also a character, which they regularly carried with them, irrespective of the circumstances. They disclosed that EI has important effects when under severe stress and challenging circumstances, but also during more mundane dealings with co-workers, superiors and subordinates. A further remark was that "the use of EI abilities alone does not make leaders. Rather, it is the combination of EI with a clear and fervent commitment to values of caring and concern that produces leaders" (Gottlieb, 2015 p. 75). Gottlieb (2015) states that even though the purpose of EI for students in college psychology programmes is not often addressed clearly, there is a need to increase its prominence as this may improve the quality of training and prepare students to become future school psychology leaders.

The number of participants in the Gottlieb's (2015) sample was comparatively small. Although the small sample size enabled an in-depth and solid understanding of how school psychologists really used EI abilities, the size of the sample nonetheless limits the reliability of results and their generalisability. Another issue that may hinder the generalisability of the research was the cultural and traditional diversity among the participants, as none of the school psychologists was from a minority group. All participants were also from the north-eastern United States and the use of EI abilities may present differently in other regions of the US. Although the lessons learnt from this study are important, there are restrictions concerning the extent to which the behaviours and attitudes of these school psychologists characterise the larger population.

Some biases were also present which may have influenced the reliability of this study, for example the participants had previous knowledge of the research. The goal of the research was to know how participants used EI in difficult circumstances. Although there was an ethical obligation to notify the respondents concerning the reason of the research, this may have predisposed them to give answers that satisfied the goal of the study, rather than recording how events actually occurred and how they replied. Furthermore, since the participants already knew the investigator before participating in the study, the wish to "help" may have prejudiced the reliability of the information they provided.

It is obvious from the above literature reviewed on the emotional aspect of psychotherapy and counselling that research in that domain has been limited. The paucity of literature on EI and counselling is evidenced by the outdated references to studies and research in that domain. No current study on EI and school counselling was located with reference in the current study, therefore it is prudent that more research is done in this arena to shed light on EI in school counselling.

2.10 CONFLICT PERTAINING TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

One of the issues when studying EI is the assessment methods employed and the validity linked to the tools used to assess a person's EI. Below is a discussion on some arguments relating to EI and its assessment method;

2.10.1 Criticism of EI measurement instruments

One criticism of EI is the numerous diverse EI assessments that measure diverse elements connected to it (Matthews et al., 2004). However, Chopra and Kanji (2010) contend that trait-based models that are intended to assess EI lack validity due to the fact that they depend on self-rating measures that are personal and can be fabricated. Owing to these opposing views, more scientific research is needed to clarify these them. Another criticism is the deficiency of studies into the validity of the measuring tools used in assessing EI (Lee & Kwak, 2012). In a single study, researchers documented ten different EI assessment tools usually used by EI researchers and five

of the ten tools were centred on the Mayer-Salovey ability-based EI model (Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2012).

On the other hand, other researchers critique the lack of other available tools to assess ability-based EI besides the MSCEIT (Fiori & Antonakis, 2011; Fiori et al., 2014). There is also a lack of EI measuring instruments for other-rater and multiple raters. After the thorough and elaborate review on literature on EI, it was noticed that definitions were mostly centred on the awareness of one's emotion and trying to manage that of others. It will go a long way to strengthen EI if attention is centred on 'control', thus individuals making the conscious effort to control their emotions. EI has therefore been proposed by the researcher as "to make the conscious effort of being aware of one's emotions and that of other individuals and to consciously control one's emotion".

2.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 2 started with a theoretical exploration of the literature on EI. The foundation for EI theory was laid followed by the chronology of EI dating back to the works of Socrates the Greek philosopher. The models of EI were discussed with an emphasis on the major models: the ability model of Mayer and Salovey, Goleman and Bar-On models which embody the mixed model and the Petrides model which is centred on the trait model. Nelson and Low's education and skill-based model was also discussed purposely because that underpins the current study. The EI measuring tools were discussed in detail. EI in education and in psychology, psychotherapy and school counselling were in turn also discussed. The chapter concluded with conflict in EI with a discussion on some opposing views on EI. The next chapter, chapter 3, commences with a discussion on leadership with an emphasis on transformational leadership.

CHAPTER 3: LEADERSHIP

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a discussion on the evolution of leadership, from theories and studies reviewed from Plato's conception, to the various contemporary perspectives of leadership. Some of the leadership perspectives include competency, behavioural, contingency, implicit and transformational, of which charismatic, contingent, transactional and transformational leadership styles emerged. These will be discussed with an emphasis on and assessment of Burns' (1978) transformational leadership which forms the basis for the current study.

3.2 DEFINING LEADERSHIP

While leadership is a prevalent subject for research and debate; it is nevertheless a tough word to describe and define. Institutions, the world over in both the public and private arenas have recognised ordinarily to achieve predetermined aims and goals. In attaining these aims and goals, the responsibility of the human elements; workers, cannot be underestimated (Gberevbie, 2017). This is basically due to the fact that organisations, regardless of other capitals and assets they possess cannot attain anything meaningful in terms of accomplishing their aims, objectives and goals, without the human capital stimulating all other resources (Gberrvbie, Joshua, Excellence-Oluye & Oyeyemi, 2017).

Goleman et al. (2002) in their book, *Primal leadership*, state that though leadership has been described in several manners, leadership is not that inherent, feature or a magical characteristic that an individual possess but instead it is a course of working procedures. Northouse (2010) clarifies that in defining people who lead, the expressions; 'natural and born' characteristically are employed by persons endorsing an inherent viewpoint of leadership. Leadership centred on hereditary might contain an individual's physique or look, intellect, inclination toward extraversion, eloquence or numerous other features. On the other hand, leadership is obviously a procedure

or an operational occurrence that happens amongst persons leading and those following. By way of indication, leadership is a matter with growing attention in several fields.

Individuals can term themselves as “leaders” or own the designation describing them as a leader; nonetheless, if other individuals are not behind them, such leaders will be misleading themselves and will not be prominent (Maxwell, 2008). Although little has changed in regard to leader roles over the past five decades, leadership definitions have undergone many changes. Leaders are tasked with development, transformation and advancement. Northouse (2013) indicates that leaders perform three basic tasks: instituting the organisational course; supporting individuals and responsibilities; and encouraging and motivating followers. Fundamentally, leaders lead individuals and fulfil their responsibilities. Leaders create the organisational culture. In the performance of leadership tasks, leaders not only give instructions that guide the jobs in the organisation, but they also instil a value set in the organisation. Leaders function to develop guidelines, a notion that underpins the current study, while managers are charged with implementation of these guidelines (Day & Antonakis, 2012).

Leadership has always been acknowledged as being significant for social success and performance. Gregory-Mina (2009) indicates that the conception of leadership commenced centuries ago with Plato’s conviction that leaders are made based on their class position; today, however, it is believed that leaders are made based on their relations with other people. House, Javidan and Dorfman (2001) document the fact that researchers from 38 countries assembled for the first time in August 1994 during a leadership conference. These scholars came to an agreement globally to define leadership as the ability of a person to impact, inspire and empower other individuals to improve in the efficiency and accomplishment of the organisations to which they belong.

On the other hand, Antonakis, Cianciolo and Sternberg (2004) are of the view that in almost a century of research, no single or absolute definition of leadership has been theorised or broadly embraced in political, managerial, transactional and transformational ways. These assertions confirm James MacGregor Bums’ 1978 study on leadership in which he asserts that leadership is one of the widely experiential yet

the least assumed and understood terminologies globally (Bums, 1978). That notwithstanding, although the details vary across frameworks, some mutual grounds exist which make leadership a productive subject for study. Researchers lean towards accepting that leadership is most comprehended as the way in which the persuading procedure and its consequential results that take place between leaders and their subordinates and the manner in which the persuading procedure is described. The view of a fixed set of rules or responsibilities paved the way for the idea that leadership should accept a more useful skill that permits the flexibility to adjust to meeting the varying needs of the organisation (George, 2000).

Collins (2001) states that diversity in a great and good leader refers to their aptitude to acclimatise to change. Good leaders are inclined to chart their leadership course even when their leadership strategy is not working, with great leaders consequently changing their leadership strategies. There has been an evolution in the different perspectives of leadership owing to its complexity. Some of the viewpoints of leadership include behavioural, competency, implicit, contingency and transformational, from which charismatic, contingent, transactional and transformational leadership styles emerged (McShane & Glinow, 2005).

Many researchers have proven that a substantial relationship exists between EI and leadership effectiveness (Boyatzis, 2008, 2009; Goodwin, 2016; Kerr et al., 2006; Walter et al., 2011). Studies have also disclosed that the EI of an organisational leader is associated with the excellence of the leader's association with his followers (Janovics & Christiansen, 2001; Javed et al., 2017; Lopes et al., 2006). Walter and colleagues (2011) are among the current researchers who have documented the link between EI and leadership effectiveness. The leadership literature has produced countless philosophies presenting the features which make the most effective leader, nevertheless, contemporary educational studies in the field define distinctive types of leadership which include transformational leadership (Cote, Lopes, Salovey & Miners 2010; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003).

Burns (1978) described the transformational leadership process as leaders and followers elevating each other to greater heights of morals and inspiration. Earlier researchers have stated that specific EI qualities contribute to the advancement of transformational leadership (Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Nye, 2008). According to Harms

and Crede (2010), transformational leadership qualities guide collaboration between leaders and subordinates in which subordinates are stimulated to acquire, accomplish and progress in their work endeavours. Transformational leaders provide inspiration, nurturing an environment of trust and care while setting challenges (Goodwin, 2016; Harms & Crede, 2010; Javed et al., 2017).

Among the countless leadership philosophies presented and researched, transformational leadership relates directly in several and various ways to the necessity for school development that pursues the policy of “No Child Left Behind” (Moore & Rudd, 2006). Hoy and Miskel (2001) assert that transformational leadership is what educationalists see when they contemplate their idea of the perfect leader. Transformational institutional heads encourage, influence and stimulate individuals to accomplish goals. This happens by acquiring the inherent principles of institutional leaders and modelling them to be consistent with the school’s vision, mission and standards (Saxe, 2011; Smith & Piele, 2006). The transformational institutional head proposes a mission based on defining ways for achievement focused on promoting individuals as well as principles centred on restructuring the organisation (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Sinek, 2014; Smith & Piele, 2006; Wiseman et al., 2013). Sinek (2014) discloses that transformational institutional heads advance a collective vision for the school, foster harmony and heightened expectations, project suitable values, construct collaborative principles and collective leadership. In particular, transformational institutional leadership has an optimistic influence on school values.

Since the current study seeks to investigate the leader–follower relationship among school counsellors and students, transformational leadership forms the basis for the theoretical framework. Leadership, effective leadership and leadership skills are used interchangeably in the current study in relation to the other constructs under study; i.e. EI and SEL. These constructs will be discussed in detail in separate chapters.

3.3 PARADIGMATIC PERSPECTIVE

Modern and transformational leadership theories form the paradigmatic perspective of this chapter. Burns' (1978) transformational leadership theory underpins the scope of this chapter and is discussed below in detail.

3.3.1 Modern leadership theory

The theory on modern leadership emanates from Galton's 1869 book; *Hereditary Genius*. It was the first empirical study on leadership. This research refuted the notion that persons are born with inherent leadership abilities and only exceptional persons' are gifted to be leaders (Zaccaro, 2012). Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn and Lyons (2011) advance the idea that Carlyle advocated for the trait theory and in 1907 offered the great man theory. The great man theory claims that all leaders have an inherent ability that comprise willpower, self-confidence, honour, determination and zeal to be successful. Prior to Lewin's research in 1983, the trait theory was principal theory. Lewin's (1983) theory identified three diverse leadership types: the autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire (Burnes & Cooke, 2013). Lewin (1983) suggested that to understand the behaviour of an individual, the circumstances must be taken into consideration (Burnes & Cooke, 2013). Lu, Shen and Williams (2014) contend that Galton (1869) characterised the model trait leadership theory and research on trait theory concentrating on a person's characteristics, including physical qualities.

A theory of leadership Effectiveness based on the contingency model of leadership was established by Fiedler (1967 as cited in Dinh et al., 2014). The contingency theory posits that, individuals who lead have permanent styles of leading that must relate to conditions that can be advantageous to their leadership elements. Fiedler (1967, cited in Dinh et al., 2014) advocated two kinds of leader, namely leaders who are relationship-driven and others with a task-driven orientation. Fielder (1967, cited in Dinh et al., 2014) deliberated on how these two kinds of leaders are operative in eight different circumstances, discovering that every kind of leader does well in four different spheres and confirming that leaders should be appointed based on the capacities on which they score high (Crosby, 2017; Vroom & Jago, 2007).

In 1974, leadership theory was promoted with House and Mitchell's research on path-goal theory. House and Mitchell's (1974) theory claimed that individuals who lead can

transform the manner they lead to match with conditions at hand to produce higher performance from workers (Crosby, 2017; Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio & Johnson, 2011). This notion is akin to Fiedler's work in the sense that the situational setting must be considered, but mixed because every leader can select the style of leadership to present, based on the circumstances (due to a fixed leadership style) articulating the leader's style (Crosby, 2017). The leader can also assess employees' opinions and deliberations in deciding on the leadership style to employ. The aim of path-goal theory was to increase the satisfaction of workers and strengthen their effort toward advanced endeavours (Northouse, 2012).

Warrick (2011) indicates that, in 1978, Burns researched and characterised modern leadership styles. Researchers who deliberated on success and attainment demonstrated that, individuals are enticed to transformational leaders (Hernandez et al., 2011; Javed et al., 2017). Bass (1985) succeeded Burns and projected Burn's research by authoring a book, *Leadership and performance beyond expectation*, offering a multifactor leadership theory (Hargis, Watt & Piotrowski, 2011).

3.3.2 Transformational leadership theory

Burns is noted for the foundation of the leadership theory which is grounded in his 1978 research. Burns (1978) initially offered two separate styles of leadership founded on his study of the actions demonstrated by different political leaders. The principal theory, transactional leadership, featured several of the early leadership theories predominant in that era. Burns (1978) states that transactional leadership is centred on a give-and-take course concerning individuals who lead and their factions, in which rewards were presented to workers centred on satisfactory magnitudes of demonstrated works. This type of leadership differs from transformational leadership, the objective that is to inspire individuals to exceed their own self-centredness and go further than mere leader-follower associations in the betterment of the organisation or individuals (Bass, 1985; burns, 1978).

Burns (1978) clarified that transformational leadership identifies and sets about extracting followers' total potential. Interested in the communal good, transformational leadership is intended to increase individual happiness (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Brown, 2011). Equipped with great purpose, transformational leadership targets follower

individual and professional state of advancement (Robinson-Hickman, 2010). Transformational leadership motivates follower advancement by nurturing subordinates' prospects and encouraging them to see to advanced imperative desires. Burns (1978) enumerated four leadership activities leaders assume to realise complete follower aptitudes. These leadership actions are termed the four Is, namely; individualised consideration (IC), intellectual stimulation (IS), idealised influence (II) and inspirational motivation (IM) (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass & Bass, 2008). A thorough transformational leadership examination clearly discloses the four Is as being meta-competencies which have sub-competencies. A capability is not a stand-alone characteristic or trait. On the other hand, competencies are a mixture of skills, talents and attributes (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Naquin & Holton, 2006). The four Is are discussed below;

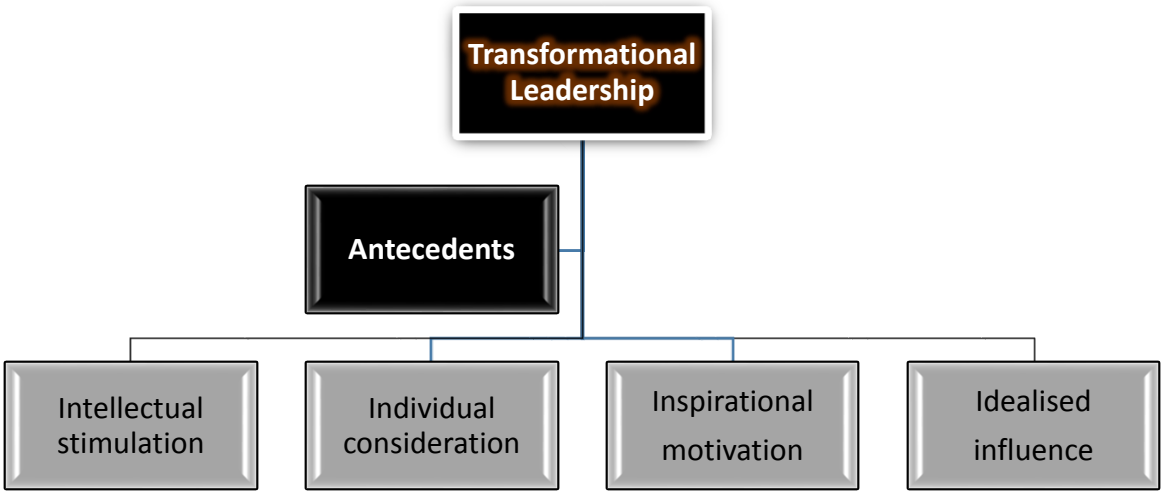

Figure 3.1*: The Four I's of Transformational Leadership* (Wilson, 2014, p. 74)

3.3.2.1 Intellectual stimulation

Transformational leaders offer intellectual stimulation for the principles and great philosophies of other individuals (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Through this stimulation standards of action are constantly studied and examined so that innovative means for achieving the task can be discovered (Barbuto, 2005). Followers are authorised to initiate and suggest new and more challenging concepts without fear of mockery

(Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2003). Followers are stimulated out of their theoretical positions through a reconstruction of the issue (Bass & Bass, 2008).

3.3.2.2 Individualised consideration

Individualised consideration comprises allowing for each individual's personal needs, skills and goals (Bass & Bass, 2008). The transformational leader who uses individualised considerations attends to, advises, imparts and mentors in order to advance followers. Individuals are handled differently and separately based on their talents, intellect and experiences (Shin & Zhou, 2003). The individualised thoughtful leader recognises divergent needs for development and success by initiating interactions, promoting cooperative communication, entrusting responsibilities to cultivate collective leadership and identifying the potential in every individual irrespective of ethnic differences (Bass & Bass, 2008).

3.3.2.3 Inspirational motivation

Leaders promoting inspirational motivation show passion, inspiration and uniformity when communicating effective principles and an attractive idea of future endeavours (Bass, 1997). The inspiring leader stimulates and converts workers to a mentality that importance can be achieved (Modassir & Singh, 2008). Inspiring leaders communicate inspiration to the whole organisation by collaborating great prospects and raising employee spirits and zeal (Hay, 2007; Northouse, 2010).

3.3.2.4 Idealised influence

Whereas inspirational motivation speaks to the motivation of the whole organisation, idealised influence sees to motivate individuals. Leaders make an ideal impact with acts of persuasion, underlining the importance of confidence, assurance, determination and resolve when in moments of adversity (Bass, 1997). Leaders who function due to passionate individual principles centred on integrity and truthfulness (Hay, 2007) the initial association results consolidation of the factions' objectives and

philosophies (Modassir & Singh, 2008). According to Antonakis, Avolio and Sivasubramaniam (2003), idealised influence is categorised in two separate ways.

Antonakis et al. (2003) state that when followers see the leader as influential, self-confident, principled and dependable thus embodying higher-order principles, this is termed as idealised influence (attributed). On the other hand, idealised influence (behaviour) is considered the charming activities that stimulate cooperation between leaders and their follower ideologies, philosophies and purpose of duty (Antonakis et al., 2003)

3.4 PERSPECTIVES ON LEADERSHIP

The notion of leadership has been with us for centuries, commencing with Plato's conviction that leaders are made based on their class position, while contemporary leaders are made based on their associations with other persons. Stemming from the humanities, leadership have had a place in a scholarly arena of research for about six decades. Primeval Egyptians employed symbols as leadership dating back as far as 3000 BC for both their leaders and subordinates (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). While the idea of leadership is not new, the topic of leadership has been given a lot more of consideration over the last quarter of a century. This development of amplified prominence and awareness focus of leadership, is echoed in organisations of all kinds. Numerous articles, conferences and discourses present different perspectives of leadership, including the political, educational, business, military, religious and non-profit fields (Wang & Hsieh, 2013; Wilson 2014).

Leadership is a collective manifestation perceived throughout human development and in various animal species (Bass, 1997; Wang & Hsieh, 2013; Wilson, 2014). According to Bass and Bass (2008), Homer and Plato wrote expressively about the significance of leadership. Although not an opinion for social justice, in 1513 Machiavelli remarked, there is nothing more problematic, very dangerous to undertake or most undefined in its accomplishment than to assume leadership role in an institution of a different command of proceedings (Machiavelli, 1961). There are diverse perspectives on leadership of which five most prominent have been academically explored. These are, namely, the competency, behaviour, contingency,

transformational and implicit leadership perspectives from which various leadership styles emerged. The five major perspectives are discussed below:

3.4.1 Competency perspective (trait)

The competency perspective, most likely the oldest viewpoint of leadership, concentrates on the inherent abilities of great leaders. The competency outlook attempts to ascertain the collection of capabilities, principles, individual characteristics and other features that makes the leader fruitful (Crosby, 2017).

Locke and Kirkpatrick (1991) submitted in a research that, operational leaders possess the following qualities:

- Drive-naturally possessing a heightened desire for accomplishment
- Self-confidence- being sure of themselves and indicating that they are confident
- Enough EI- possess enough social and emotional competencies to be able to manage themselves and others
- Leadership motivation- be robust in applying authority and regulation in order to impact others attain organisational goals
- Intelligence- exhibit and demonstrate intelligence
- Integrity- show honesty and be trustworthy
- Competence – exhibit competence and demonstrate in-depth knowledge in work to assure workers (Wilson, 2014).

3.4.2 Behavioural perspective

Behavioural view stresses on the notion that, leadership is about what leaders undertake more than their inherent qualities they possess. For that matter, the behavioural perspective seeks to ascertain behaviours that make individuals who lead efficient. The behavioural theorists have it that, behaviours which impact leadership efficiency are people oriented and task-oriented behaviours (Wang & Hsieh, 2013).

- People-oriented- these leaders seek to meet their followers needs and wellbeing

- Task-oriented- these leaders are always occupied in the duties they have to perform and are largely hard on their followers.

3.4.3 Contingency perspective

Contingency outlook is grounded on the notion that, the most appropriate type of leadership is determined by circumstances. Various contingency theories have been proposed over the years but the path goal leadership theory (House, 1971) has stood the incessant methodical criticisms. The path goal theory differentiates leadership types into these four categories below, which should be employed at different times and circumstances.

- **Directive**- these leaders set goals for their employees, the means to attain them, the principles required and the penalties for not accomplishing them.
- **Supportive**- these leaders treat their followers with respect and honour.
- **Participative**- these are leaders who encourage workers' and followers' involvement and input.
- **Achievement oriented**- these leaders set interesting objectives, expects high prospects and requests constant improvement in work achievement.

3.4.4 Transformational perspective

Contingency outlooks were all viewed from the transactional leadership outlook. Thus, transactional leaders manage their followers and workers. They assist them to undertake their routine objectives by associating job performance to rewards and certifying they have capitals required to perform their duties.

On the other hand, the contemporary transformational outlook of leadership centres on how persons who lead transform group members and organisations by forming an idea and stimulating their workers to fight for that dream. Tasks transformational leaders engage in consist of forming a vision, collaborating a vision, performing a vision, constructing worker obligation towards the vision and constructing worker obligation to the vision. The transformational perspective underpins the current study

and is further discussed in detail under the historical perspective of transformational leadership (Crosby, 2017; Wang & Hsieh, 2013; Wilson, 2014).

3.4.5 Implicit leadership perspective

Leadership also includes followers' views of the qualities and influence of the individuals they term leaders. This observational outlook of leadership is referred to as implicit leadership theory (Wilson, 2014).

Implicit leadership theory involves two connected concepts (Crosby, 2017). The focal point of this theory is that each person has a leadership prototype which is predetermined philosophy about the makeup and behaviour of operational leaders. These prototypes, which mature through interaction within families and the public, nurture our expectations and recognition of other individuals as leaders and also have an impact on our readiness to function as followers. Basically, individuals are ready to permit others to influence them as leaders when those individuals appear to be and behave as their model of a leader. Such leadership models not only support an individual's position as leader; they also have an impact on the view of the leader's efficacy. If the leader appears to be and behaves constantly like the prototype, individuals are more likely to trust that the leader is effective.

This prototype assessment procedure arises due to individuals having an in-built necessity to rapidly assess persons as leaders; however leadership effectiveness is often vague and may not be obvious over time (Wang & Hsieh, 2013). This impression of regulation is gratified by trusting that events cause the coherent behaviours of leaders. The implicit leadership viewpoint offers guidance on advancing leadership approval. It throws lights on the fact that leadership is an opinion, which supports the real actions and official positions of individuals pronouncing themselves as leading others. Prospective individuals who want to lead others ought to be mindful of this purpose, appreciate and recognise what subordinates anticipate and behave consequently. Persons who do not try to fit this leadership model will struggle to accomplish needed organisational change (Wang & Hsieh, 2013; Wilson, 2014).

3.5 TYPES OF LEADERSHIP

For almost five decades, leadership scholars have tried to categorise leadership into its simplest form by considering charismatic, impact and emotional development levels (Northouse, 2010). These academically theoretical forms include the following:

- laissez-faire leadership (absentee or no leadership)
- character-based leadership theories (great man and trait theories)
- conduct theories (leader actions)
- condition-based theories (leader action context)
- contingency theories (path-goal and normative theories)
- quid pro quo theories (transactional and social exchange theories)
- charismatic leadership
- transformational leadership (change and self-fulfilment theories)
- Servant leadership.

3.5.1 Laissez-Faire leadership

Crosby (2017) mentions that laissez-faire leadership is generally termed “hollow leadership” and laissez-faire leaders generally abstain from supervision or interruption and regularly try to preserve individual independence of action. Initially recognised by Lewin (1939) as one of the three main leadership styles, laissez-faire leaders do not normally use their authority. They offer the least leadership, circumvent regulation and trust followers will do things right when left on their own. Ordinarily referred to as the most week of the kinds of leadership, laissez-faire is based on the non-intrusiveness and assigns supervisory power to followers (Yukl, 2006). Laissez-faire leadership is generally considered non-transactional, and researchers have revealed a robust relationship with negative leadership principles and presents possible weakening social shortfall (Howell & Costley, 2006).

3.5.2 Character-based leadership (great man & trait theories)

Character or behaviour-based leadership focuses on individual leader qualities. Characteristic perceptions propose specific individuals have distinctive inherent features or traits. Intrinsic leader behaviours distinguish them from non-leaders (Northouse, 2010). Frequently labelled “great man” theories, personality-based leadership throws light on the innate characteristics, features or abilities to be modelled. McClelland’s (1973, in Hogan & Kaiser, 2005) revolutionary work four decades ago characterised effective leadership traits into four major classifications: intrapersonal skills, interpersonal abilities, influence capabilities and controlling aptitudes.

Discussions on character-based leadership have endeavoured to differentiate between leader traits (particular abilities) and competencies (an ability or characteristic combination). This method accepts that the two are distinct from each other. In fact, personal leadership abilities aid as a communal leader skill experiences (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Naquin & Holton, 2006).

3.5.3 Conduct-based leadership

Founded on the behaviour perspective and based on how leaders behave, conduct-based leadership centres on leadership style. Two common kinds of behaviours intended to encompass types of leadership behaviour are task deeds and relationship actions. How leaders practise direction while merging behaviour types is conduct based leadership theory’s principle (Bass & Bass, 2008). Based on Stogsdill’s (1974) revolutionary work, both Ohio State University and the University of Michigan conducted a research study to discover associations linking leader mission focus to their relational standing. Conduct-based leadership peculiarities are autonomous of each other. Generally engaged in the civic and private divisions, it is that submitted leaders scoring high on both task and relationship scopes were greater (Blake & McCanse, 1991; Northouse, 2010).

Before the introduction of conduct based leadership theories, leadership debates were founded on personality-based leadership. These leadership debates established that no single personality model well reflected effective leaders. Likewise, conduct based

theory established that no general effective leadership attitude occurs (Wang & Hsieh, 2013).

3.5.4 Condition-based leadership (situational)

Condition-based leadership is founded on the situational leadership perspective, and implies that leadership is in reality conditionally reliant on and proposes that leadership behaviours emerge from situations (Crosby, 2017). In condition-based leadership, followers have diverse capabilities and transform based on the situation. Leaders are accountable for realising follower environment harmonisation in order to attain anticipated goals. As a convenient and realistic method, condition-based leadership has enjoyed extensive attention. Valuable in most countries, condition-based leadership has supported an emerging attention on leader-subordinate argument practices. With the attention on understanding and instructive features, conduct based leadership are similar to the individualised consideration element of transformational leadership (Crosby, 2017; House, 1996).

3.5.5 Contingency-based leadership

Contingency-based leadership is founded directly on the contingency perspective which endeavours to support leaders with the right circumstances while merging both condition- and conduct-based leadership characteristics. In contingency-based leadership, efficient leadership links the leader and the conditions. Contingency leadership suggest that leader presentation is determined by many factors, such as leader engagement, scheduling and follower willingness. Contingency-based theories are expressive in nature and assume that there is no ideal leadership approach (Morgan, 2006). Circumstances assumed to be most productive have positive leader–subordinate relations.

Leaders must carefully observe and regulate the organisation’s external contexts. Leadership should be mainly concerned with realising appropriate practice. Comprehending appropriate procedure is reliant on follower and situational deliberations. Contingency theory may explain why leaders are unproductive in particular situations or specific arenas. Contingency-based leadership theory can also be used to determine leader type (Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Studies by contingency-

based theorists have contributed considerably to the advancement of quid pro quo and transformational leadership theory.

3.5.6 Quid pro quo leadership

According to Bass (2008), social exchange leadership symbolises the evolution from leadership behaviours to practices. Quid pro quo leadership theories are often referred to as social exchange or transactional theories. Ideally, leader-led interactions aid both parties to some extent (Bass, 2008). Social exchange leadership is generally termed a status quo stabilising process. Consequently, many leaders tend to adopt transactional leadership. Concentrating on short-term objectives, quid pro quo leadership practices are usually objective and depend on reward or coercive power as influence. Transactional leaders use incentives and deterrents to persuade subordinates. For that reason, transactional leaders impact others as a reason to accomplish conformity (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Considered to be short term owing to its effects on followers, social exchange leadership in time loses influence as followers become antagonistic towards coercive power techniques (Cranium, 2012). As a consequence, those employing coercive power have less impact in the long run.

Transactional leaders are inclined to being forthright and behave effectively (Vandenberghe, Stordeur & D'hoore, 2002). In order to encourage efficiency, quid pro quo leaders appeal to subordinate desires (Chatman & Kennedy, 2008; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Quid pro quo, social exchange and transactional leadership practices haven been exposed to several research struggles. Generally considered to be opposing processes to transformational leadership, researchers have recognised that operational transactional leaders must comprehend supporter desires and aspirations. Consequently, social scientists have established quid pro quo leadership as an essential constituent in virtually all organisations (Van Eeden, Cilliers & Van Deventer, 2008).

3.5.7 Charismatic leadership

The boundary of charismatic leadership is crossed between exchange and change leadership performances. House (1976) maintains that charismatic bosses behave in

unique ways that have a motivational influence on followers to display enthusiastic behaviour. Using behaviours and characteristics such as authority and confidence, House (1976) recognised trust and leader empathy as standard effects. Charismatic leadership descriptions express leadership from one of two perspectives: the leader and the managed (House, 1996; Northouse, 2010). Leader viewpoints communicate individual leadership characteristics the presence of which impacts supporters. In contrast, follower perceptions express charismatic leadership by means of follower effects. Both leader and subordinate viewpoints are suitable and add to considering charismatic leaders (personalities) and leadership (procedure). Accordingly, an integrated charismatic leadership definition is an impelling capability a leader has founded on exceptional capabilities which involve supporter self-concepts, thereby raising supporter determination in objective accomplishment (Eriksen, 2007).

Charismatic leadership is an important practice which motivates supporter drive and transformation. Charisma is a principal leadership concept. The existence or non-existence of charisma often defines leader power in genuine and supporter structures. As Figure 3.2 below shows, charismatic leadership comprises transformational and servant leadership features (Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, 2004; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Current leadership researchers recognised transformational and servant leaders as charismatic leader types (Pollard, 2010).

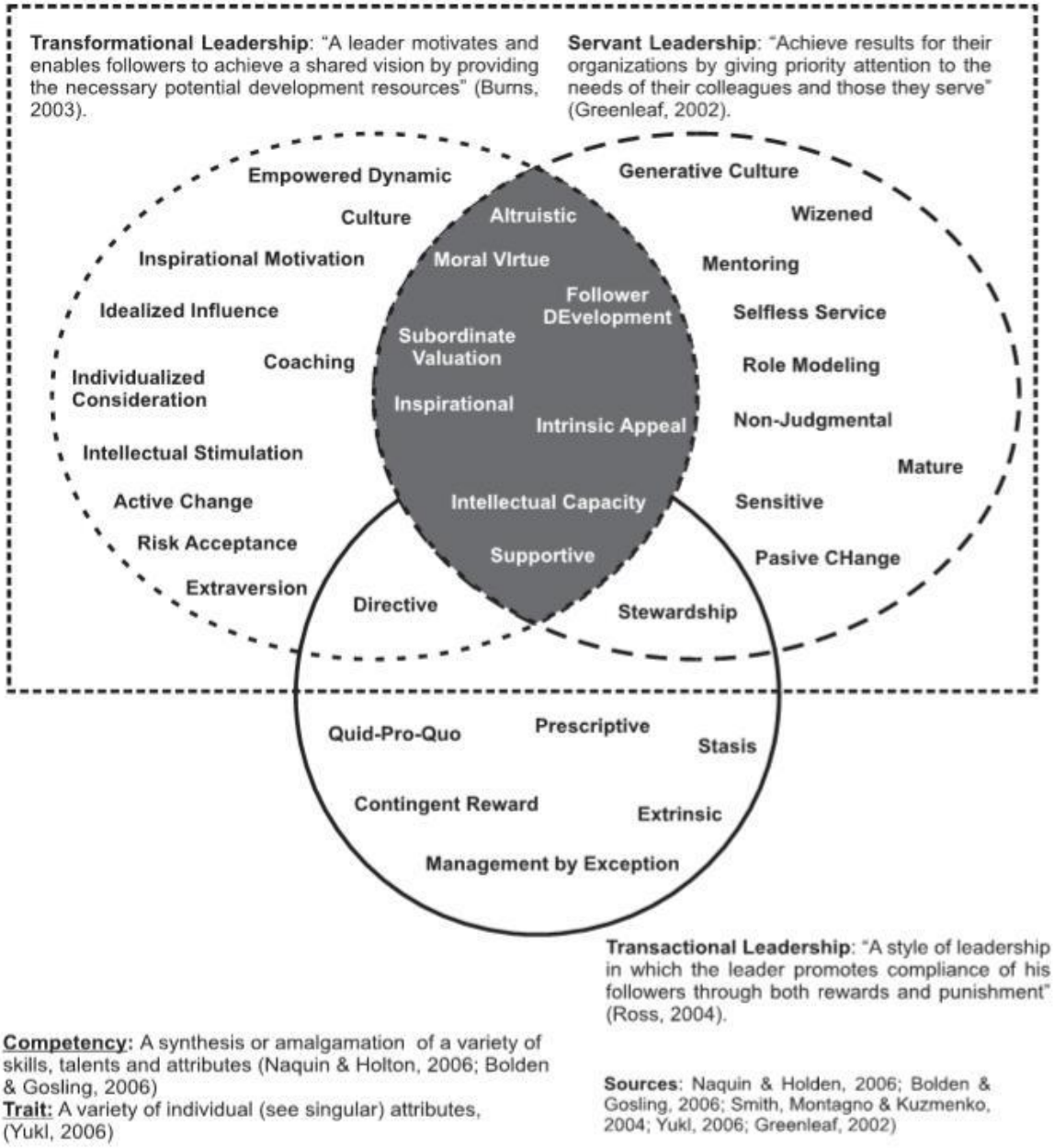

Figure 3.2: *Charismatic Leadership* (Wilson, 2014, p. 73)

As is seen in the above diagram, charismatic leadership encompasses transformational and servant leadership. Transformational leadership motivates and enables followers to attain a shared vision by making available the needed resources by way of an empowered dynamic culture, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and active change amongst others. On the other hand, servant leadership attains results for their institutions by empowering and giving important support to the

needs of their associates and those they serve which also leads to a generative culture, mentoring and self-service to mention just a few.

Both the transformational and servant leadership blend of the charismatic leadership culminates in an intellectual capacity which provides support, direction and stewardship to their associates which is the quid duo pro, otherwise known as transactional leadership amongst others, as vividly demonstrated in the above diagram.

3.5.8 Servant leadership

Servant leadership was an early 1970s development. Conger (2008) states that it is not surprising to see that both servant and transformational leadership as inspirational theories are related (Conger, 2008). Garcia (2008) accept that leadership is an influential procedure where an individual convinces a subordinate to accomplish leader commitments. Field (2002) postulates that leaders are pivotal points around which organisations are established and driven. Supporters often lack essential unsubstantiated development properties. Consequently, leaders are answerable for supporter growth. Various writers have conjectured that only a minor proportion of official teaching courses really support follower education (Jadhav & Gupta 2014; Javed et al., 2017; Tannenbaum, 2007). Subsequently, studies have positioned independently tailored evolving communications such as tutoring, coaching and peer monitoring as increasingly important (Emerson & Loehr, 2008; Jadhav & Gupta 2014; Javed et al., 2017). Chatman and Kennedy (2008) projected “leader skills to get used to relaxing growing reactions, is a serious aptitude when it comes to inspiring supporter advancement” (Chatman & Kennedy (2008, p. 2).

Burke (1973, cited in White, 2005) indicates that supporter inspiration is an initial leader task. Inspiration is a major development enabler, allowing supporter advancement through personal development stages. Substantial leader determination is used to inspire supporters to attain educational, individual and occupational quests (White, 2005). Figure 3.3 below shows Burke’s individual developmental stages.

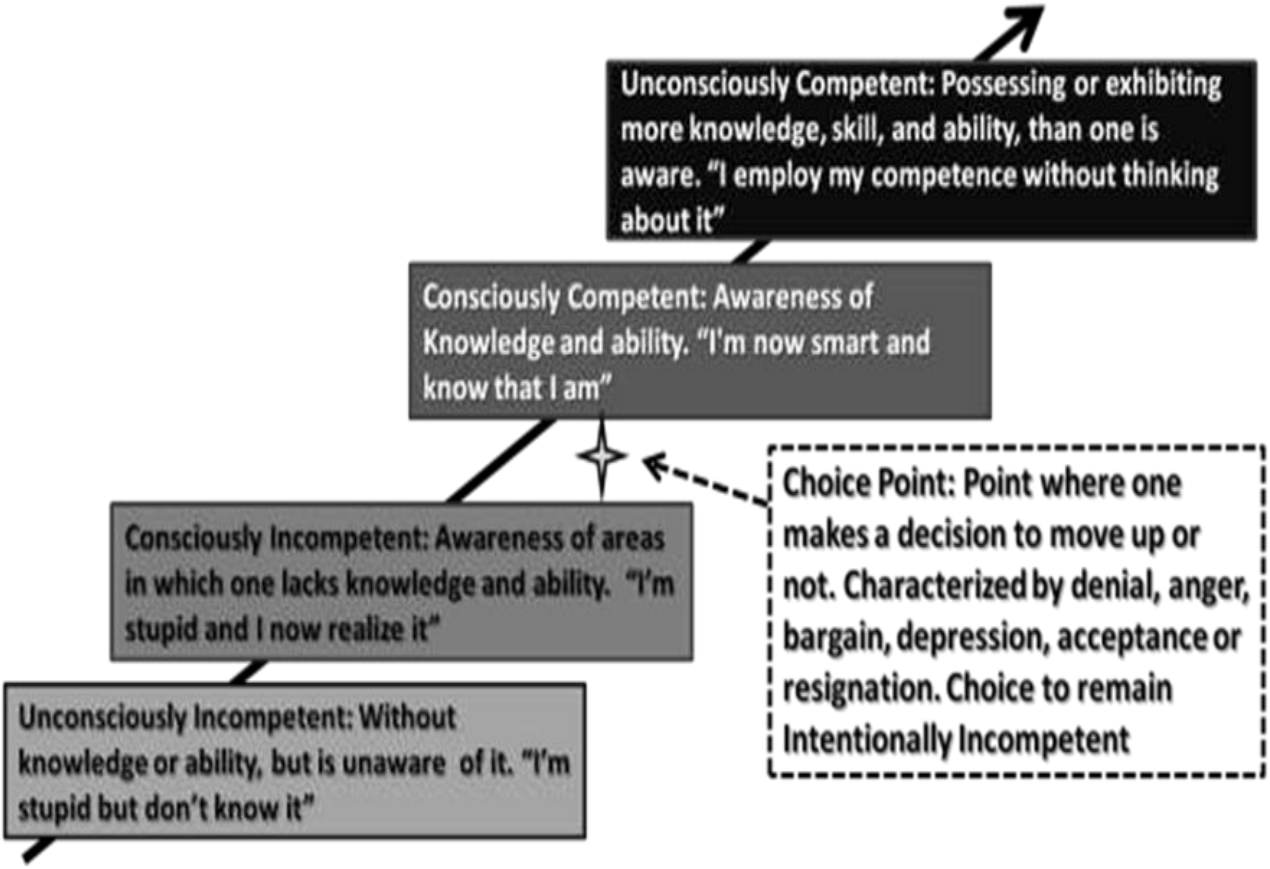

Figure 3.3*: Burke's Development Stages* (Wilson, 2014, p. 78)

Burke's development stages above depict the first stage as an unconsciously incompetent one. At this stage, there is no knowledge or ability and the individual is not aware or conscious of it. The second stage is consciously incompetent. At that stage, individuals are aware or conscious of the fact that they are incompetent in a given field or arena. The third stage, consciously competent, is when individuals are aware and know their competence and capabilities. The fourth and final stage is the unconsciously competent. This stage is characterised by subconscious knowledge. At this stage, individuals show more competence than they are aware of. They act in ways that are commendable without any or much effort.

Follower-led approaches anticipating follower responsibilities comprise a development prerequisite. Drucker (1999) accredits follower self-improvement duties to conditional components. Alluding to universal economic growth and improved ecological

complexity, Drucker (1999) practically moved the obligation for follower improvement from leaders to followers.

Followers are mandated to advance, pursue promotion and take on more and bigger duties. Followers' dedication to training and coaching is vital to follower progress. Training and coaching are growing interactions which centre on follower development (Maxwell, 2008). Leadership (and by extension, followership) is a serious change-oriented course. In other words, charismatic, transformational or servant leadership assists in follower development. Gómez-Mejia, Balkin and Cardy (2008) recommend leader transformative initiative development in both persons and institutions. Transformational leadership's individual consideration is thoroughly linked to follower development.

Brubaker (2013) in a research paper exploring the association of leaders behaviour and observed effectiveness of leaders in Rwanda, specifically on leadership of servant behaviours, studied the African idea of Ubuntu (leadership) in connection with professed leader efficiency to be able to ascertain which group of conducts is utmost meaningfully associated with efficiency. Using a sample of 120 individual Rwandans employed in non-government contexts, an instrument for assessing Ubuntu among organisational leaders was established. The survey items were all translated into Kinyarwanda. The findings revealed that Ubuntu associated leadership and servant leadership were positively and significantly associated to effectiveness of leadership (unstandardised b = 0.93, standard error = 0.05); thus Ubuntu and servant leadership are not significantly different in the power of their relations with effectiveness of leaders. On the other hand, there was a mixed confirmation for the discriminant validity of Ubuntu associated leadership as an idea different from servant leadership (Brubaker, 2013).

Employing a survey design in carrying out this research may have been a drawback. This is due to the fact that most participants especially participant with minimal experience with literacy or who were uneducated were not conversant with the measuring and the data collecting instruments. In addition, participants needed a lot of explanation and demonstration concerning how to respond to the survey items. A more appropriate design and methodology could have been used to minimise the problem associated with the data collection.

Hale and Fields (2007) in a quantitative research examined and matched the degree to which Ghanaian and American workers practise three degrees of follower leadership. Employing a study of 60 individuals from Ghana and 97 individuals from America, they were able to measure the association of the servant leadership and scopes of humility, service and vision and that of effectiveness of leadership. The participants involved undergraduates learning in a seminary. Findings from the Ghanaian sample stated experiences of significantly lower conducts of servant leadership than that of the Americans. Consequently, Hale and Fields (2007) claimed the communalism and enormous power distance of Ghana accounted for these variances, since humbleness and growth of subordinates "may [not] be consistent with leadership behaviour norms in cultures that are comfortable with greater distance between leaders and followers" (Hale & Fields 2007, p. 140). Furthermore, Hale and Fields (2007) indicate that a higher association was established between vision and leader effectiveness among their Ghanaian sample than their American sample. Once more, this inconsistency may be ascribed to larger power distance in Ghanaian culture, where followers may have more expectations of leaders to be considerably visionary. Hale and Fields (2007) concluded that differences in Ghanaians' involvements in follower leadership behaviours may be linked to changes in beliefs. Future studies could employ a larger sample size and repeat this research in other countries and cultures to confirm these results or determine more diverse results.

Using a qualitative case study, Anglaaere (2017) explored two notions of leadership within the experiential and everyday life circumstances of the Dagara community in northern Ghana. Using 13 participants, Anglaaere explored how the Dagara community practised and linked the models of servant leadership and their traditional ways of leadership. Participants, who were selected from the community leaders, including chiefs, religious leaders and school teachers, were used in the case study to ascertain whether the concept of servant leadership effectively addresses the specific cultural dimensions in the Nandom Traditional Area (NTA) that serves as a mediation between the Catholic missionaries and the different leadership structure in the NTA. The results of the study revealed that servant leadership was existent but was not often applied within the Dagara community.

The study further revealed that the authoritarian social model and ancestor cult are still practised by the Dagara, which limited the full potential of servant leadership as practised by the Catholic institution. Again, the sample size of 13 leaders, including chiefs, religious leaders among others, may not be adequate to make a concrete generalisation. A larger sample size may be employed in future studies. It will also be noteworthy to mention that a quantitative study in the domain may also reveal more reliable and valid results.

3.5.9 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership as developed as one of the widely researched constructs almost after half a century in the arena of organisational psychology (Godwin, 2016; Javed et al., 2017). At work, transformational leaders reach greater heights of accomplishment alongside follower ratings of greater satisfaction, improved inspiration, enhanced output and extra resolve. Best performing directors are perceived as highly transformational as compared to underachieving colleagues whose degree of low transformational leadership increase worker impediments and curtail productivity. Transformational leadership was later extended by Burns (1978). Burns' (1978) pivotal effort on leaders in politics recognised the transformational leader as a person that encompasses subordinates in a determination to overcome selfishness in the interest of the group. Transformational leaders emphasize on high desires as respect, self-fulfilment and self-actualisation (Javed et al., 2017).

This practise of leadership creates awareness about and concern for definite consequences. This increase in cognisance and responsiveness leads to innovative means for discerning and acting that lead to the accomplishment of anticipated results. Transformational leaders push subordinates beyond their limits through the allocation of principles such as selflessness, supportiveness, dedication, honesty and impartiality (Goodwin, 2016; Harms & Crede, 2010). Dvir, Dov, Avolio and Shamir (2002) posits that, out of the charismatic leadership practices that transformational leadership is concerned with are personal and organisational actualisation. Downton (1973, as cited in Barnett, McCormick & Conner, 2001) posits that, the notion of a leader as an advocate of transformation was originally dubbed transformational

leadership to explain the dissimilarities among consistent, insubordinate, change and radical leaders.

Burns (1978) differentiated transformational leaders from normal leaders who use a transactional method by generally replacing payment for services rendered. More specifically, Burns (1978) recognised transactional leaders as directors who recognised what followers need and should get to allow employee performance to meet the reward. Transactional leaders, instead of encouraging transformation in an organisation, strive for solidity by stimulating constant achievement to obtain approved objectives (Goodwin, 2016). This reinforcement comes from the use of rewards and retributions that function as economic exchange relations (Barnett, 2003). Though several leaders can be seen as both transformational and transactional in their style, according to Bass (1985), “the leadership of great men (and great women) of history has usually been transformational, not transactional” (p. 26).

3.6 RELATED STUDIES ON TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Bono and Judge (2003) in a study with diverse samples established that subordinates who follow leaders with transformational attributes when matched with leaders with transactional attributes perceived their responsibilities to be necessary and stable with their standards. Other studies propose that followers of transformational leaders have more determination in their work (Goodwin, 2016; Javed et al., 2017). The transformational leader stimulates awareness allowing work to be seen from a novel and renewed viewpoint. Many studies have evaluated leader performance by investigating followers, finding that transformational leaders accomplish their goals through several means (Sinek, 2014; Wiseman et al., 2013). These leaders encourage their followers through obligation to contemporaries, determination, and bold and accomplishment-oriented focus. Inspiration focuses on thoughts about novel viewpoints and even the best approaches, policies and standards are investigated on a constant base. Leaders with transformational attributes employ previous achievements to command confidence and assurance that problems must be gotten rid of by dint of diligence and sacrifice (Javed et al., 2017).

The acceptability of Patterson's (2003) theory of leadership was researched by Koshal (2005) among 25 leaders and managers in Kenya from four sectors of society; government, non-government organisations, business and education in order to test the model in cross-cultural situations and raise understanding of the model in another African tradition. Consequently, Koshal (2005) emphasised on the applicability of Patterson's notion of service. Concentrating on the idea of Harambee, a tradition in Kenya which puts together communities, Koshal (2005) submitted that leaders in Kenya may receive and use Patterson's service concept. Employing qualitative in-depth interviews in collecting data, it was found that the effective (transformational) leadership notion of service entails these elements; role modelling, surrendering to other individuals, meeting other individuals' prerequisites and empowering individuals, the principal purpose of service, acknowledgement and rewarding of workers, modesty and respect for workers and including workers in decision-making.

Ramchunder (2012) conducted a study exploring the relationship among EI, self-efficacy and leadership effectiveness (transformational leadership) within a policing setting in South Africa. Using a sample size of 107 police personnel, the study results established a positive association between EI and self-efficacy and leadership effectiveness. While the study showed a positive result, the sample size was relatively small and was also characterised by more males than females. The participants were mostly between the ages of 39 and 40 years. The small sample size and the limited age range did not allow for a generalisation of the study to a larger police population. Again, factor analysis could not confirm the subscales employed in the correlation analysis. There should therefore be more research in this domain using a larger sample size and a diverse age range of participants to enable a wider generalisation.

Aimed at assessing the transformational leadership elements; idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration, Boateng (2014) led a research in Ghana in the leadership approach of leaders in Ghana. Boateng (2014) employed administrators and student leaders of Valley View University in Accra using 42 participants out of which 35 were full-time administrators and 9 being student leaders. Findings revealed that administrators recorded higher marks on all of the characteristics of transformational leadership than the student leaders did. Taking into consideration the features of transformational leaders, the

administrators deemed themselves as possessing transformational leadership qualities. On the other hand, the student leaders did not deem themselves as possessing qualities of idealised influence of transformational leaders and that of individualised consideration.

Apart from the sample size being relatively small, the study sought to measure the leaders' personal attributes. This may have influenced the administrators to score themselves highly since they may have perceived the study to be an appraisal of them. Future studies could employ a 360-degree rating in the administration of the questionnaire to obtain a possible truer reflection of the leaders.

3.7 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The following are the measuring instruments explored in this study:

3.7.1 Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ)

During the theoretical conceptualisation of Bass' transformational leadership no valid assessment instruments were found to assess the concept. This resulted in Bass and colleagues creating their own assessment tool which they called the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The creation of the MLQ was centred on an analysis of the work as well as survey replies provided by 70 senior officials who were asked to describe the abilities of both transactional and transformational leaders (Bass, 1985; Bass, Avolio & Goodheim, 1987). Factor analysis of the responses projected a five-factor element for the measure which has also been established through other research (Saxe, 2011). Three of the structures acknowledged by the questionnaire were selected as transformational, whereas two were seen as transactional in nature. The first transformational element was labelled charisma, which defines leader behaviours that increase the pride, faith and respect of followers, communicate important concerns and plainly communicate a sense of duty and purpose.

Individual consideration, one of the elements of transformational leadership, comprises leader behaviours such as assigning responsibilities to followers exhibiting attention for subordinate advancement by behaving like a trainer or advisor and according respect to subordinates. Intellectual stimulation was labelled as the third

feature which reflects leaders' action that portray followers problem solving and the aptitude of subordinates to reason efficiently. So to speak, subordinates are inspired to offer their own opinions and are not condemned even if their sentiments are not in line with their leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Saxe, 2011).

Lots of researchers have employed the MLQ and have tested it in a variety of organisational contexts extending from industrial and the military context to spiritual Organisations (Harms & Crede, 2010; Hinkin & Schriesdein, 2008; Leong & Fischer, 2011; Saxe, 2011). Further studies are needed concerning the psychometrics of the assessment (Hinkin & Schriesdein, 2008; Leong & Fischer, 2011). Although the MLQ is generally used in leadership studies as mentioned above, it will not be employed in the current research. The transformational leadership inventory is the most suitable tool for the present research as mentioned earlier and it is therefore discussed in detail in the next section.

3.7.2 Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI)

As a supernumerary for the MLQ, the transformational leadership inventory (TLI) was originated by Podsakoff et al. (1990). The TLI was based on the review of literature on the transformational leadership which consists of first-order transformational features (see Table 3.1 below). These features include high performance expectations, individualised support, intellectual stimulation and a core transformational behaviour concept. Each one of these features uses personal element as indicators. The core transformational construct is the only exception that uses personal factor scores for all the three different concepts as indicators. These indicators are (i) articulating a vision, (ii) providing an appropriate model and (iii) fostering the acceptance of group goals. Earlier results of confirmatory factor analysis establish the incidence of a complete six factor structure for the assessment (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996). That notwithstanding, some researchers have offered support for the six first-order transformational behaviour assessments as compared to integrating three of the constructs into the core transformational leadership feature (Podsakoff et al., 1996).

Table 3.1

TLI Transformational Leadership Dimensions (Padsakoff et al., 1990, p. 114)

High performance expectations	Behaviour that shows leaders' expectation of excellence, quality and high performance expectations
Providing individualised support	Behaviour that leaders exhibit that shows that they respect their subordinates and are interested in their individual emotions and necessities
Intellectual stimulation	Leaders behaviours that challenge followers to reconsider some of their prejudices about their work and rethink how to carry them out
Identifying and	Behaviour on the part of leaders geared towards ascertaining new opportunities for their units/departments/organisations and advancing , articulating and encouraging others with their vision of the future
Providing an appropriate model	Leaders behaviours that set an example for workers to follow that is in line with the principles and values the promotes
Fostering the acceptance of group goals	Leaders behaviour anticipated to promote co-operation among workers and getting teams to work together toward achieving a common objective

Though transformational leadership has revealed remarkable validity concerning a number of optimistic performance-related results, investigators have also censured some features of the theory. Yukl (1999), in measuring some of the theoretical flaws of transformational leadership theory, revealed an error has been the lack of theoretical rationale for the classification of some behaviours transformational behaviours. For instance, the MLQ individualised consideration instrument comprises of the developing and supporting behaviours as significant concepts likewise makes mention of the theory's considerable opacity to explain the effect procedure. These criticisms notwithstanding, the TLI remains the most appropriate assessment instrument for the current study based on the focus of the research. The validity and reliability of the TLI will be further discussed in Chapter 5.

3.8 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE SCHOOL SETTING

Over the last three decades, research lending support for the transformational leadership effectiveness in the transformation agenda has accrued beyond several arenas in industry and production. The task of school reforms in the early 1990s arose to emerging ideas about transformational types of leadership as possibly more serious or value was placed more on the orthodox outlook of the director as educational head (Goodwin, 2016; Javed et al., 2017). Owing to these encounters, instructional leadership philosophers and scholars in the 1990 era started calling for a move from instructive to transformative leadership practises (Leithwood, 2004; Sinek, 2014; Wiseman et al., 2013). Some principles are beneficial for understanding the theoretical variances surrounding instructive and transformative leadership (Goodwin, 2016; Hallinger, 2003).

Javed, Naqvi, Khan, Arjoon and Tayyeb (2017) posits that, whereas instructional leadership is prone to being top-down that of transformational leadership focuses on bottom-up involvement. More so, instructional leadership is perceived as transaction in concentrating on the preservation of the present circumstances and handling of exchanges. Such behaviours are compared to transactional leadership in which the goals of organisational allies are all-inclusive and designed to generate second instruction variations.

The difference in the first and second order transformation is essential in accepting the importance of transformation leadership for organisational change (Goodwin, 2016; Saxe, 2011). Where the instructional leader tries to impact circumstances that openly influence courses and teaching, transformational leaders construct an atmosphere where constant learning is the standard and commitment occurs between personal objectives and the mission of the school (Goodwin, 2016; Saxe, 2011, Sinek, 2014; Wiseman et al., 2013).

Hoy and Miskel (2001), in their textbook on educational leadership, mention that what educators and other workers perceive when thoughts of the vision of the perfect leader is transformational leadership. Leadership of transformational types are in line with the beliefs and organisational arrangement of the school and its effect of the interpretation individuals' link to their job and their readiness to attempt transformation (Louis et al., 2010; Sinek, 2014; Wiseman et al., 2013). School leaders with transformational attributes identify the encouraging effect to be made in choosing good organisational principles for concepts and information (Sinek, 2014; Wiseman et al., 2013).

A theoretical model was originated by Leithwood and Janti (2006) of transformational leadership from studies of reformed schools. Organisations and college contexts share comparable philosophies with regard to the implementation of leadership (Sinek, 2014; Wiseman et al., 2013). In the next section, Leithwood's framework of transformational school leadership is presented.

3.8.1 Leithwood model of transformational school leadership

Javed and colleagues (2017) posit that transformational leaders persuade, inspire and influence other individuals to accomplish goals. This does not manifest through the proposal of rewards which is transactional but by drawing from the inherent principles of workers and influencing such principles to be constant with the institution's vision, mission and principles (Goodwin, 2016; Jadhav & Gupta 2014; Javed et al., 2017; Wiseman et al., 2013). The transformational school leader framework comprises three major classifications: a mission-placed concentration on fixing direction, a performance-centred application on advancing persons and a belief-centred application on reshaping the organisation. Included in the classifications are nine exact scopes with several, comprehensive leader procedures entrenched within.

Rationalisation for these classifications, magnitudes and processes is presented through results from earlier studies centred on leadership from the school (Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999). Based on information from some sources (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Smith & Piele, 2006). Leithwood's framework is conceptualised below:

3.8.1.1 Setting direction

- Building of a school vision- a leading role is expected from transformational leaders in advancing and articulating a vision for the organisation. This goes beyond the establishment of objectives to rather profounder opportunities in which the leader employs existing probabilities to connect and explain the institution's vision to all affiliates of the school's municipality. Vision as an essential leadership competence constantly surfaces in studies on primary efficiency (Javed et al., 2017; Jadhav & Gupta, 2014; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003).

- Fostering consensus about and committing to group goal- transformational leaders collaborate by encouraging educators and teachers to show commitment toward communal objectives. Whereas transactional leaders exhibit commitment towards the agenda of an agreement, leaders with transformational attributes construct associations through connections (Goodwin, 2016; Javed & Gupta, 2014; Javed et al., 2017). The transformational leader supports the principle where followers should scrutinise their procedures within the agreement and subject themselves to it. Through the institution leaders with transformational attributes assist to generate stability in personal objectives, team objectives and the vision while making use of reference to objectives in the decision making practice.

- Holding high expectations for performance - All through the practice of collaborating principal organisational ethics, the transformational leader supports all shareholders to comprehend that these principles are firm. The individual who leads in this stand is resolute in the training of student-centred decision making. Conscientiousness, novelty and competence are anticipated

of other individuals and are entrenched benchmarks for signing on fresh workers.

- Providing intellectual stimulation- Supporters mention that transformational leaders in the school sector are forced re-evaluate simple opportunities about the work they do with and for learners. The leader achieves his by inspiring workers to attempt novel procedures, appraise and transform work as required and seek novel concepts and information. Also, the leader pursues innovative concepts from other institutions, openly identifies excellent performance and constructive outlooks and assists followers to realise that possibilities engaged in and errors encountered as a measure of development are tolerable (Javed et al., 2017). Offer individualised support- the transformational leader is available and hospitable. The transformational leader offers comprehensive teaching as required with the essential means to assist persons to cultivate novel abilities and skills. The transformational leader, even though treats all subordinates similarly, resources are expended in recognising specific educators to be able ascertain and realise their strengths, weaknesses, desires and benefits (Fulcher, 2017; Fullan, 2014).

- Modelling desirable practises and values- the victory of the institution is demonstrated by individuals who lead by example than those who command. Leaders with transformational attributes demonstrate what they anticipate from other individuals. Decision making for leaders create the opportunity of tolerating difficulties in numerous situations. The vitality, zeal, humour, reverence and honesty to offer feedback revealed by the leader stimulates commitment in followers (Goodwin, 2016).

3.8.1.2 Redirecting the organisation

- Developing collaborative school culture- In emphasising educator cooperation in relation to the school's vision and producing values of distinction, maintenance and reverence for learners and workers, leaders with transformational attributes work to reinforce the school's principles. Minor deeds may lead to the largest lasting consequences; providing appreciation for

those who back the institution's core standards by narrating tales that link the institute's previous, current, imminent and creating possibilities for individual ceremonies and celebrations that bond individuals (Fulcher, 2017; Smith & Piele, 2006).

- Creating structures that foster participation in school decisions- it was suggested by Leithwood that skills and expertise are disseminated by the transformational leader. In Leithwood's model, power is attributed by organisational affiliates to whoever is capable of inspiring their commitment to group objectives and aspiration for individual and communal mastery over the abilities required to achieve such goals (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006).

- Creating productive community relationships- each participant ought to be part of the practise of the worldwide change in transformational agenda. Part of the major methods of the leader in the transformation process is to communicate and build relationships with both internal and external stakeholders (Fulcher, 2017; Goodwin, 2016). When ascertaining significant minor partners, the partners can be characterised into four collections comprising individuals the leader reposes trust in who (i) does (ii) does not agree the transformation scheme and those the leader does not have expectations for (iv) is not in agreement with transformation scheme. The individual leading should then introduce a communiqué strategy which does the following; proposes strong and modest circumstances for the institute's agenda, transfers the knowledge prerequisites of learners, and communicates how the strategy targets education requirements and change the institutional structure, plans significances for achievement and disappointment and constantly echoes the agenda memorandum to stakeholders.

The arena of educational administration has been influenced by Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) by transforming the works of Bass and the other researcher to clarify the influence transformational leadership in the school environment (Stewart, 2006). Table 3.2 (adapted from Marks & Printy, 2003) likens the hypothetical features of models of transformational leadership proposed by Bass and Leithwood. Apart from generating

dynamic mutual interactions, Marks and Printy (2003) reveal associations between every feature of the two models of transformational leadership. An apparent flaw of Bass' model and the MLQ is that, the widespread variety of measurements and behaviours of leadership of transformation in schools may not be characterised by Bass' model and its features (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006).

Below is an appraisal of the conjectural foundations of transformational leadership projected by Bass and Avolio (1993) and Leithwood and Jantzi (2006), as adapted from Saxe (2011).

Table 3.2

Comparison of Transformational Leadership Theoretical Elements (Saxe, 2011, p. 11)

Bass & Avolio (1993)	**Leithwood & Jantzi (2006)**
Intellectual stimulation	Builds a school vision Holds high expectations for performance Provides intellectual stimulation Models desirable practices and values
Inspirational motivation	Build a school vision Develop a collaborative school culture
Idealised influence	Fosters consensus about and commitment toward group goals Creates structures to foster participation in school decisions
Individual consideration	Offers individualised support

It was recommended by Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) that for transformational leadership provisions to accomplish the objective of school transformation, educators must be inspired in diligent attitudes to counter the transformation effects. Besides inspiration, professional advancement must be offered to aid nurture the educator's aptitude to assist in making a vision of reform a dream come through. The researchers offer furthermore that teacher motivation and ability are impacted not only through transformational leadership behaviours but also through school context where educators work. The amalgamation of these constructs fuse to modify educator methods and ultimately advances success in students.

3.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 3 started with an introduction and discussion on the onset of leadership, with the theories and studies reviewed referring to contemporary and evolving perspectives of leadership. Leadership was defined and the paradigmatic perspective of the study which focused on Burns' transformational leadership theory was defined and discussed. The perspectives of leadership were presented and the various leadership types were also discussed. Some instruments used in measuring leadership were also assessed. The chapter concluded with a discussion of transformational leadership in the school setting. In the next chapter, Chapter 4, SEL and its elements are discussed.

CHAPTER 4: SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The theories underpinning social and emotional learning (SEL) will be defined and discussed in this chapter. The chapter begins by defining the theories that underpin youth development and this study. Glasser's (1965) reality therapy and choice theory will be discussed. In addition, Carl Rogers' (2007) client/student-centred theory will be discussed. Also, the social learning theory by Bandura (1977) and positive youth development which focuses on Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory will be assessed and discussed. Literature from related studies and CASEL's framework, especially CASEL (2013), will also be reviewed.

4.2 DEFINING SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING

Social and emotional learning competencies (SELC) are based on CASEL's five core elements: self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, relationship management and responsible decision-making. CASEL offers a comprehensive collection of high-quality SEL tools and resources to inform and support educators and researchers in academic fields and institutions. Self-awareness is the ability to accurately recognise one's feelings and thinking processes and the influence they have on behaviour (CASEL, 2008). It consists specifically of assessing individuals' competencies and weaknesses and possessing self-confidence and positivity. Self-management is the ability to control one's feelings, thinking abilities and behaviours positively in diverse circumstances. This involves handling stressful situations, adapting to compulsions, encouraging oneself, and setting and working toward accomplishing individual and educational objectives. Social awareness is the ability to assume the viewpoint of other individuals and commiserate with them, particularly in diverse situations and traditions. Social awareness also refers to discerning societal and moral standards for behaviour and identifying personal, educational and communal assets (CASEL, 2013).

Relationship management is the knack of starting and sustaining sound and satisfying associations with different persons. This entails interacting well, communicating

clearly, listening actively and collaborating, rejecting inappropriate peer influence, solving problems effectively and assisting others when called upon. Finally, responsible decision-making is the knack of building productive and respectful choices about individual behaviour and societal relations based on the deliberation of moral values, societal standards and the true appraisal of concerns relating to the activities and wellness of the individual and other persons (CASEL, 2013).

According to the National Research Council (2012), educators in public school districts face difficulties in preparing students for professional and individual success. Researchers have studied SEL and are of the view that SEL competencies are critical to personal and professional success (CASEL, 2013; Denham & Brown, 2010; Kendziora, Weissberg, Ji & Dusenbury, 2011; Noweski et al., 2012). There is ample literature proving that SEL competencies offer the basis for positive social interactions and contribute to reduced emotional suffering and behaviour problems (CASEL, 2013; Denham & Brown, 2010; Durlak et al., 2011; Jones & Bouffard, 2012). There have been various terms used to describe social and emotional learning competencies (SELC) some of which include allusions to 21st-century learning competencies, non-cognitive skills, interpersonal and intrapersonal competencies, and social and emotional competencies (Covay & Carbonaro, 2010; National Research Council, 2012; Wilson-Ahlstrom et al., 2014). The latter, SELC, will be the construct to be used and studied in the current study. The current study seeks to examine all three constructs in a single study with the aim of building a framework for school counsellors' EI and effective leadership, as predictors of high school students' SELC in Ghana.

4.3 PARADIGMATIC PERSPECTIVE

The theories underpinning the SEL in the study are presented below:

4.3.1 Reality therapy and choice theory

Glasser's (1965) reality therapy and choice theory is one of the early behaviourist theories that was initially established in psychology laboratories with cautiously measured experiments which looked into how persons learnt and responded to their

contexts (Blazar & Kraft, 2017). Glasser's (1965) primary context and training lay in Freudian psychoanalysis. In the long run, he excluded these ideas in preference for an approach in favour realism, responsibility and right and wrong, instead of indications of mental illnesses from the orthodox psychoanalysis, psychiatry and medical model application of psychotherapy. Psychotherapists are of the opinion that basic needs are psycho sexual in nature, whiles Glasser (1965) is of the view that individual needs are very well described in terms of positive social associations.

Reality therapy and choice theory was originated by Glasser in 1965. The reality therapy and choice theory refer to course that is people friendly and people people-centred, that does not have anything to do with individual intimidation or chastisement, but rather assists individuals to recognise the manner in which fantasy can disrupt individuals from the choices individuals make. Glasser's (1965) theory postulates that, individual's past is something that should not be focused on however it should be determined and built on to be able to live a more rewarding and satisfying life. In the efforts of psychotherapists to disclose the basis of unsuccessful psychological modification in countless inhibited, unconscious involvements, Glasser's (1965) on the other hand attempts to assist individual cope positively and well in the real world. Glasser (1965) does not accept the psychoanalytical statement that the basis of current attitudinal issues and encounters involves unconscious mental battles. In his opinion, distressing occasions suffered and gone through in previous life do not subconsciously guide conduct. Relatively, Glasser (1965) beliefs that social and psychological issues are extensions and results of terrible actions and choices taken on societal associations. Glasser (1965) aims at assisting individuals determine conducts that are unreliable and which vary from recognised societal standards, admit these behaviours as reckless and change these conducts with more communally appropriate behaviours. In Grasser's (1965) view, good mental and emotional wellness rests on giving and receiving affection, experiencing respect and being valuable to individual self and of other (Corey, 2012; Glasser, 1965).

On the other hand, Glasser (1998) choice theory reveals that individuals are self - formative organisms due to the fact that individuals choose their own behaviours and therefore are responsible for they feel, act and think and also for their functional circumstances (Blazar & Kraft, 2017). Choice theory illuminates how individuals

endeavour to regulate the world and the other individuals in it. Glasser (1998) highlighted that individuals have four elementary psychological requirements apart from striving to survive. These requirements are; (i) the initial essential requirement is to love and be loved by other individuals for an affection, (ii) the requirement of authority through education, achievement, feeling appreciated, succeeding and being proficient, (iii) the requirement for being autonomous which entails being independent and self-sufficient whiles concurrently demonstrating individual accountability, which is the necessity for engaging, pursuing gratification and (iv) recreation which is also a very significant requirement for good mental and emotional wellbeing (Corey, 2012).

One of the central philosophies of reality therapy is that whether individuals are conscious of it or not, they are continuously working at meeting these essential individual need. The individual requirements have to be well adapted and attained for a person to perform most efficiently. Nonetheless, individuals do not essentially perform efficiently to accomplish these objectives. Mixing with other individuals is an operational manner of achieving the requirement of belongingness, nonetheless how an individual decides to network with and attract kindness and affection from other individuals is frequently at the bottom of individual psychological dissatisfaction. Glasser's (1965) reality therapy emphasises a main fact, which is that individuals are in control of what they are currently undertaking in their world whether or not it is beneficial for them in attaining their fundamental psychological desire for authority, to belong, entertainment and liberty. It is a person's choice as to whether they transform for the better or the worse (Glasser, 1988; Glasser & Glasser, 2010).

Reality therapy supports the notion that the prime reason an individual is in pain and is in a state of sadness is because they lack that basic support from significant others they want to associate or bond with (Glasser, 1965). Glasser (1965) maintains that the need for love and affection is the main requirement because we need other individuals to be able to meet all the other needs; hence, in a supportive beneficial bond, the psychotherapist needs to construct an atmosphere in which the client is able to have a sense of connection to another reliable individual, that is a psychotherapist, that the client really like and would rely on as a colleague in their actual world. Again, Glasser's (1965) reality therapy holds that the central issue of psychological suffering is that some of the individual's vital requirements are not being fulfilled, thus making the

individual behave negligently. The psychotherapist then sees to this concern and sees to it that the clients accept accountability for their behaviour.

Glasser (1965) asserts that emotions are the individual's self-assessment and are an important and critical first move. Clients must be aware that adjustments have to be made and realise and admit transformation is in reality, conceivable. This points to a strategy for creating healthier measures which is the desire for effective real psychotherapy. Psychotherapists assist individuals to construct a practical strategy to achieve an objective. This should be the individual's strategy and not that of the counsellor's. Code of a feasible strategy is one in which the individual can implement the therapy and is thus centred on the element underneath the individual's control. Individuals are endeavoured to be empowered by the reality therapy by highlighting the impact of doing what is in their domain (Glasser & Glasser, 2010).

The core limitation concerning the reality therapy is that it fundamentally and completely deals with the present and people's existing difficulties. It does not take into account the "before trauma"; reality therapy's only practical ground is dealing with the "now" and future in the most likely manner, whiles recollecting the need for accepting accountability for an individual's own behaviour and the understanding, individuals are the only persons who can control themselves. In the comprehension of individual obligation, an individual is given great independence and satisfaction. Opponents criticise Glasser's (1965) idea that, individuals choose the behaviours that bother them by selecting protracted depressing thought processes and selecting intense psychosis. This is definitely not the case, because more often than not, individuals are besieged with problems, they do not choose those problems. Glasser (1965) opposes that besides particular brain pathology, mental illnesses are consequences of unproductive current associations or sadness.

There is no doubt that Glasser's 1965 reality therapy and choice theory were an improvement on psychoanalysis theory by debunking the notion that an individual's problems were solely from their past experiences and also based on symptoms of mental disorders which is the typical psychiatry, psychoanalysis and medical model of psychotherapy. Reality therapy and choice theory are proposed as dwelling on realism, responsibility and right or wrong, thus focusing on the present and the future. Much as Glasser's (1965) theory gives individuals the choice to be responsible by

choosing the right behaviour and focusing on the current problems, it however emphasises too much on present and future problems and totally neglects past problems (Corey, 2012).

Also, much as Glasser (1965) concentrated on individuals being responsible for choices in their lives, it is always not the case, as some problems are not caused or chosen by the individuals but befall them. These notwithstanding, to the extent that it was an improvement on psychoanalysis and focuses on realism, responsibility and right-or-wrong (Corey, 2012), it will lend support to the current study especially in relation to school counsellors and students.

4.3.2 Student-centred or person-centred theory

Person-centred or child-centred theory is the third main theoretical foundation in counselling. It is an exclusively American method developed by Carl Rogers in 1957. Rogers' (1957) theory, also referred to as "person-or-child centred" or "student-centred" method, is one that does not lend support to the earlier counselling theories (reality therapy and choice theory) and holds that a counsellor is going to fix a problem the student or learner is experiencing. Rogers (1957) originally studied theology and later offered clinical and educational psychology at Teachers' college of Columbia thereby venturing into clinical practice. Rogers' (1957) skill of connecting features together gave perspective to his advanced accomplishments. Rogers' (1957) student/ person centred theory was founded on the works of Dewey, theorising from involvement, the idea of individuals as in entirety and the confidence in the potential of individual behaviour. Rogers (1957) competently connected these ideas with therapeutic considerations and the confidence, gained from his training that the client is generally more aware of how to advance than the psychotherapist. The method is one that assists the learner to better comprehend their own thoughts and finds a purpose within. As opposed to the initial counselling methods, person psychotherapy is established on the philosophies of behaviours centred on the principal perspectives of empathy, congruence and unconditional positive regard which the counsellor only conveys to their liaison (Rowe, 2017).

The person-centred methodology is not interested in discovering the reasons for the difficulties of discovering the best likely resolution, but instead is interested in the client

accepting the connection with the psychotherapist certified to take control over their personal therapy. Restoration is thereby perceived as a thing that needs to be initiated by the individual and not by specialised procedure offered by the collaborator. The therapist is merely a constructive confidant in the practice. The person centred therapy for that matter does not assume any definite procedures that are followed in all sessions; each therapist employs what is most suitable to the occasion at hand (Rogers, 1957; Rowe, 2017).

4.3.2.1 Core conditions of the theory

- *Empathy*

One of the major significant essential conditions of Roger's (1957) theory is empathy. Even though congruence and unconditional positive regard sometimes assume a vital point, empathy seems essential to psychotherapy (Rogers, 1957). Empathy is primarily the endeavour by the therapist to assume the context of the client and actually come to know it (Rogers, 1957). The therapist therefore in a sense assumes the position of the client. This theory states that the sense of the clients' private world is as if it were your own, but without losing the as if quality (Rogers, 1957, p. 99). It is not that easy to become aware of another individual's view of reality, which is the most difficult aspect of the counsellor. This becomes challenging particularly when an individual still wants to retain their individual realism. Accurate empathetic considerate improvement can take a while to accomplish. The therapist must endeavour to relax in their own personality to be able to exhibit empathy. Therefore, it is imperative for the therapists to stick to their individual uniqueness because this will be vital in building the desired improvement in the individual's identity. A necessary state for empathy is that, it needs to be specific and it should be communicated to the individual. The abilities can be learnt they must be identified to change the prevailing relationship between a client and the therapist significantly (Rogers, 1957).

- *Congruence*

Congruence, often termed genuineness, is a principle of being clear, factual and frank in a facilitating relationship. Essentially, the therapist must be sincere about the way

they feel and let the client be conscious of it, rather than show proficiency and keep the emotion to themselves (Campbell, 2018; Rogers, 1957). It is the exposure of one's practice completely and also promising that the client is conscious of it and would profit from it. Counsellors must for that matter be sincere with their emotions as much as possible, be open and do not try to be too rigid in their rapport. The counselling session will be ineffective if the counsellor exhibits the same emotions just like the client and behaves in another manner. The counsellor should at no time act but must be honest since it boosts the client's morale. For that matter, the clients' prospects increases and they become ready for self-assessments. Nonetheless, congruence does not propose that the counsellor totally negates their own emotional state, merely that he or she is ready to expose revealing their emotions as soon as they can advance the liaison due to the fact that they have communicated sincerely (Rogers, 1962).

Being genuine does not warrant revealing negative emotions to the individual in the counselling process. Therefore, it would not be appropriate for counsellors to reveal emotions that the feel at any point of the session, as this can be unfavourable to the clients. Congruence is shown by experts at the most alarming among the main circumstances specifically the experts who may be conversant to well-rehearsed methods and accordingly feel awkward in acting in such a frank and truthful manner with clients. Congruence cannot be learnt through study (Rogers, 1957). It is vital to accept that an individual will strive to function with honesty to the degree that there will be a confrontation between the principles they hold and the standards that determine the methodology.

- *Unconditional positive regard*

Unconditional positive regard is a not a judgemental recognition method. It is the capability of interacting in the profound and honest belief in the individual as a client. The perception is that, the individual feels recognised in a compassionate manner which is not intimidating. There is no explanation of the individual's emotions, opinions and action in any way, good or bad. Although it is not simply likely to foster regard, it is nonetheless possible to empathise with the client, visualise that they have the capability to organise their individual lives and act appropriately towards the individuals. This demonstrates confidence in individuals' competence and inclination to actualise (Tudor, Keith, Valentine & Worrall, 2004). Counsellors connect through

their actions when they assess clients as they are and for that reason clients can feel free to communicate emotions without conceding the absence of the counsellor's approval. The counsellor will approve and admire the individual without regard to personal, religious, ethnic, sexual or political experiences.

An advantage of the person-centred approach is that there are no conditions attached. For that matter, a counsellor under normal circumstances should accord the client respect which permits individuals to be their natural selves and overcome the temptation of condemning their conduct or letting them know in a nice manner of resolving their issues. What is needed is regard and not verdict notwithstanding how terrible the action is, for that matter, extricating the individual from the "supposed" terrible behaviour. Also, the respect or regard is not a situation for an adequate action and so it is an endorsement of an unacceptable conduct. For that matter, deciding on what an individual does and who they turn out to be, probably reveals cordiality as well as offering limitations and asserting diverse feelings and desires. The main circumstances indicated above of empathy, congruence and unconditional positive regard are significant assets that most individuals would yearn to have from other individuals.

On the other hand, the counsellor is in a challenging situation because they are not meant to pursue a client in accomplishing exact objectives, while at the same time they are obviously and keenly directing the client in contact with their client's usual self and preventing them from external establishments. For this reason, the person-centred approach is not an unbiased process, as it is portrayed to be. One can reasonably say that Roger's client-centred, person-centred theory is an improvement on the major theories on account of its openness and inclusion of the client in the therapy or problem-solving process (Rowe, 2017). The method is unique in assisting the student to comprehend their own thoughts and finds resolve within (Kirchenbaum, 2004; Rowe, 2017. This again is a vast improvement on the other therapeutic approaches in that it gives the client the opportunity to "own" the therapy or counselling session, hence having the liberty to be at ease and therefore volunteer information in helping solve their problems (Rogers, 1957).

To the extent that the person-centred or student-centred approach to counselling allows student the opportunity to be in charge of the counselling session, this approach

will lend support to the student's SEL of the current research. It would do so especially because student SEL encompasses total student wellbeing including career choices, inter personal relationships and how to interact and get ready for the world out there (Jones, Bailey, Brush & Kahn, 2017). All this SEL output coupled with the main settings; empathy, congruence and unconditional positive regard, will to a large extent lend support to the current study. Alternatively, to the extent that the student-centred theory was criticised on the grounds that the helper, thus the counsellor, does not play a leading role but only listens to the student, the theory would not completely underpin the study (Campbell, 2018). It will however lend support but will not form a major theory in the current study. Social learning theory lends support to the current study and is discussed in the next session.

4.3.3 Social learning theory

The social learning theory was originated by Albert Bandura. Bandura (1977) postulated that, behaviour is learned from the environment through the practise of observational learning. Bandura (1977) supposed that behaviourism alone could not explain all there is about learning. Bandura (1977) was of the opinion that behaviour and the environment influenced each other. The changes Bandura witnessed in a child's behaviour after seeing a grownup display violence led him to his social learning theory. Bandura (1977) believed we could regulate our own behaviour through self-regulation. Self-regulation affords individuals to regulate themselves, make decisions about the environment and themselves and respond to themselves.

Individuals influence and are also influenced by the environment around them. Bandura's Social learning theory also referred to as observational learning occurs when an individual's behaviour changes after watching the behaviour of another person which is referred to as a model. An individual's behaviour can be influenced by the positive or negative exhibition of behaviour portrayed. Nabavi (2014) posits that, the social learning theory is based on the notion that individuals learn from their interactions with other individuals in a social setting. Individually, by observing the behaviours of other individuals, individuals acquire related behaviours. After watching the behaviours of other individuals, people embrace and imitate those behaviours

especially if the individual's observational experiences are positive behaviours or include rewards linked to the observed behaviour.

Lou (2013) pronounced that Bandura (1977) offered the concept of social cognitive theory. A common argument is that much of the development in human cognition is defined by the interaction of internal personal features in the form of affective, cognitive and behavioural circumstances such as behaviour and environmental occurrences. Nabavi (2014) posits that, Bandura (1961) led his renowned experiment known as the Bobo doll experiment to research into behaviour, by social learning theory, and that of comparable behaviours were learned by people influencing their own behaviour after the behaviours of those modelled.

Bandura's (1961) findings from the Bobo Doll experiment transformed the sequence of modern psychology and were extensively recognised for assisting change the focus in academic psychology from behaviourism to cognitive. Bandura (1961) proved that, children learn and mimic behaviours which they observed in other individuals. The features of Bandura's (1977) social learning theory are presented below;

4.3.3.1 Observational learning

Bandura (1977) established in his famous Bobo doll experiment that, children learn and mimic behaviours they have observed in other individuals. The children in Bandura's (1977) research watched a person act violently toward a Bobo doll. Later, the children were allowed to play in a room with the Bobo doll, it was noticed that, the children started to mimic the aggressive behaviour they had previously watched (Lou, 2013).

4.3.3.2 Imitation process

Bandura's (1977) imitation process involves the ability to replicate or repeat a behaviour or an act. The children who watches a type of action or behaviour over and over again is expected at a point to be able to replicate and reproduce the watched behaviour (Lou, 2013).

4.3.3.3 Modelling process

The modelling process of Bandura's (1977) social learning theory involves; attention, retention, reproduction and motivation. It is necessary to note that all observed behaviours are effectively learned. For the modelling process to be successful, the model and the observer must follow the modelling process;

- Attention: the individual must primarily pay attention to the model; the person being modelled.
- Retention: the individual observing must be able to recall the behaviour that has been observed.
- Reproduction: the individual modelling must be able to replicate the action or behaviour that has been demonstrated.
- Motivation: for modelling to occur, the learners must be motivated and be prepared to demonstrate what they have learned (O'Rorke, 2006).

Banyard and Grayson (2000) thought that direct reinforcement could not justify all kinds of learning and that individuals can learn new information and behaviours by seeing other individuals. The social learning theory concentrates mainly on observational learning therefore does not solely lend support to the current study. However, to the extent that, it is based on social learning and postulates that individuals learn from interactions with others from their environment (Nabavi, 2014), it will go an extent to lend support to the construct social emotional learning in the current study. The ecological systems theory to a large extent underpins the current study and is discussed in detail in the next session below:

4.3.4 Ecological systems theory

Bronfenbrenner (1979) originated the ecological systems theory which is also known as the development in context human ecology theory. The Ecological systems theory is based on youth development and recognises the environmental systems with which individuals cooperate. Bronfenbrenner (1979) established a systems theory that portrays the connections and associations of individuals in a multiplicity of situations and perspectives. These settings comprise the microsystem (the immediate surroundings engaged by persons), the mesosystem (associations between several

microsystems), the exosystem (communal circumstances the individual does not engage in but which affect the individual), the macrosystem (the influence of events or developments in an individuals' existence) and the chronosystem (the planning of actions and developments and socio-historical events that the individual is predisposed to over the decades).

Bronfenbrenner's (1979) assertion on the importance of roles, events and associations of individuals within these circumstances offer a valuable possibility for discovering how individuals make sense of their circumstances and how their consideration transmutes into action. Bronfenbrenner (1979) postulates that the circumstances and practices of youth, for example school, constitutes their progress regarding school experiences which are connected to positive youth development including the potential for advancement and competency construction (Fulcher, 2017). Catalano et al. (2004) posit that helpful persons and cohorts assist in modelling learners, thereby initiating their consistency and wellbeing. Figure 4.1 below illustrates Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecology systems theory, with its emphasis on youth development.

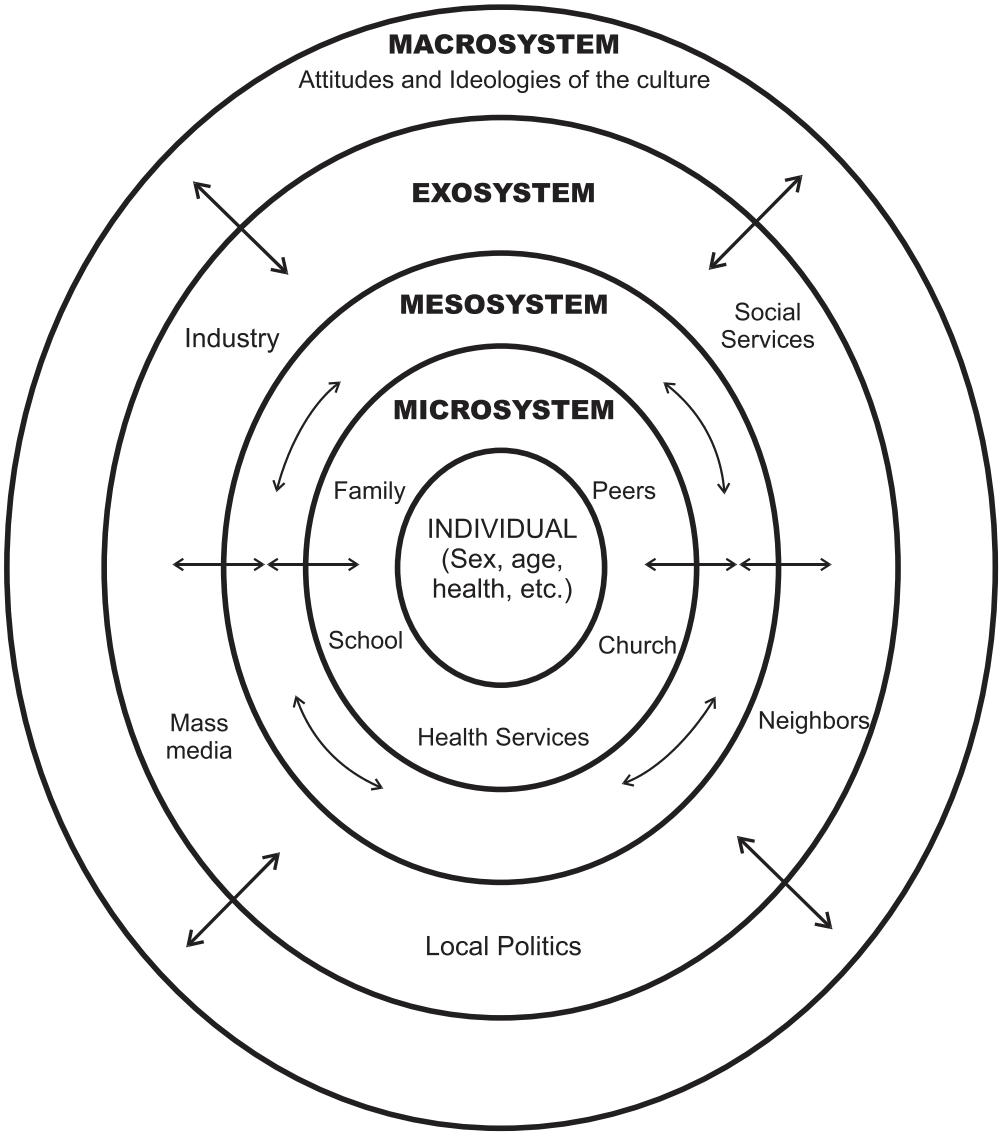

Figure 4.1*: Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory* (Trummer, 2017, p.7)

The details of *Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory*, with an emphasis on the youth development, are presented below:

4.3.4.1 Microsystem

The microsystem denotes the organisations and associations that most immediately and openly impact on the youth's development which comprise family, school and religious establishments, neighbourhood and cohorts. The microsystem involves conditions that are openly felt by persons and comprises circumstances such as the household, institute or work. Adolescents who live in low socioeconomic

circumstances reside in microsystems that have typical individual characteristics, events, persons and associations (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) and these usually differ from those engaged by youths from other socioeconomic settings. A lack of assets restricts the youth's educational opportunities, which may limit opportunities in maturity. The youth may also have inadequate interaction with a learned or accomplished mature protagonist which can lead to commercial difficulty that can trickle down to the subsequent generation. The school context offers a primary situation for the construction, communication and improvement of several practices of traditional and communal venture. Youths who are gifted with educational and communal investments primarily in life, such as regard for the value of schooling and productiveness or a system of robust societal ties, are more likely to succeed in the schooling system (Tengey, 2015, 2016; Tengey & Ganu, 2015).

Relatives can perform vital roles in the awareness of potential, irrespective of socioeconomic standing (Olszewski-Kubilius, 2008). Remarkably, a family's generational past can impact the degree to which the family is able to assist with ability advancement (Olszewski-Kubilius, 2008). Adolescents who grow up in low income families do not have the means or monetary assets that their upper socioeconomic colleagues may have. There may be sides of family life that impact the extent to which parents are able to deliberate on the skill development of their teenagers. Where parents from low socioeconomic relations are able to devote time to their children, situations may be less stimulating and inspiring compared to wealthier colleagues (Evans, 2004). Parents who are under monetary strain may experience many challenges and less support from their relations (Evans, 2004). This pressure has been established to influence nurturing styles and low income families have often been related to stricter, punitive and supervisory styles of nurturing (Evans, 2004).

Educators infer the variances that are often perceived in teenagers as deficits and for that matter, many socially and economically deprived learners are branded "at-risk". This can result in these teenagers focusing on their inadequacies and flaws rather than their assets.

The factors functioning within the person-environment system comprise biological, psychological and social factors, which all change with time (Gottlieb, 1991; Jones et al., 2017).

Sternberg (2007) suggests that an effective evolution will see the person discovering an equilibrium between alterations and modelling or changing oneself as well as their atmosphere. Sternberg (2007) mentions this as ‘practical intelligence’ or ‘street smarts’, where persons discover an additional ultimate fit between themselves and the difficulties of the surroundings they are in. Nonetheless, when persons find it impossible to achieve a perfect fit, they may select a new environment completely. Ambrose (2002) proposes that ‘street smarts’ can include refined thoughts expected of experts and that proficient adolescents in underprivileged surroundings mostly communicate their capabilities by way of street survival activities such as gang membership and activities. In these circumstances, the practice of intelligence that is appreciated in one situation is underrated in another, as practical EI or street smarts are mostly not acknowledged or valued in the school environment.

4.3.4.2 Mesosystem

While the microsystem denotes the immediate institutions and groups that directly impact the youth’s development, the mesosystem is the interconnections between the microsystem which are the associations between the family and educators, the relationship between the adolescent’s peers and their families. The mesosystem in Bronfenbrenner’s (1979) ecological model defines the associations between immediate environments. It integrates the relationship between two or more microsystems and the similarities and differences that transpire between these conditions. For instance, youths who are economically underprivileged are most likely to reside in low income communities and associate with friends from comparable circumstances. Their introduction to principles and value schemes that are supposed to be acknowledged inside these situations describe the type of their ethnic and communal assets. As described previously, principles, morals and conduct that come from immediate contexts may not be appreciated in other settings.

People tend to behave in diverse circumstances and around diverse persons based on what conduct they identify a necessary in every setting (Harris, 1999). Thus, an enabling school environment for the youth will provide necessary room for them to develop SALC. Conflicting messages from colleagues and school may help to block the growth of an adolescent’s ability and capability. Conversely, circumstances for

improving skills can be explored with parents', colleagues' and school climate support (Tengey, 2016, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). Continuous interchanges from one situation to another lead to conflicting communications regarding behaviour in every situation and this can lead to misunderstandings in individual and team differences. Behaviours that are seen as optimistic in one situation may increase destructive reactions in another and the clarification of these reactions form additional behaviours. Undesirable previous involvements at college may have resulted in parents increasingly engrained views concerning the importance of schooling. In addition to being accepted by their children, these views can result in the unwillingness of parents to become involved with a structure that at some time may have failed them (CASEL, 2008).

Relationships are approached by parents in schools with their own sets of societal capital and these are often associated with social class. Institutions anticipate specific types of behaviour from parents, irrespective of class. Parents from lower classes are not always capable of meeting these expectations or may not share the same objectives (CASEL, 2013). Institutions have a responsibility to recognise and support teenagers who may be experiencing difficulties owing to the environments they inhabit (Saxe, 2011; Tengey, 2016; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). As mentioned previously, features such as scheduling, distance, period and perseverance of poverty all add to the educational outcomes (Burney & Beilke, 2008). The difficulties that some of these adolescents have may result from the adaptive and situational abilities they have established in their home and public settings which are not abilities that are appreciated in school (Sternberg, 2007). Gonzalez and Moll (2002) are of the opinion that learning is a social practice that is affected by advanced conceptual structures, which influence learners' lives. These scholars propose that what is seen or noticed is highlighted by our own interests and attachments and these have advanced our information scheme. Some studies on underachievers submit that these youngsters frequently display low self-esteem (Reis & McCoach, 2000).

4.3.4.3 Exosystem

The exosystem encompasses associations between social situations that do not play a dynamic part in the person's immediate context. For instance, a person's

involvement at home may be exposed to another person's involvements at work. A parent may attain a promotion that warrants more travel, which may result in conflict with the partner and change inclinations of contact with the youth (Subotnik, 2003). According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), the exosystem affects individuals, but they do not directly participate in it. An additional example within the exosystem comprises local influences that unintentionally influence the person. State sectors, such as Ghana Education Service, are also other examples of an environment within the exosystem. Choices made about learning packages by the state departments can disrupt the lives of the senior high students when they trickle down to the college unit. Pertaining to youths from low socioeconomic contexts, the exosystem can exert its impact by limiting chances (Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015).

Jencks and Mayer (1990) recognise five conjectural outlines for linking individual conduct, educational outcomes and wellbeing with district effects. The first of these, district institutional models, suggest that strong growth is motivated by the incidence of and admission to assets within the public space, such as libraries, community services and parks. In addition, communal socialisation models assume that public societal establishment in the form of individual models, management, structures and practices influence youth outcomes. Also, the contagion model proposes that the negative conduct of colleagues and neighbours spreads within society. On the other hand, competition models suggest that neighbours compete for public capital that may be scarce. Lastly, relative deprivation models suggest that individuals assess themselves and their circumstances comparatively to their neighbours or colleagues.

Leventhal and Brooks-Gunn (2000) posit that there are three vital instruments through which persons are feasibly impacted by their communities. To begin with, official properties integrate the accessibility, affordability and availability of capital such as accomplishments, learning and health facilities and occupational prospects existing in the society. This capital can be a basis of learning incentive or encourage physical and mental health and socio-emotional welfare (Fauth, Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2007). Associations comprise features such as support nets, parent features, conduct and supremacy of the family setting. Social collaborations and supplies accessible within the vicinity can function to ease parental pressure and ultimately stimulate youth outcomes (Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). Principles or collective efficacy

denotes the degree of social establishment and knowledge within a society, as well as the incidence of physical risk. Collective efficacy is imperative for constructing social capital and establishing social control that can decrease the impact of organisational difficulty and misconduct (Bandura, 1982; Fauth et al., 2007). Therefore, pressures experienced by parents who may be occupied for long hours at work may have an unforeseen effect on their teenagers.

4.3.4.4 Macrosystem

The macrosystem impacts the relationships in all the other echelons of the ecological model. It covers social organisation, belief systems and philosophies that inspire specific traditions and subgroups. The macrosystem also incorporates the influence of events over the course of a person's existence (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Sapon-Shevin (2003) asserts that the definition of macrosystem is centred on features such as beliefs about teenagers, values, intelligence, learning and sociocultural situations. National perspectives comprise evolving and industrialising nations, social and economic eminence, ethnicity and poverty. Youth, their parents or school and their parent's work all form the larger cultural setting. Individuals in a traditional group share a common identity, culture and principles (Machebe, Ezegbe & Onuoha, 2017).

Characteristics that predominantly resonate in this level of Bronfenbrenner's model comprise capital, opportunity, appointments and life progression choices that are embedded in a specific philosophy within a certain period. In line with the current study, these facets may be viewed as those that form the larger setting in which students are able to advance their social and emotional competencies. The macrosystem also supports the communicative thoughts and social outlooks that form social class, prospects and encounters associated with the social and economic state. The macrosystem progresses with time because every succeeding cohort evolves in the macrosystem, resulting in the advancement in an exceptional macrosystem (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2010).

Santrock (2007) presents the chronosystem as part of ecological system theory, stating that Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model characterises the modelling of events and changes that transpire over the sequence of a person's life. It is also the socio-

historical happenings that influence people. Events that may have occurred the period in which the person is alive can cause considerable distress and result in how they live. For instance, divorces are transitions. Scholars have established that the undesirable influence of divorce on the youth frequently reaches the highest point in the preceding year after the divorce. After about two years into the divorce, family communication is less frenzies and steadier. An example of a socio-historical situation is the rise in prospects for females to chart a career during the past three decades. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) theory offers one of the introductory essentials of the ecological counselling view, as championed by Robert K. Conyne, Ellen Cook and the University of Cincinnati Counselling Program.

4.4 DEVELOPMENTAL ASSETS FRAMEWORK

Developmental assets is a positive youth development method that counsellors can employ to construct and execute diverse responsibilities to help build adolescents' assets (ASCA, 2003; NMSA, 2003). Researchers have revealed that diverse positive personal and ecological elements, variously referred to as capitals, potentials, defensive features, developmental indicators or assets, are related to the youth's accomplishment in school and in other spheres of life (Durlak et al., 2011; Fulcher, 2017; Sinek, 2014; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). All-encompassing systematic scientific literature covering scores of research studies over the past quarter of a century has established that some assets have been detected to relate or add any of the three applicable developmental outcomes for adolescents (Scales & Leffert, 2004) and pre-adolescents (Scales, Sesma & Bolstrom, 2004). These developmental outcomes are (i) preventing high behaviours, (ii) promoting thriving and (iii) strengthening resilience. Secondary school counsellors can openly and ultimately impact majority of the developmental assets. Some colleges have even employed the developmental assets plan to outline individual engagement criteria for counsellors in schools (Stark, Scales & Roberts, 1999).

Unfortunately, adolescents assert they practise lesser of these assets as they increase in age, with the drop severest in the middle school period. For instance, a huge total, cross-sectional sample approximating 217, 000 college pupils in Grades six to twelve in about 300 US societies disclose that the usual number of assets progressively decreases from 23.1 in sixth grade to 19.6 in eight grade with an extra decrease and flattening at about 18 through high school (Developmental Assets, 2001). In a smaller longitudinal study, these cross-sectional findings have also been recorded indicating a school of 370 students was monitored from when they were in sixth to eighth grades to when they got to tenth to twelfth grades. With time, the average aggregate number of assets dropped sharply for both boys and girls throughout secondary school, from 25.0 in grade six to 19.6 in grade nine for girls and from 22.2 in grade six to 17.2 in grade nine for the boys. Internal assets dropped out in ninth/tenth grades, then started a minor recovery, but external assets, those relatives, schools and communities could directly cater for kept diminishing until grade 11 (Roehlkepartain, Benson & Sesma, 2003).

The decline is not unavoidable however. School counsellors are in an exceptional situation to assist such tendencies and form these assets. For instance, Lapan, Gysbers and Petrowski (2003) researched about 22,000 grade seven students in approximately 180 schools in Missouri. It was revealed that learners in schools which further completely executed school counselling programmes had a sense of safety in school and had healthier interactions with their instructors, a superior feeling of the importance of schooling for their future and an optimistic feeling in school environment. In addition, they scored higher grades. These influences believed in irrespective of the institution’s degree of poverty. Counsellors spent more time in the teaching space in more completely applied counselling programmes, assisted learners with individual improvement as well as educational and career problems, providing extra discrete and team counselling and linked themselves and school children frequently with parents, school educators and public assets. Holistically, counsellors reinforced school students’ complete improvement and pursued to methodically affect the various perspectives of students’ lives.

4.5 SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING

SEL is the manner in which people become socially and emotionally intelligent. Social intelligence is the knack of understanding and dealing with individuals and acting thoughtfully in social relation. This description is associated to Edward Thorndike in 1920 and the idea was advanced into interpersonal intelligence by Howard Gardner in his multiple intelligences book in 1983 (Durlak et al., 2011; Rogers, 2015; Tengey, 2015). Children develop EI through SEL and they obtain and handle emotions, take care of themselves and other children, they make moral and responsible decisions and cultivate positive associations with colleagues and grownups (Fulcher, 2017; Sinek.2014; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). Zins, Bloodworth, Weissberg and Walber (2007, p. 194) define SEL as “the process through which children enhance their ability to integrate thinking, feeling and behaving to achieve important life tasks”. The Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning (CASEL) classifies SEL into five competency capacities which are (1) Self-awareness, (ii) Self-management, (iii) Social awareness, (iv) Relationship- management and Responsible decision making. These are elementary to allocating school, work and life tasks effectively (CASEL, 2013). Below is a diagram illustrating the five competencies of SEL as theorised by CASEL (2017):

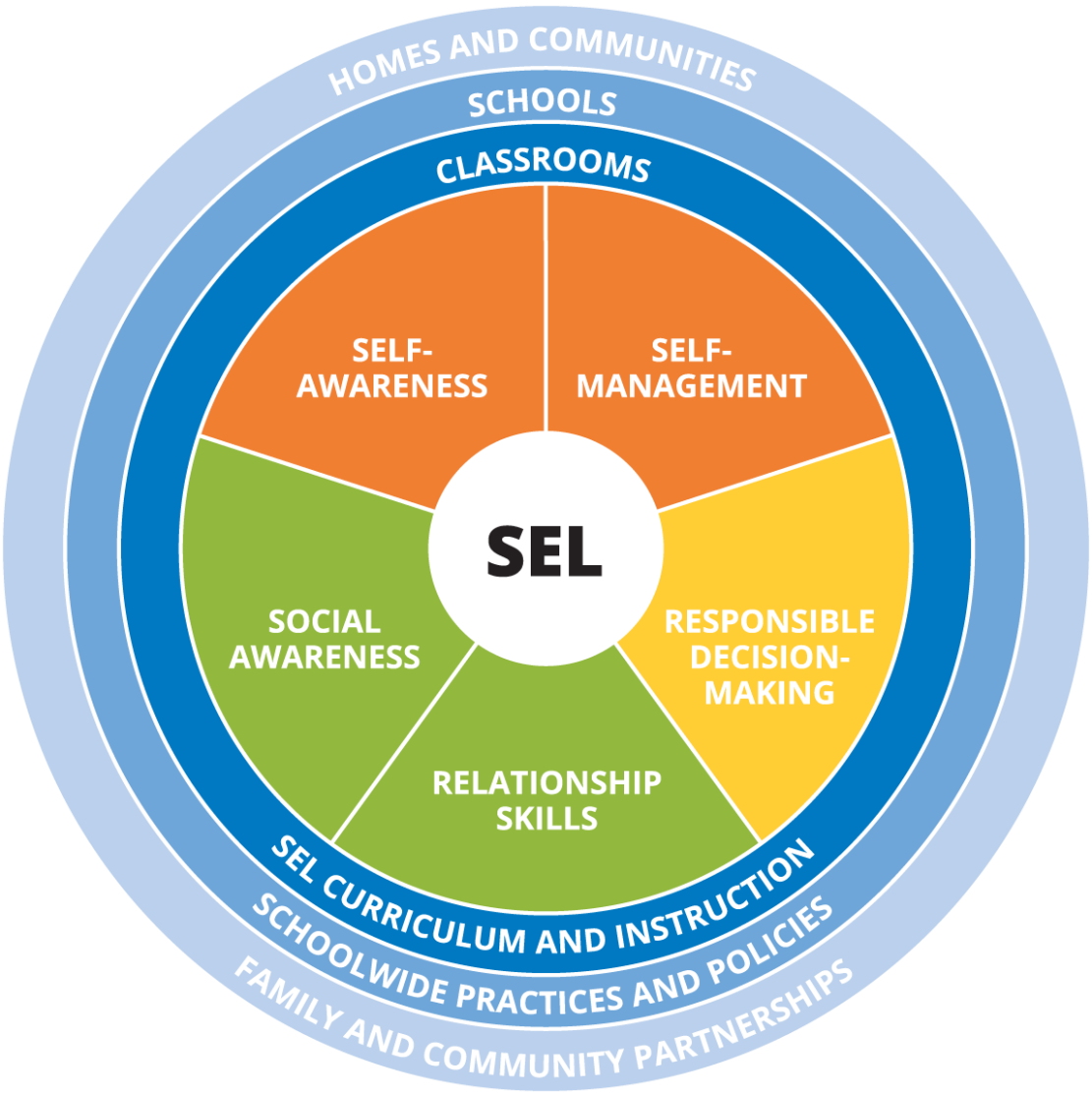

Figure 4.2: *Social and Emotional Learning Competencies* (CASEL, 2017, p.1)

Self-awareness is the ability to specifically identify an individuals' emotions and thoughts and their influence on conduct. Self-management refers to the skill to control an individual's sentiments, opinions and actions positively in diverse circumstances. Social awareness is the aptitude assume the viewpoint of others and empathise with them, especially those from different upbringings and societies. Social awareness is also the ability to comprehend social and moral norms for conduct and to recognise family, school and public assets.

Relationship management relates to the skill to begin and sustain strong and fulfilling associations with diverse persons and sets. Responsible decision making is the capability to make positive and reverential selections about individual actions and social connections centred on the contemplation of moral principles and other various actions one's self and of others. These five competencies (SEL) are to be taught and inculcated in classrooms as part of the school curriculum and instruction and the school-wide practices and policies. Families, homes and communities are also critical in building up these competencies in the youth. They should therefore act in partnerships with educators to ensure that these competencies are well established in students (CASEL, 2017).

Zins, Bloodworth, Weissberg and Walber (2007) have offered a developmental outlook for every skill cluster centred on the level of grade the students are in. An example is, self-awareness entails identifying basic emotions for primary school children, analysing features that hasten their emotions from secondary school students and recognising how the manifestation of emotions upsets other students in high schools (Durlak et al., 2011; Fulcher, 2017; Sinek, 2014; Tengey 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). Three benchmarks exists for effective SEL programming which are: (i) formal and informal training in social and emotional skills all through the school involvement, (ii) a safe school environment that embraces social and emotional development and (iii) stakeholders (educationalists, parents and public heads) who are enthusiastically involved in SEL (Zins et al. 2007).

4.5.1 Related studies on demographics of students in social and emotional learning

According to Domitrovich, Durlak, Staley and Weissberg (2017), schools are focal spots for the advancement of students' well-being and are by their nature a major developing setting in which many fears and worries arise and can be successfully taken care off. Hence, along with knowledge and academic skills, the schooling systems are progressively stimulated to provide clear support to aid in developing student's social-emotional competence (Farrington et al., 2012). In their study, Chevalier, Harmon, O'Sullivan and Walker (2013) state that in terms of parental education, maternal education is mostly superior to paternal education because

mothers are more likely to be the main guardians within the family unit. Socioeconomic standing like parental level of education, profession, level of income and standard of living are connected to students' performance and achievement, for that matter students from middle to upper class homes accomplish more and do better than students from less advantaged contexts. Machebe et al. (2017) are of the opinion that it is imperative that educated people impart their knowledge to their youngsters in order to transform their knowledge into exceptional performance.

Blair and Raver (2015) assert that from a developmental view, social-emotional competence prepares the stage for commitment in acquiring new knowledge and modification of social undertakings requirements in the learning space. In so doing, it drives students' emotions of school connectedness due to the essential effect it has on their associations with their educators and colleagues. Lending practical support to this suggestion, a current meta-analysis revealed that social-emotional competencies are substantial exposers of school connectedness in senior high school students (Allen, Vella-Brodrick & Waters, 2017). Panayiotou, Humphrey and Wigelsworth (2019), conjectured that students who enrol into schools with deprived social and emotional competencies are most likely to have problems with their educators, be excluded by their and for that matter are at greater risk of educational and social detachment that may pave the way for challenging advancements in later development phases and adulthood (Panayiotou, Humphrey & Wigelsworth, 2019).

Panayiotou, Humphrey and Wigelsworth (2019) in their research offered an integrative model obtained from SEL, employing a three wave longitudinal sample of 1625. Of the sample, 832 or 51% were boys. The students were between the ages of nine and 12 and were enrolled in 45 elementary schools in the United Kingdom. They were drawn from a chief randomised experimental widespread SEL involvement; promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS). Employing structural equation modelling (SEM) that provided the within time covariance, data assembling, gender and preceding educational accomplishment, they observed the sequential associations between social emotional competence (T1), school connectedness (T2) mental health challenges and academic attainment (T3) . Panayiotou et al. (2019) hypothesised that social emotional competence would instantaneously and not suddenly influence

academic achievement by way of school connectedness and mental health problems. The hypothesised framework was somewhat supported.

Social and emotional competence has a positive influence on school connectedness and mental health issues. Nonetheless, mental health issues was the only significant predictor and mediator of academic attainment, as gender and previous academic performance were controlled. Students with higher social emotional competence scores were described to have lesser mental health issues and this therefore projected higher academic achievement. Equally, the results indicate some possible reviews to the prevailing understanding concerning the role of social emotional competence in encouraging academic achievement, as its input seems to lie mainly in protecting the antagonistic effects of mental health issues (Panayiotou et al., 2019).

Tengey (2016) in an empirical study examining students' SELC in the Ashanti and Greater Accra regions of Ghana established that girl students performed better by scoring higher on the SELC than the male counterparts. The study constituted 130 students of which 80 were from Kumasi metro schools in the Ashanti region and 50 from Accra metro schools in the Greater Accra region. The study laid emphasis on the concept of SEL as instituted for the positive youth development, which supports the addressing of adolescence's needs by constructing experiences that foster results that meet the requirements of school accomplishment, consistently compassionate associations with grownups and colleagues, problem solving and civic engagement just to mention a few. Considerable emphasis has been placed on student's success, i.e. passing in examinations and ignoring other important significant aspects of student's life which are obtaining abilities in problem solving and creating associations, among others, which when developed accrue to students' overall achievement (Tengey, 2016; Tengey & Ganu, 2015).

4.5.2 Importance of SEL programming in schools

Cultivating student social/personal growth is very essential in school counselling. School counsellors are aware that real learning need to be extended further than instructing academics to schooling social and emotional competences, comprising stimulating nonviolent and safe attitudes (Tengey, 2015: Tengey & Ganu, 2015). A student who is socially and emotionally intelligent is unlikely to cultivate depressive,

aggressive and /or violent behaviours (Durlak et al., 2011; Fulcher, 2017; Roger, 2015). Moreover, youngsters who cultivate their social and emotional competences are most resilient to matters like teenage pregnancies, gangs and teen pregnancy (Elias et al., 1997; Tengey, 2015). A meta-analysis conducted on seven hundred researches of involvements to encourage the social and emotional advancement of adolescents, the investigators established numerous prosperities for children, comprising enhanced individual and social abilities and lessened problematic attitudes (CASEL, 2008a; 2013).

Generally, the aim in encouraging social and emotional growth through SEL programming is just not to inspire personal accomplishment but to also encourage pro-social attitudes that promotes the psychological wellbeing of students, the school and the community as a whole. Whereas school counsellors are aware of social and emotional advancement for students, counsellors have to pass on that important information to the essential stakeholders (parents, educators). School counsellors should propagate concrete advocacy for the impact of social and emotional skills in learner accomplishment and profession advancement if they wish to promote SEL programming (Tengey, 2016). This calls for the advocacy in the SEL programme and is laid in the next section.

4.5.3 Advocacy for social and emotional learning programming

Though advocacy for SEL programming may be understood in very different ways, it may not be so because what exists is the emphasis on academic achievement and learning to the degree that other parts of student life (EI) is ignored (Rogers, 2015). Instead, it is the desertion of SEL that causes difficulties for students. Learners are not able to make informed choices about career development and interpersonal relationships. Also, those who panic that SEL programmes will take over parents' duties in teaching social and emotional competencies do not have it all right. Adolescents spend most of their adolescent ages in school and so counsellors and instructors must see to their total development (Tengey, 2015). It is obvious that empirical research on SEL is scarce. It is in this vein that researchers call for empirical research in SEL (Fulcher, 2017; Sinek, 2014; Tengey, 2016).

One of the best ways school counsellors can organise themselves is to promote SEL programming and to recognise the precise fears of their shareholders and get diligently conversant with the study literature on SEL. Elias, Bruene-Butler, Blum, and Schuyler (1997,2000) found evidence from ethnographic location official visit schools to propose guidance on solving shareholder issues about SEL programming. Various contemporary journal articles and books (Elias & Arnold, 2006; Fulcher, 2017; Sinek, 2014; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015; Roger, 2016) provide brilliant information. Being aware of the research will give counsellors the opportunity to allay stakeholder doubts and debate in support of SEL as an essential aspect of learner educational improvement. In promoting SEL programming, the school counsellor is promoting improving the school accomplishment of all learners (Tengey, 2015). Since stakeholders are concerned about advocacy, collaboration with stakeholders is presented in the next section.

4.5.4 Collaboration with some stakeholders

Complete SEL programme must positively be targeted at all students and meet the demands of the precise school and populace it helps. This undertaking needs cooperation with the persons involved, i.e. teachers, parents, administrators, students amongst others, by initially having to know their perspectives. What school issues need to be attended to? What do stakeholders desire for the students and the school in relation to academics SEL and academics? What social and emotional assets do collaborators appreciate? In what ways can these needs and wants be addressed? Collaboration, however, must extend beyond needs assessment to the inclusion of stakeholders in the proposal and implementation of SEL programming (CASEL, 2013; Tengey & Ganu, 2015).

According to Brown et al. (2010), it is necessary to give the first slot from school administrators. Lots of school counsellors have previously laid a positive connection with administrators. When counsellors perform well in SEL advocacy, proprietors and administrators can turn out to be co promoters. Assistance from educators expedites the transformation essential for SEL to be integrated into the programme and is significant in cultivation of a school environment favourable to SEL. The efficiency of a proprietor's style of leading impacts novel programme application; being aware of

the proprietor's style of leadership can aid the school counsellor to recognise where the proprietor can very well be efficient in SEL advocacy (Fullan, 2014, Wiseman et al., 2013).

Also, educators are one of the most significant collaborators due to the fact that, educators are an essential aspect of effective SEL programme application. In the overview of SEL concepts to educators, school counsellors should handle educator's issues about SEL programmes with care. Again, most operative educators can now offer SEL skills in their classrooms (McCuin, 2012). School counsellors can maximise those activities, tap into educator SEL skill and assist educators to cultivate other undertakings. Brown et al. (2010) buttress the significance of permitting for divergence in educator strengths and interests as SEL programming is established.

Furthermore, parental participation in SEL programming is crucial to its accomplishment. SEL learning outcomes, as well as academic achievement, relate to family impacts (Tengey, 2016). If schools are located in low income communities, parents may experience numerous psychological and geographical inhibitions that obstruct their school involvement (Van Velsor & Orozco, 2007), nonetheless, the school counsellor can commence dynamic activities to gain parents backing. This requires reaching out, starting with constructing associations with parents, asking their sentiments on school requirements, teaching them about the association between SEL and academic achievement and including them in SEL work (Tengey, 2016).

Students themselves should act as agents in the SEL advocacy. Freiberg (1998) stresses on the significance of evaluating student opinions about school and perceived those valuations as vital to school transformation determinations. In regards to other stakeholders, esteem for students' thoughts advances their assurance. Students when steadfast will enthusiastically pursue the growth of their individual social and emotional competencies and also contribute to constructing an atmosphere favourable and beneficial to SEL and for other persons (Fulcher, 2017; Fullan, 2014).

4.5.5 Social and emotional learning and academic achievement

Several schools in America are anxious about the development of the academic achievement of their learners. The method to aggregating school accomplishment

mostly focuses on curricular teaching (personal teaching, classroom instructional teaching) and neglects learning as a communal practise. Nonetheless, operational learning also includes the aptitude to connect with other learners as well as communicating and cooperating with educators, colleagues and relatives (Fulcher, 2017; Fullan, 2014; Zins et al., 2007).

The American Psychological Association (APA Work Group, 1997) documented 14 research-based psychological principles that influence learning. Principle 11 describes the social nature of learning: "Learning is influenced by social interactions, interpersonal relations and communication with others" (APA Work Group, 1997, p. 4). Student learning is enhanced through positive social relationships as well as a positive social climate in the school (McCuin, 2012). Educators have become used to resisting that, if schools plan to organise students for life in this progressive and developing world, then they must suggest teaching in more than only academic form and abilities (in mathematics, English, arts, science and other fields). SEL is also essential for students' total and complete accomplishment in and after school therefore calls for attentive, continuous care all through K-12 education (DePaoli, Atwell & Bridgeland, 2017; Weissberg, Durlak, Domitrovich & Gullotta, 2015). Though SEL has been posited in diverse forms, it can be mostly comprehended as the procedures in which the youth and grownups obtain and productively use the skills, information and approaches essential for understanding their emotions, set and realise optimistic objectives, sense and show compassion for other individuals, construct and tolerate constructive relations and assume liable resolutions (Weissberg & Cascarino, 2013).

Also, Weissberg et al. (2015) identify the five core sets of social and emotional learning competencies which are; self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, relationship management and responsible decision making. These skills are anticipated to allow and advance students' academic performance, constructive societal attitudes and public relations during schooling thereby decreasing social problems and psychological discomfort, thus assisting to organise the youth to be effective in college, occupation and in lifetime (Jones et al., 2017).

The next section takes a look at career development and leadership for a change in conjunction with SEL.

4.5.6 Career development and social and emotional learning

Trying to encourage career development without inculcating SEL is not a viable prospect. At an initial stage, career advancement starts by deterring learners from staying away from college (Fulcher, 2017; Goodwin, 2016). It is very acknowledged that a high school certificate is a qualification for many employments and significantly advances a person's potential remuneration. Threats associated with not completing school, in addition to academic success, comprise low socioeconomic standing and behavioural difficulties (Fulcher, 2017). The literature on resilience specifies that students who stayed in school regardless of impediments had SEL offered by a person or a group of compassionate people, regularly in the schools. This backs the idea that offering SEL to every student has prospects for progressive effects in maintaining learners in school, which also adds to great constructive career results (Fullan, 2014; Goodwin, 2016).

Constructive career outcomes are subject to career progression all through years in school. Career development encompasses the capability of making decisions and making cognisant career choices, is a necessary skill of SEL. Active individual decision takers comprehend the concerns, deliberate on the advantages and disadvantages of options and observe their preferences (CASEL, 2008, 2013). Career advancement also involves self-awareness, one of the competencies of SEL. The development of self-awareness requires authentic and straightforward analysis of an individual's assets and flaws (Stern, Hyman & Martin, 2006). Learners who have been to colleges with SEL programming are able to participate effectively in decision taking approaches and what they identify about themselves altogether with their understanding of the world of labour and opt for prosperous and fulfilling professions. Goleman (1995) stressed the essence of emotional insufficiencies on the organisation. Social and emotional proficiency is essential only not for college accomplishment and career preference, but also for career realisation. Just as a sensitively troubled adolescent's devotion diverted from studying, the troubled grownup in the office is unsuccessful in processing information, or take coherent decisions. Moreover, a satisfying working division is determined by the social and emotional proficiency of the members of the group.

Discussion of issues is vital to resourceful group running; how the facts shared, either logically or cleverly; touches both confidence and output (Goleman, 1995). Also, workers themselves mention that, they want workers trained in problem solving and human relations and also in material information (Fink, 2002). Ensuring that secondary school leavers are socially and emotionally skilled, and also being intellectually good in academics will inspire their becoming industrious workers of the organisation. Promoting social and emotional proficiency besides academic performance, school counsellors can perform to confirm that senior high school leavers turn out to be industrious workers of any organisation (Goodwin, 2016; Tengey, 2015).

4.5.7 Emotional intelligence, leadership change and social and emotional learning

Researchers as Salovey, Mayer and Goleman integrated social intelligence into EI (Goleman, 2006; Goodwin, 2016). Learning is a part of an emotional procedure; emotions and their countenance can allow or hinder academic performance (Austin et al., 2014; Jadhav & Gupta, 2014, Javed et al., 2017; Zins et al., 2007). Investigators in the area of neuroscience are evolving our awareness of the association concerning intellects and feelings. For instance, if an adolescent is troubled due to an encounter in the house or a harassment interface with a fellow pupil, the adolescent's attention drifts away from the learning activity in teaching space.

Furthermore, studies have shown association between EI and academic performance (Tengey, 2016). Bar-On (2007), in a three independent studies examined the impact of EI on school performance (measured by grade point average) of university students established that effective students were more intelligent emotionally. Findings in elementary, middle and high schools are consistent with the research of the university students' findings showing that differences in social and emotional operatives significantly predicted current or future academic performance (Greenberg et al., 2004; Goodwin, 2016). Additionally, in a meta-analysis of study on the effects of 270 school based (CASEL, 2007) SEL programmes, investigators established positive influences in several capacities containing significant advantages in student performance test scores though from a comprehensive appraisal, these results offer some characteristic instances of the association between SEL and student performance. Essentially, if

the goal of schools is to advance student academic performance, there is no need to disregard the advancement and improvement of SEL in students.

Zame, Hope and Repress (2008) state that the current professional development of educators is a major concern in many countries around the world. Educators in the US often have several professional development opportunities throughout their careers while school leaders seldom benefit from these developments (Marzano et al., 2005). This lack of leadership preparation is even more obvious in the developing world (Swaffield, Jull & Ampah-Mensah, 2013). Nevertheless, some scholars claim that principals play a vital role in school advancement, teacher optimism and retention and student learning (Grissom & Harrington, 2010; Marzano et al., 2005). Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) propose that leaders empower the more effective educators because they influence and impact student learning. Some researchers are of the view that leaders build cultures of learning and those cultures of learning impact positively on student learning. There are different approaches to principal training; for example, coursework, mentoring and coaching, putting theory into practice, or a combination of the above (Grissom & Harrington, 2010).

Grissom and Harrington (2010), in a quantitative study using 7,410 public schools in the US, established that university coursework was not as effective as mentoring and coaching. Regrettably, research in the field of principal training has been mostly conducted in Western countries. Further studies need to focus on this phenomenon across several countries and over time in both public and private school settings. Pansiri (2011) states that developing countries have adopted Western models of school leadership that are not adjusted to their context. According to Gaetane and Sider (2014), leadership is influenced by contextual, social and cultural factors. In the West, leadership is characteristically practised and learnt in groups. Leadership is a process that aims to create a change to achieve goals (Northouse, 2010). But in the developing world the top-down method is still cherished, thus impeding change processes. There is therefore an increased need to advance the leadership capacity of principals (Bush & Oduro, 2006). Leadership goes beyond an individual's traits and character. It is a connection between personal action, the leader's habits and context, which includes the institutional structure and the situation and philosophy (Berkhout, Hartmann & Trott, 2010). Lumby, Crow and Pashiardis (2008) purport that there is a

lack of preparation for school leadership in the developing world, with leadership programmes that look predominantly at training through the lens of culture and structure.

The ASCA National Model (2005) demands that school counsellors undertake a role in leadership to influence complete transformation in schools. Due to the fact that school counsellors interact with learners, teachers, administrators, parents and other personnel, school counsellors are in a perfect situation to assume leadership roles (Tengey, 2016). A transformation required for schools to effectively train learners in schools is the incorporation of the academic development of students with their social and emotional advancement. For this transformation to be achieved, the school counsellor's responsibility changes from a customary emphasis on replying to specific student's requirements to a very definite attention on improving the SEL of learners. For this responsibility to be accomplished, the school counsellor should partake in an avoidance coordination in a very deliberate manner and pursue to work ultimately as SEL specialist to the institutions (Tengey, 2015).

An operational SEL programme begins with preventive plans intended for all learners (Bruene-Butler, Poedubicky & Sperlazza, 2006). School counsellors can learn from the model of public health which concentrates on preventive measures intended to lessen issues related to difficulties and then reduce the number of persons who need specific attention (Sinek, 2014). Even though some schools presently practise Preventive SEL programming (alcohol education, dropout prevention) in a separate short form, short term, moralistic programmes, these determinations are not that effective compared to the long term structured determinations (Zins et al., 2007). Hence, school counsellors must scrutinise prevailing programming, look for interferences and ascertain how prevailing programming fits into a complete and continuing SEL plan (Elia, Bruene-Butler, Blum & Schuyler, 2000; Tengey, 2015).

Dollarhide, Gibson and Saginak (2008) in a research of new school counsellors established that effective leaders renowned themselves by their bravery in times of difficulties and their honesty in accepting and identifying clear, dedicated, attainable objectives. It is imperative to state that effective general transformation in the arena of SEL will include continuing evaluation. School counsellors characteristically back school works to assess academic development, significant to the aims of each student

and to the total mission of the school (CASEL, 2013; Denham & Brown, 2010; Kendziora et al., 2011; Noweski et al., 2012).

Apart from academic procedures, it is however serious to use a range of procedures to assess change (Muller-Ackerman & Shelton, 2006) from existing and new programming. Assessable outcomes that can affect school performance include students' "school attitudes (motivation, responsibility, attachment) and school behaviour (engagement, attendance, study habits)" (Zins et al., 2007, p. 194). To assess progress and make ongoing changes for improvement, an action research approach can prove invaluable (Romasz et al., 2004) and goes alongside making long-lasting comprehensive and total change. Finally, the following section reviews school counsellors and their importance in relation to SEL.

4.5.8 School counsellors and social and emotional learning

School counsellors promote students' SEL that is vital to an institution's educational goal. In recognising the significance of SEL, several institute shareholders imagine it as unimportant and/or imperative only for some students. To guarantee that all students have access to SEL programmes, school counsellors must have a provision package centred on prevention and relocating themselves as SEL experts. This requires promotion, teamwork and leadership, concentrated on universal transformation in the schools. The American School Counsellor Association (ASCA, 2005) offers an outline for school counselling programmes centred on the abilities of leadership, promotion and partnership generating into a systemic change.

Corresponding to the school's mission, the school counsellor's responsibility in this framework is to foster the educational, occupational and individual/group advancement of learners. Due to the fact that, school counsellors' expertise and training are not in the social and emotional fields, a principal school counsellor's obligation is to promote learners' educational and occupational objectives by assuming leadership in responsibility in enhancing student social and emotional advancement.

In the era of the No Child Left Behind (US Department of Education, 2002) which entails academic responsibility through test scores of students, students' academic performance becomes the principal idea where as social and emotional advancement,

imperative to learners' total advancement, is relegated to the background (Kendziora et al., 2011; Noweski et al., 2012). This often leaves school counsellors besieged with supporting the significance of students' social and emotional capability as central to student educational and occupational progression. Confirming that the social and emotional progression of all leaners is heightened becomes a more daunting responsibility for school counsellors.

Some school counsellors have largely spent their time helping high-accomplishing or high risk students, who form just a minute percentage of the total student body (ASCA, 2005). Furthermore, when school counsellors do assist the school, they may frequently engage in unsuitable responsibilities such as generating major programmes or playing the role of testing coordinators (ASCA, 2005). Instances where school counsellors correctly offer classroom counselling for the entire students, SEL is regularly perceived as secondary and supplementary and lacks inclusion in the school's entire curriculum and environment (McCombs, 2004).

4.5.9 Importance of school counsellors and social emotional learning

The outcome of research indicates that SEL programming is most efficient when it is inclusive all through the school programme and continues during the course of the student's school life (Tengey, 2015; Zins et al., 2007). School counsellors who create their programmes founded on the ASCA model endeavour to create programmes that are all-inclusive and provided in a methodical manner to all learners (ASCA, 2005). Nonetheless, how do experienced counsellors who have usually attended to student through approachable facilities focussed on those with problems begin an all-inclusive SEL programme for all students? How a counsellor who already implements does focussed and directed SEL programming fuse that programming into the total school syllabus and environment? School counsellors must begin by handling any worries they may have about modifications in their daily activities, a distress that arises for some school counsellors when they start the implementation of new programmes (Poynton, Schumacher & Wilczenski, 2008). School counsellors must inculcate the universal transformation imperative for SEL programming to be instructed and inculcated in the total school curriculum and environment. Primarily, they must be

committed to lending support, partnership and leadership needed for systemic change and for school counselling activities.

In a qualitative exploratory study, Bryon (2017) sought to investigate how learning transfer occurred after leadership training, what supported and delayed learning transfer in two nations and if the use of a text message mediation after training increased learning transfer. Employing a sample consisting of 13 West African leaders of schools, six in Burkina Faso and seven from Ghana, who joined a three-day leadership seminar, Brion found out that learning transfer transpired in the two nations in all the schools. Results specified that greater part of the learning transfer transpired in parts not needing mind-set or behaviour modifications. Findings also indicate that the facilities in which the training was conducted, the facilitator's personalities and brilliance as well as the appropriateness of the resources and the continuation of the mobile text messaging involvement, assisted the partakers in transferring knowledge to their schools after the training.

Although the study helped increase our comprehension of what stimulates and hinders transfer of learning in educational backgrounds in evolving countries, it also spelt out some challenges the participants faced, some of which are financial and cultural. The study being qualitative in nature and the sample size being relatively small, does not make it generalisable to a larger population. These have been general problems with most of the literature reviewed in the SEL section. Furthermore, there has been little literature on SEL in relation to empirical studies, thus empirical studies providing statistics are scarce and therefore very few were cited in this section. Also, there is paucity of literature on SEL and school counsellors and counselling. Only one study was found in Ghana. It is therefore expedient that more studies are carried out in this area to elucidate SEL and school counselling especially in Africa. In the next section, an integration of review of literature is presented.

4.6 INTEGRATION OF LITERATURE REVIEW

Hitherto, a lot of literature, studies, elements, theories and variables have been considered and discussed in relation to EI, leadership and SEL but separately. Comprehension of every construct and how it is interconnected to another variable was vital to the current study because it helped the researcher to create a model

relating to school counsellors' leadership and EI as predictors of students' SEL outcomes. An integrated theoretical model of counsellors' leadership and EI as predictors of students' SEL is presented below in Figure 4.3.

4.6.1 Integrated theoretical model of counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes

Figure 4.3: *Integrated Theoretical Model of Counsellors' Leadership and Emotional Intelligence as Predictors of Student's Social and Emotional Learning Outcomes'*

As earlier mentioned above, the comprehension of each of the constructs and how they are interconnected was vital to this study. Each of the constructs are distinct in their own way. It was discovered from the theoretical models that EI is characterised in three major models: the ability model, mixed model and the trait model. A wealth of research and studies have been conducted on EI, including research in the arena of education, psychology, psychotherapy and school counselling, which are of utmost interest to the researcher. EI was revealed to have been correlated to leadership as leadership is also related to EI. Leadership is a broad topic with theories and studies, reviewed from Plato's concept to the contemporary views and the evolution of the different perspectives of leadership, with some of the viewpoints being competency, behavioural, contingency, implicit and transformational, out of which transformational leadership styles amongst others emerged.

It was also revealed that SEL is founded on CASEL's framework of the five dimensions of SEL competencies which entails self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship management and responsible decision making. SEL has mainly been practised in the educational and school systems with educators, parents, families, communities among others all being stakeholders. Research has shown that SEL and transformational leadership are positively correlated and has led to improvement and transformation in the school system (Javed et al., 2017). Again, as mentioned earlier in the study, these constructs have been studied, but individually. In the current study, all three constructs – EI, leadership and SEL – were integrated in a single study with the intention of building a model of counsellors' leadership and EI as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes.

4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 4 began with a definition of the theories that underpin youth development. William Glasser's reality therapy and choice theory were discussed. Carl Rogers' client/student-centred theories and positive youth development, which focuses on Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory underpinning the study, were also discussed. Literature was reviewed on related studies beginning with some

discussions on the demographics of students on SEL and a discussion on the developmental assets framework and importance of SEL programming in schools. Some studies on SEL were discussed laying emphasis on EI, leadership change and SEL. Moreover, advocacy for SEL programming and collaborating with some stakeholders were also discussed. There was also a discussion on SEL and academic achievement and also a presentation on school counsellors and SEL. Chapter 4 ended on the importance of school counsellors and SEL and a presentation of an integrated theoretical model for the current study. The next chapter, Chapter 5, presents the methodology for the study, including the sample units, data collection and analysis.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter five concentrates on the research design and methodology with the ultimate objective of defining the statistical approaches used to develop a model of school counsellor's leadership and EI as predictors of students' social and emotional learning (SEL) outcomes in Ghanaian institutional settings. To begin with, the research design employed in the study is presented. An outline of the study population and sample is offered under the unit of study. In addition, the data collection stage is presented in detail concentrating on the assessment tools and the aims for selecting the assessment tools. The data analysis process is also discussed. The study hypotheses formulated and the chapter summary are also presented to close the chapter; five.

Figure 5.1 below depicts an overview of the research approaches

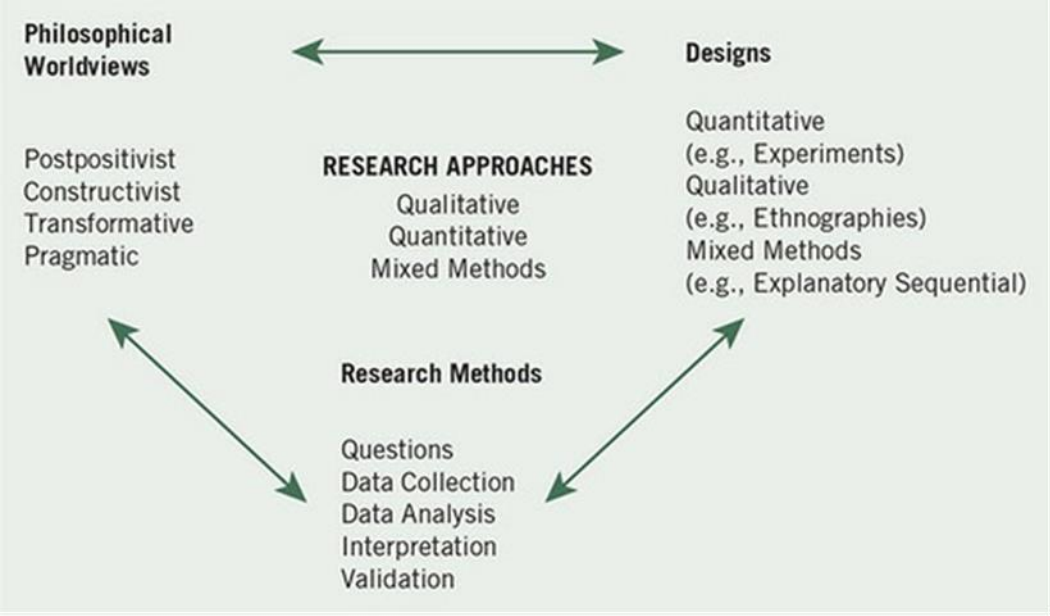

Figure 5.1*:* Interconnection of Worldviews, Design and Research Methods (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p.40)

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 38), "[r]esearch approaches are plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation". A research design is the "procedure for collecting, analysing, interpreting and reporting data in research studies" (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018, p. 58). It is the total strategy for linking the conceptual research problems with the relevant and empirical research. Thus, the research design sets the procedure for obtaining the necessary data, the methods to be used to collect and analyse the data and how all these are going to answer the research question.

5.2.1 Research design (philosophical worldview)

Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 41) present a research approach that involves the intersection of philosophy, research designs and specific methods. Creswell and Creswell (2018) reiterate that in planning a study, researchers must think through the philosophical worldview assumptions that they employ in the study, the research design that is related to the worldview and the specific methods or procedures of research that interpret the approach into reality. Creswell and Creswell (2018) highlight four philosophical worldviews, namely, postpositivism, transformative, constructivism and pragmatism. The four worldviews are presented in Table 5.1 below:

Table 5.1

Four Worldviews (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 43)

Postpositivism	**Constructivism**
• **Determination** • **Reductionism** • **Empirical observation and measurement** • **Theory verification**	• **Understanding** • **Multiple participant meanings** • **Social and historical construction** • **Theory generation**
Transformative	**Pragmatism**
• **Political** • **Power and justice oriented** • **Collaborative** • **Change-oriented**	• **Consequences of actions** • **Problem-Centred** • **Pluralistic** • **Real-world practice oriented**

5.2.1.1 Postpositivism

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 42) “the postpositivist assumptions have represented the traditional form of research and these assumptions hold true more for quantitative research than qualitative research. This worldview is sometimes called the scientific method or doing science research”. Creswell and Creswell (2018) further state that this is referred to as positivist/postpositivist research, empirical science and postpositivism. The most recent word is titled postpositivism due to the fact that it characterises the rational that has occurred after positivism. Postpositivism defies the orthodox notion of the absolute truth of knowledge (Phillips & Burbules, 2000) and recognises that claims of absolute knowledge when researching into and about the attitude of individuals cannot be true. The postpositivist belief stems from scholars as

Durkheim, Comte, Mill, Newton and Locke (Smith, 1983) and contemporary researchers such as Philips and Burbules (2000).

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 43), some of the key assumptions that can be gained when reading the studies of Philips and Burbules (2000) are as follows:

- Knowledge is hypothetical- there is no absolute truth. For that matter, evidence established in research is not perfect and fallible. It is for this reason that researchers indicate that they do not ascertain a hypothesis but relatively specify failure to reject or refute a hypothesis.
- Research is the procedure of creating statements and later filtering or cancelling some for other assertions more robustly justified. Several quantitative studies for instance, begins with testing of theories.
- Data, proof and logical deliberations form knowledge-in reality, researchers gather information on tools established on assessments finalised by participants or by observing documents gathered by researchers.
- Research aspires to advance significant, factual statements, statements that can assist in clarifying the condition of issue or that define the underlying associations of importance. In quantitative research, investigators advance the association among variables and offer this by way of questions or hypotheses.
- To be unbiased is an important part of knowledgeable investigation. Researchers must study approaches and assumptions for bias. For instance, standards of reliability and validity are very essential in quantitative studies. Drawing from the above table, Table 5.1, and the above discussion, the current study focuses on the postpositivist worldview and thus assumes the statements enumerated above.

5.2.2 Research design

Robson (2002) explains that there are three likely types of research design which are; exploratory, descriptive and explanatory. Robson's (2002) basis of this grouping depends on the determination of the study field as every design leads to separate completion drive.

5.2.2.1 Descriptive designs

The reason of descriptive research is to offer a representation of a condition, people or occurrences or reveal how things are connected to one another and as they obviously occur (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2005). Conversely, descriptive research cannot explain why events occur and are more appropriate for a comparatively new research field (Punch, 2005). Consequently, in conditions of profuse descriptive information, other research designs, such as an explanatory or exploratory approach, are suitable.

5.2.2.2 Explanatory research

Creswell and Creswell (2018, p.50) explain that, explanatory research is a study in which the researcher initially leads a quantitative study, analyses the findings and then advances the results to explain them elaborately with qualitative study. Creswell and Creswell (2018) further explain that the preliminary quantitative data results in explanatory research are further clarified with qualitative data and reiterate that this form of strategy is prevalent in areas with a robust quantitative positioning. Creswell and Creswell (2018), however, state that explanatory research presents challenges in terms of recognising the quantitative results to further explore, as well as problems with imbalanced sample sizes for every stage of the research.

5.2.2.3 Exploratory research

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) posit that, Exploratory research is carried out when much is not known about a phenomenon and when the problem has not been evidently stated. Exploratory research does not seek to offer the concluding or definite answers to research questions, but ultimately explores the research subject with changing degrees of complexity. Accordingly, its subject is to solve new issues in which minute or no earlier studies had been conducted (Brown, 2006). The current study is exploratory in nature. The theme of the study is to develop and test three different constructs; EI, leadership and SEL in a single model. In extreme circumstances, exploratory research underpins conclusive studies and defines the

preliminary sampling methodology, research design and collection of data method collection method (Singh, 2007).

Exploratory research has other functions which include formulating a problem for advance study, therefore hypotheses are formulated. It increases researchers' knowledge about phenomena that they want to study or the state of affairs in the study domain. Exploratory research sets precedence for future studies, elucidate more evidently the notions and collects evidence about empirical prospect of conducting further research or offers some knowledge of the concerns that are deemed vital by the individuals in that arena. It also affords the investigator the opportunity to design a structured research. The reason for explorative research is to gain novel understandings into a circumstance (Brown, 2006). The explorative design was the premise on which the current study was situated as it sought to develop a new model of counsellors' EI and leadership in predicting students' SEL outcomes. Based on the explorative design, other designs such as quantitative and a survey design were employed in the current study and are presented below.

5.2.3 Research design approaches

Eyisi (2016, p. 92) states that "research designs are either classified as qualitative, quantitative or mixed method". Creswell and Creswell (2018, p. 37) enumerate some research methods as progressive approaches: (i) quantitative, (ii) qualitative and (iii) mixed method approaches. Creswell and Creswell (2018) further state that categorically, these methods are not as separate as they initially seem. Quantitative and qualitative methods should not be observed as severe, different, opposite to each other or contrasts, but rather they characterise diverse ways in a field (Creswell, 2015). The approaches are presented below with quantitative research being the basis on which the current study is situated:

5.2.3.1 Quantitative research

Quantitative research is a method for analysing objective philosophies by examining associations among variables. These variables can then be evaluated, characteristically with measuring tools, in order to be able to analyse figures through statistical processes (Creswell, 2003).

The concluding written report includes a process entailing an introduction, theory and literature, approaches, findings and results and discussion. Investigators who participate in this type of research have assumptions about analysing theories logically, incorporating in defences against bias, controlling for substitute clarifications and being able to generalise and replicate the results. The quantitative is the method is the approach employed in the study in testing and investigating the relationship among the research variables: EI, leadership and social and emotional learning. Figure 5.2 below portrays the various research methods.

Table 5.2

Research Approaches: Quantitative, Mixed and Qualitative methods (Creswell & Creswell 2018, p. 47)

Quantitative	Mixed Methods	Qualitative
Pre- determined	Both predetermined and emerging methods	Emerging methods
Instrument based questions	Both open and closed ended questions	Open ended questions
➢ Performance data ➢ Attitude data ➢ Observational data ➢ Census data	➢ Multiple forms of data drawing from all possibilities	➢ Interview data ➢ Observation data ➢ Document data ➢ Audio visual data
Statistical analysis	Statistical and text analysis	Text and image analysis
Statistical interpretation	Across pattern interpretation	Themes, patterns and interpretation

The current study employs a quantitative method which is a predetermined approach, using instrument-based questions: a questionnaire was used, the data collected was attitudinal, and statistical analysis and interpretation was done employing PLS-SEM.

5.2.3.2 Qualitative research

Qualitative research emanated in the area of anthropology, humanities, sociology and evaluation. Numerous books have been authored on diverse forms of comprehensive and precise qualitative investigative methods (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Charmz (2006) and Corbin and Strauss (2007, 2015) ascertained the techniques of grounded theory. Fetterman (2010) summarised ethnographic procedures and the many aspects and research strategies of ethnography. The techniques involved in case study research was proposed by Yin (2009, 2012, 2014). Diagrams are tapped from these books ensuing approaches, identifying that methods like participatory action research discourse analysis are also feasible means of conducting qualitative studies (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2000).

5.2.3.3 Mixed method research

Mixed method researches include collection and analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data in the same research in which the data is gathered simultaneously or chronologically, is accorded importance and includes the incorporation of the data in a single or multiple phases of the investigation process (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Accordingly, the method assists the investigator answer questions that cannot be answered employing only quantitative or qualitative techniques. Mixed methods offer more comprehensive view by noticing developments and generalisations as well as detailed information about participants' views (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

5.2.4 Research Design strategies

Strategies of inquiry linked to quantitative research are those that invoke a postpositivist worldview and that originate mainly in psychology (Creswell & Creswell,

2018). These include true experiments and the less demanding experiments called quasi-experiments (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). A further experimental design is applied behavioural analysis or single-subject experiments in which an experimental treatment is administered over time to one person or small groups of individuals (Cooper, Heron & Heward, 2007). Another type of non-experimental quantitative research is causal-comparative research in which the investigator compares two or more groups in terms of a cause that has already taken place.

Correlational design is another non-experimental approach in which the researcher employs correlational statistics to label and assess the magnitude of association between two or multiple variables or scores (Creswell, 2012). These designs have been expounded on more complicated relationships among variables found in approaches of structural equation modelling, hierarchical linear modelling and logistic regression. Contemporarily, quantitative approaches have entailed complicated experiments with numerous variables and procedures which entails factorial designs and repeated measure designs. The approach employed in analysis of the study is structural equation modelling.

Survey research was the method employed in order to provide quantitative or numeric descriptions of this study and is presented below.

5.2.4.1 Survey research

Survey research provides a quantitative or numeric description of inclinations, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. It includes cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection with the intention of generalising from a sample to a population (Fowler, 2008).

In line with this study, a survey design aimed at senior high school students who had sought counselling services in the Greater Accra region of Ghana was employed, with a focus on establishing the empirical relationship between the variables (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). Survey was employed in soliciting data from the participants, senior high school students, about their beliefs, feelings, characteristics and behaviour past

and present, as well as about their school counsellors and themselves (Maree, 2007; Neumann, 2006).

5.3 UNIT OF STUDY

The unit of analysis refers to the objects or things that are investigated in order to convey generalisations of these objects and to furthermore explain the differences among them (Babbie & Mouton, 2009).

5.3.1 Population

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2009, p. 52) define population as “the study object that consists of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and events”. The empirical study was conducted among a population comprising students in senior high school in Ghana. The Ghana Education Service report (Ministry of Education, 2016) indicates that there are 91 senior high schools in the Greater Accra region of which 52 are private and 39 are public senior high school. Students in these senior high schools in the Greater Accra region formed the population (N) of the study.

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2009) mention that, the two main sampling techniques are the probability and nonprobability samplings. When using probability sampling, the investigator can state the probability of every aspect of the population being involved in the sample (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

In the current study, a nonprobability sampling technique; Convenience sampling technique was used to select participants. Convenience sampling, otherwise known as haphazard sampling or accidental sampling is a kind of nonprobabilty or non-random sampling in which participants of the target population that meet the criteria, such as easy accessibility, location proximity, availability at that given moment or the willingness to partake are included for the purpose of the study (Saumaure & Given, 2008). According to Welman et al. (2009, p. 68), “[t]he advantage of non-probability samples is that they are less complicated and more economical than probability samples”. Since all students do not go through counselling in Ghana, the determining factor was that, senior high school students who have sought counselling from their school counsellors, and have been counselled qualified to be participants in the study.

Convenience sampling encompasses selecting a sample by employing individuals in the population who are around and are willing and ready to partake in the study survey (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

While many interpretations cannot be made about a population employing a convenience sampling, the sample size is an essential feature of empirical research. A convenience sampling nevertheless do not offer the researcher the full opportunity to generalise the findings of the study. Sample design is made up of two features, i.e. the process of selection-modalities of involving units in the sample and the estimate processes – the sample approximations of the values of the population (Hox, 2010; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010).

5.3.2 Sample

The sample of a study is drawn from the study population. Inadequate sample sizes can result in biased approximations or insignificant results with low statistical power, where as too large sample sizes may be wasting of resources (Hox, 2010). The sample size is ascertained by requiring adequate statistical power.

In determining the sample size of the current study, the criteria below was a guide (Hox, 2010; Neuman, 2006; Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002)

- **Level of precision**. Approaches employing surveys emphasise defining the population ratio with calculated degree of precision and the sample size criteria can then be used with a power of 0.05. The diverse a population is, the higher the sample size required to attain the specified level of precision. A generally employed sample size estimation approach in PLS-SEM is the "10-times rule" principle (Hair, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2011). This rule constructs on the assumption that, the sample size should be 10 times more than the inner and outer maximum numbers of the model links pointing at any of the latent variable in the model. This rule was employed in the study. By this estimation, the number of maximum inner (reflective) links in the model pointing at the latent variable in the study were 10. This therefore means 10 multiplied by 10 equals 100. On the other hand, the maximum number of (formative) outer links in the model pointing at the latent variables in the

study were 46. This means that when employing the outer model rule a minimum of 460 would be the sample size. In the current study, 800 was the sample size used, exceeding the minimum sample sizes of all criteria stated.

- ***Confidence level***. To be able to originate the asymptotic distribution of the test statistic when models are estimates, it is important to raise a parameter drift assumption. This assumption specifies that model error is relative to sampling error and that as the sample size (n) increases, both the sampling error and model error decline. If the parameter drift assumption is violated, significance levels (p values) for this test may be invalid, leading to incorrect conclusions about model fit.
- ***Degree of variability.*** The degree of variability in the variables that are to be measured denotes the distribution of variables in the population.

The study, in employing convenience sampling method, students from five schools; Accra high school, St. Thomas Aquinas senior high, Teshie Presbyterian senior high school, Tema secondary school and Presbyterian boys' senior high school, Legon– were designated. The school authorities gave approval for the research to be carried out and 800 students from these five schools thus formed the study sample. These were incidentally all public schools and also offered counselling services. Eight hundred respondents were selected from the above mentioned schools thus comprising the sample size (n = 800). Reliability and stability of the data were further ensured by drawing a large sample (n=800) of senior high school students who had gone through counselling with school counsellors in their various schools.

5.4 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The assessment instrument, i.e. the questionnaires, were grouped into this classification:

- Section A- Variations in biological factors (gender, age, ethnicity, school and senior high level (SHS 1-3).
- Section B – Questions relating to school counsellors EI (WLEIS).
- Section C – Questions relating to school counsellors leadership skills (TLI).
- Section D – Questions relating to students' social and emotional learning competencies (SELC).

5.4.1 Biographical and demographic variables

The questions relating to biographical and demographic information formed section A of the questionnaire. Biographical and demographic variables were considered. These variables were considered as they will be used in the descriptive aspect of the results in Chapter 6. The variables are thus below discussed.

5.4.1.1 Gender

Allocation was created for gender with (1) reflecting male and (2) female. There were 546 male students and 254 female students, representing 68% and 32% of the respondents respectively.

5.4.1.2 Age

Since the study is based on students who are eighteen (18) years and above, students were directed to indicate their ages in the space provided on the questionnaire. The youngest students who took part in the survey was 18 years while the oldest was 24 years old. An elaborate description of the variables is offered in Table 6.1 in the next chapter.

5.4.1.3 Ethnicity

The third item on the biographical and demographic section of the questionnaire was ethnicity. The various tribes in Ghana were grouped into four main categories: the Akans, the Ewes, the GAs and the Dagbons. For the purpose of the study, all students hailing from the Ashanti and Eastern regions were categorised as Akans. The Ewes were students hailing from the Volta region. Students hailing from Greater Accra constituted the GAs while those from the northern part of Ghana were grouped under Dagbons. The various representations are also fully captured and discussed in Table 6.1 of Chapter 6, the results chapter of the study.

5.4.1.4 School

The five schools that gave approval for the research to be carried out were school 1: Presbyterian boys' senior high, Legon (Legon Presec); school 2: Tema secondary school (Temasco); school 3: Teshie Presbyterian senior high (Teshie Presec); school 4: Accra High school and school 5: St. Thomas Aquinas senior high school. These schools and their descriptions are discussed and presented in Table 6.1 in Chapter 6.

5.4.1.5 Level

There are three levels of senior high levels in Ghana. School levels of senior high level one to three (SHS 1–3). The study was limited to senior high school level three students (SHS 3). This was because the study was based on students who were 18 years and above. The majority of the students who were 18 years and above were in SHS 3.

5.4.2 Wong and Law emotional intelligence scale (WLEIS)

Below is a discussion into details of the psychometric properties of the WLEIS used in assessing counsellors' emotional intelligence (CEI). The explanation centres on the development and rationale for selecting this scale and explains the dimensions, administration, interpretation, reliability and validity and the justification for inclusion.

5.4.2.1 Development of and rationale for the WLEIS

The WLEIS formed section B of the questionnaire. It is a simple and practical self and other-rater scale which measures EI successfully with a sample that is huge. The WLEIS comprises 16 statements on a seven Likert-like scale (Wong & Law, 2002). The WLEIS scale is categorised into four subdivisions: (i) self-emotions appraisal (SEA), others' emotions appraisal (OEA), use of emotion (UOE) and regulation of emotion (ROE) (Wong & Law, 2002).

The aim of the survey was to measure school counsellors' EI in senior high schools at the senior high students' level in accordance with 12 dimensions (Wong & Law, 2002). The WLEIS is appropriate for this research as it assesses the construct EI as expounded and elaborately well-defined theoretically in chapter 2. The measuring

instrument was originated by Wong and Law (2002) to evaluate EI and is founded based on the model of the four branches; the survey was also based on several studies conducted in a number of countries (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Fowler, 2008), including Ghana, which is the context of this study.

The dimensions of the WLEIS scale are as follows: self-emotions appraisal (SEA), others emotions appraisal (OEA), use of emotions (UOE) and regulation of emotion (ROE). The sub dimensions established in the WLEIS back the notion of EI as multidimensional (Shi & Wang, 2007; Wong & Law, 2002).

5.4.2.2 Descriptions of the WLEIS

The WLEIS entails a collection of 16 items, which are all deemed to be of importance which respondents respond to by indicating their agreement or disagreement with the statement or question. The measuring tool employed is a collated rating in the manner of a seven-point Likert scale. The reason of this study was to elicit the participants' opinions and beliefs about their school counsellors' EI which relates to three dimensions of the WLEIS. Table 5.3 shows the three sections and their matching allotted items.

Table 5.3

Dimensions and Allotted Items of the WLEIS (Wong & Law, 2002)

WLEIS Dimensions	**Allotted items**	**Number of items**
Others-emotions appraisal (OEA)	5,6,7, 8	4
Use of emotions	9, 10, 11, 12	4
Regulation of emotion (ROE).	13, 14, 15, 16	4

5.4.2.3 Administration of the WLEIS

The WLEIS is a self and others assessment tool as earlier stated. The WLEIS can be administered independently or by others. In the current study, the participants who were senior high students were requested to rate their school counsellors on 12 items of the 16 on a Likert scale consisting seven points. The first four items allotted to the self-emotions appraisal (SEA) were not included in the study because the items are centred on the "self". The assessing tool comprises of seven degrees as follows:

- B "1" strongly disagree
- B "2" disagree
- B "3" somewhat disagree
- B "4" neither agree or disagree
- B "5" somewhat agree
- B "6" agree
- B "7" strongly agree

Although there is no allocation of time to complete the questionnaire, it took approximately 20 minutes to complete. The WLEIS can be completed using a pen and paper or electronically through an online means. In this survey, it was administered as a paper and pencil questionnaire because most students do not have access to an online survey.

5.4.2.4 Interpretation of the WLEIS

Each of the three dimensions of WLEIS is measured independently and reveals the respondent's assessments of the dimensions. A low rating (1) indicates that respondents strongly disagree, while a very high rating (7) reflects strongly agree. A high score denotes that the respondent is in agreement with the statement thus high scores on the WLEIS indicate high levels of EI. Each of the three dimensions yield a distinct score for the dimension and all the dimensions are added to provide the total score on the total EI.

5.4.2.5 Reliability and validity of the WLEIS

Studies have tested and retested the WLEIS scale in diverse cultures, gender and ethnic groups and established it as a compact assessment with solid reliability and validity (Law et al., 2008; Meisler & Vigoda-Gadot, 2014; Shi & Wang, 2007). It was similarly reliable in measuring the construct of EI in the Ghanaian context, validating the reliability and validity of the assessing tool. The reliability of WLEIS is presented below:

- **Reliability**

In evaluating the reliability of the WLEIS, Cronbach's alpha, rho_A and composite reliability were used and the latent variables were found to be above 0.7 with CA (0.930), rho_A (0.937) and CR (0.945). According to Hair, Risher, Sarstedt and Ringle (2019, p. 8) "reliability for exploratory research should be a minimum of 0.60 while reliability for research that depends on established measures should be 0.70 or higher".

The reliability of the latent variables using Cronbach's alpha, rho_A and composite reliability were all within satisfactory domains and limits for the current study. As earlier mentioned, in PLS-SEM modelling, more reliance is placed on the results of the composite reliability (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler, Rigle & Sinkovics, 2009) and rho_A (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015). In the current study, more reliance was placed on composite reliability and rhoA than Cronbach's alpha and is offered in Table 6.19 of the next chapter.

- **Validity**

Two kinds of validity exists; convergent and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity- is the degree to which the construct congregates to explain the variance of its items (Hair et al., 2019). The method employed in assessing a construct's convergent validity is the average variance extracted (AVE) for all items on each construct. To compute the AVE, the loadings of each indicator have to be squared on a construct and the mean value calculated. An acceptable AVE is 0.5 or higher, demonstrating that the construct explains at least 50% of the variance of its items (Hair et al., 2019; Henseler et al., 2017).

Discriminant validity- for discriminant validity, the outer loading of every indicator was higher on its corresponding latent variable (0.85) than its cross loadings on other latent variables, therefore confirming the discriminant validity was attained in the study. Hair et al. (2019) posit that, the degree to which a construct is empirically different from other constructs in the structural model is referred to as discriminant validity. Fornell and Larcker (1981) offered the original and orthodox metric and that the AVE of every construct must be equated to the squared inter construct correlation (as measured of shared variance) of that very construct and all other constructs that are reflectively assessed in the structural model (Hair et al., 2019). The shared variance of every model construct must not be greater than their AVEs.

Henseler and colleagues (2015) specify that the Fornell-Larcker criterion may not do well, particularly when the indicator loadings on a construct vary only marginally. Henseler et al. (2015) suggested the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of corrections as a replacement (Voorhees et al., 2016). Hair et al. (2019, p.9) define the HTMT as "the mean value of the item correlations across constructs relative to the (geometric) mean of the average correlations for the items measuring the same construct." Henseler et al. (2015) indicate that discriminant validity issues manifest when HTMT values increase. Henseler et al. (2015) proposed a borderline value of 0.90 for structural models with constructs that are theoretically or conceptually much related. In such circumstances, an HTMT value higher than 0.90 may indicate that discriminant validity is not existent.

On the other hand, when constructs are conceptually very different, a less conventional marginal value is offered as 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015). In the current study, convergent validity was determined using the AVE and is reported in Table 6.14 of the results chapter. Also, discriminant validity of the subconstructs (latent variables) employing the Fornell and Larcker criterion, the cross loadings and the HTMT approach as discriminant validity of the constructs were applied and reported in the results section of the next chapter,

depicted in Tables 6.15, 6.16 and 6.17. The same methods for reliability and validity were applied to the TLI and SECQ in the current study and are also reported in the same tables as the WLEIS in the next chapter.

5.4.2.6 Justification for the inclusion of the WLEIS

In the current study, Wong and Law's (2002) scale to measure EI (WLEIS) was used because it is founded on the four-branch model which seeks to explain EI in its entirety. The WLEIS scale is a free-to-use (Perdue, 2016; Tett et al., 2005), easy and direct means to assess EI successfully for a sample that is huge. Three dimensions; others emotions appraisal (OEA), use of emotion (UOE) and regulation of emotion (ROE) were employed while self- emotions appraisal (SEA) was not included in the study because it sought to measure self-emotions.

Cross loading is determined when a variable is found to have more than one significant loading, which makes it difficult to label all the factors that are sharing the same variable and it is therefore difficult to make those factors separate or unique and signify distinct conceptions (Farrell & Rudd, 2009). Data suitability for factor analysis was examined employing the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin method of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity. Hair et al. (2014) propose certain guidelines for the extraction of factors: (i) a minimum factor loading of 0.5 should be used to allocate an item to a factor, (ii) the number of factors retained should be based on eigenvalues greater than 1.0, (iii) varimax rotation method should be used for rotation to clearly load items to factors and gain a better interpretation, (iv) an item or two factor items can be dropped and (v) items with cross loading on more than one factor can be dropped. These guidelines underpinned the current study where an item was removed from ROE due to low factor loading. Accordingly, the EI construct in this study was reduced to two dimensions (sub-constructs of EI). It was also interesting to note that two items of UOE, which were projected to be under UOE, instead loaded sufficiently onto OEA. These findings are deliberated on elaborately in the ensuing chapter (chapter 6, Table 6.7 forming the results chapter of the study).

5.4.3 Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI)

The psychometric properties of the TLI, which was employed in measuring counsellors' transformational leadership (CTL), is presented in terms of the development of and rationale for selecting this scale, an explanation of the dimensions, administration, interpretation, reliability and validity of the TLI and the justification for inclusion.

5.4.3.1 Development of and rationale for TLI

The TLI formed section C of the questionnaire. The TLI was originated by Podsakoff et al. (1990) and is employed in assessing transformational leadership behaviours. The aim of the survey is to measure school counsellors' effective leadership in senior high schools, at the senior high students' level, in accordance with the dimensions (Podsakoff et al. 1990). The TLI is suitable for this research as it assesses the concept of leadership as expounded and extensively presented theoretically in chapter 3. The study was also founded on numerous researches led in different countries as well as Ghana, which is the context of this study.

5.4.3.2 Descriptions of the TLI

The TLI contains 22 items grouped into six dimensions and is responded to, like the WLEIS, on a Likert scale (7-point) extending from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. The six scopes of the transformational leadership are articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations, providing individualised support and intellectual stimulation. Respondents answer by specifying their agreement or disagreement with a statement. The purpose of this study is to awaken the participants' opinions and beliefs about their school counsellor's transformational leadership which relates to 6 dimensions of the TLI. Table 5.4 shows the 6 dimensions and their matching allotted items.

Table 5.4

Dimensions and Allotted Items of the TLI (Podsakoff et al., 1990)

TLI dimensions	Allocated items	Number of items
Articulating a vision	1,2,3,4,5,6	6
Providing an appropriate model	7,8	2
Fostering the acceptance of group goals	9,10,11,12,13	5
High performance expectations	14,15,16	3
Providing individualised support	17,18,19	3
Intellectual stimulation	20,21,22	3

5.4.3.3 Administration of the TLI

As already stated, the TLI is a self-assessment tool which can be administered personally or by others. In the current study, the TLI was administered as an "other" scale. The respondents who were senior high students, were requested to rate their school counsellors on 22 items on a seven Likert-like scale. The assessment scale ranges from 1-7 as presented below;

- C "1" strongly disagree
- C "2" disagree
- C "3" somewhat disagree
- C "4" neither agree nor disagree
- C "5" somewhat agree
- C "6" agree
- C "7" strongly agree

TLI is also a pencil and paper centred questionnaire that can be completed manually and also through a survey online electronically. In this survey, it was administered as a paper and pencil questionnaire.

5.4.3.4 Interpretation of the TLI

The six dimensions of the TLI are measured independently and show the respondent's assessment of the sub-divisions. Low scores (1) reflects that respondents very much disagree whereas very high scores (7) reveals very high interests. An increase in scores signifies that the participant is in agreement with the assertion thus increase in scores indicate high levels of transformational or effective leadership. Scores for the dimensions are added to provide an overall score for total leadership.

5.4.3.5 Reliability and validity of the TLI

The TLI has notable reliability and validities associated to concepts across numerous researches (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine & Bachrach 2001). All the dimensions respectively met the internal consistency reliabilities. Consistent with the results of Podsakoff et al. (1990) analyses reveal that all of the items loaded meaningfully on their hypothesised features. As mentioned and explained earlier, reliability (0.934) and validity (AVE, 0.881) were computed and are presented in the next chapter. Table 6.19 shows the composite reliability, rhoA amongst others, while Tables 6.20, 6.21 and 6.22 depicts the discriminant validity of the sub-construct (latent variables) using the discriminant validity of the constructs employing the Fornell & Larker criterion, the cross loadings and the HTMT approach.

5.4.3. 6 Justification for the inclusion of the TLI

In the current study, the TLI was used to measure counsellors' transformational leadership behaviours. Twenty-two items were selected for students to respond to on a seven –point Likert scale starting from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Subsequently, the structure was reduced to a three-factor structure in the current research. This was because the factor loadings showed the construct was reduced to three factors, the first one relating to Fostering of acceptance of the group goals and High performance expectations dimension, the second one; Identifying and

articulating a vision and Providing an appropriate model dimension and the third, Providing individualised support and Intellectual stimulation dimension.

The TLI was employed in the current study because the dimensions focus on transformational leadership. Transformational leadership has emphasised the importance of leaders' impact on subordinates' emotional and other conditions (Ayiro, 2014). Transformational leadership has also often been mentioned as a model for school leaders involved in supporting students and implementing reforms (Leithwood et al., 2004; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006).

5.4.4 Social-Emotional Competence Questionnaire (SECQ)

The SECQ is a survey originated and validated by Zhou and Ee (2012) based on the CASEL (2008) model to measure how aware children and adolescents are of themselves as well as others and how they respond and react to their family, school, civic and public context individually, socially and appropriately. Series of studies are reported relating to the development and validation of the measure.

5.4.4.1 Development of and rationale for the SECQ

The SECQ was developed and validated by Zhou and Ee (2012). It formed section D of the questionnaire. It is custom-made to support educators and assessment officials assessing primary and senior high college level of SELC. The SECQ is a pool of 25 items created on the basis of the theoretical model developed by CASEL (2008). Each item selected for the initial pool of items replicates one of the five areas in the framework.

5.4.4.2 Descriptions, administration and interpretation for SECQ

The SECQ contains five subscales with five items for each component: self-awareness; social awareness; self-management; relationship management and responsible decision-making. Again, participants respond by indicating their agreement or disagreement with the statement. Like the WLEIS and TLI, the scale is

a summated rating in the form of a seven-point Likert scale. Unlike the WLEIS and TLI, the purpose of this survey is to stimulate the respondents', i.e. the students', own opinions and beliefs about their SELC which relate to the five dimensions of the SECQ. Table 5.5 shows the five dimensions and their matching allocated items.

Table 5.5

Dimensions and Allotted Items of SECQ (CASEL, 2008)

SECQ dimensions	Allocated items	Number of items
Self-awareness (SA)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	5
Social awareness (SoA)	6, 7, 8, 9, 10	5
Self-management (SM)	11, 12, 13, 14, 15	5
Relationship management (RM)	16, 17, 18, 19, 20	5
Responsible decision-making (RDM)	21, 22, 23, 24, 25	5

5.4.4.3 Administration of the SECQ

The SECQ is also a self- assessment questionnaire which is completed personally by students. In the current study, the SECQ was administered to senior high students. The students were requested to rate themselves on 25 items on a seven-point Likert scale. The assessment tool ranges from one to seven a presented below;

- D "1" strongly disagree
- D "2" disagree
- D "3" somewhat disagree
- D "4" neither agree nor disagree
- D "5" somewhat agree
- D "6" agree
- D "7" strongly agree

SECQ is also a pen and pencil constructed questionnaire which was completed as such by the students.

5.4.4.4 Interpretation of the SECQ

The five dimensions of the SECQ are measured independently and indicate the respondent's assessments of the subdivisions. A rating of (1) implies a low core meaning the participant disagrees strongly with the statement. On the other hand, a rating of (7) indicates a high score signifying more of the attributes. In fact, a rise in scores also indicate high levels of SELC. Again, scores for the dimensions are added to provide an overall score for overall SECQ.

5.4.4.5 Reliability and validity of the SECQ

The SECQ also has noteworthy reliability (0.856) in the current study and (0.836) with related constructs across several studies (Henson, 2001). Studies are reported linking to the development and validation of the questionnaire. Confirmatory factor analyses of the responses of 444 fourth-graders indicated and acceptable fit of the model (Zhou & Ee, 2012).Internal consistency reliabilities for all dimensions were met. As mentioned earlier, the validity and the reliability of the SECQ are reported in chapter 6. Again, Table 6.19 shows the composite reliability, rhoA amongst others, while Tables 6.20, 6.21 and 6.22 depict the discriminant validity of the subconstructs (latent variables) using the discriminant validity of the constructs (Fornell and Larcker criterion, the cross loadings and the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) approach).

5.4.4. 6 Justification for the inclusion of the SECQ

In the current study, the SECQ was used to measure students' SELC. Twenty-five items were selected for students complete on a seven point Likert scale, starting from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Factor analysis was done on all 25 items of students' SELC. This was done to ascertain whether the factors could be grouped into the five dimensions. Some items were deleted because they could not be assigned in any meaningful way. Similarly, an item was removed due to cross loading. The discussion on the analysis is presented in detail in Table 6.16 (Chapter 6).

The SECQ instrument was the most suitable instrument found to measure students' SELC in the current study because of its five dimensions. The dimensions of the SECQ

are directly related to the SELC construct of the study. Analysis of the current study showed that the SECQ was consistent in assessing the construct of SELC in the Ghanaian context, confirming the reliability and validity of the instrument.

5.5 RESEARCH VARIABLES

According to Neumann (2006), a variable is a notion which can be evaluated. It may be a dependent or independent in nature. A dependent variable is a representation that stands for an arbitrary output and is the outcome or findings of another construct whiles an independent variable is a sign that represents a random input and elicits an effect or results of another thing or element (Stewart, 2011).

The independent variables in the current study are school counsellors' EI and effective leadership while the dependent variable was students' SELC. The study concentrated on finding out if there was a substantial statistical association and proposed a model among these variables. The statistical relationship and the proposed model are presented and discussed in detail Chapter 6, the next chapter of the study.

5.5.1 Methods used to ensure reliability and validity

The following procedures were meted out ensuring the validity and reliability process of the study;

5.5.1.1 Validity

Babbie and Mouton (2009) posit that, validity is the degree to which the assessing tool sufficiently reveals the actual sense of the notions being examined. Every good study process requires a vital internal and external validity. Terre Blanche et al. (2006) lay bare the significance of explicitly stating the purpose of the research and the theoretical models supporting it, identifying the methodology and the situation in which the study will be conducted. The characteristics of the sample and the assessing tool

employed are also vital in guaranteeing the validity of the research. Validity in the current study was guaranteed by;

The characteristics of the sample and the instrument employed are also vital in guaranteeing the validity of the study. In this study, validity was ensured by;

- Employing theories and models appropriate to the topic of study, aims and statement of the problem as plans.
- Choosing valid and reliable assessment tools; the WLEIS, TLI and SECQ, which are standardised, applicable and relevant to the model and philosophies underpinning the research and ensure that they are offered in a standard form (Meisler & Vigoda-Godot, 2014).
- Testing the reliability and validity of all three measuring instruments using SmartPLS (version 3.2.8). The reliability and validity were found to all be within acceptable limits, thus validating the instruments in the Ghanaian context. These processes are elaborated on in section 5.4 of the current chapter.
- Pilot testing the instruments using 327 students who were not included in the survey sample prior to the main research. The 327 students who participated in the pilot study were final year (SHS 3) senior high students from a Greater Accra senior high school. Respondents comprised 60.9% male students and 39.1% female students. Most of the respondents (77.4%) were 18 years old and 39.4% of the sample were Akan. All the participants were in SHS 3 (100%). Reliability and validity tests were conducted. The results established acceptable construct reliability, convergent and discriminant validities. Specifically, the reliability coefficients were above 0.7 (WLEIS = CA, 0.90; TLI = 0.80, SELC = CA, 0.89) and AVEs were greater than the 0.5 (WLEIS = AVE, 0.77, TLI = AVE, 0. 78, SELC, 0.64) threshold. Detailed statistics are provided in Annexure 4.
- Selecting a sample in a manner that guaranteed external validity. Data was collected physically by the researcher, and stored and analysed using IBM SPSS (version 25) and Smart PLS (version 3.2.8)

5.5.1.2 Reliability

Reliability is the degree to which the assessing tools offer the same findings when employed over and over again (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). By way of ensuring reliability in the study; the following processes were observed;

- Data collection; senior high school students who have gone through counselling in schools in the Greater Accra region were selected to participate in the survey. A detailed account of the data collection procedure is included in section 5.9 of this chapter.
- Data management; all data collected was coded and stored on an Excel sheet and in IBM (version 25). This data will be stored up to five years and is only in the researcher's custody.
- Analysis of data; in analysing the data, a statistical package, IBM SPSS (version 25) was employed. Composite reliability among others was employed in establishing internal consistency and the subsequent reliability of the assessing tools employed in the collection of data. Terre Blanche et al. (2006) states that, composite reliability of 0.70 and 0.75 is suitable for measuring tools. Reliability coefficients (WLEIS = 0.930; CTL = 0.934; 0.736) for the study were within acceptable limits as mentioned discussed in detail in the previous section.

5.6 METHODS TO ENSURE ETHICAL RESEARCH PRINCIPLES

The Ethics Code as set out by the American Psychological Association (APA, 2002) is anticipated to offer precise criteria to guard most circumstances faced by social scientists. According to the APA Ethics Code, when acquiring informed consent as mandated in Standard 3.10; Informed consent, investigators must inform respondents about these attributes below;

- The purpose of the study, estimated time and processes- the researcher duly informed the participants about the research being expressly for academic use. They were also informed about the survey questionnaire taking approximately 30 minutes to complete.
- Participants right to discontinue to partake and pull out from the survey even when the survey has commenced- the respondents were verbally told after their

consent forms and questionnaires were handed out to them that they were under no obligation to participate in the research and they could pull out from the survey if they so wished.

- The predictable concerns of withdrawing or declining- the respondents were assured they would not be subjected to punishment of any sort if they declined or withdrew from the survey.
- Realistically predictable issues that may be anticipated to impact their readiness to partake such as discomfort, potential risks or adverse effects- respondents were briefed that the only foreseeable discomfort was the time they were to spend completing the questionnaire. Respondents were assured that there were no other potential risks and adverse effects attached to participating in the research.
- Any potential research benefits: the respondents were informed that there were no financial benefits. They were however told of the potential research benefits when the study is completed. The research results and findings could be beneficial to them, their fellow students and future researchers.
- Limits of confidentiality: the respondents were assured of confidentiality. They were given a confidentiality agreement signed by the researcher to that effect. They were also assured that the information collected would be handled and used under strict condition. They were instructed not to write or reveal their identities on the questionnaires or provide any evidence that would lead to their individual identities, which they did.
- Incentives for participation: participants in the survey were briefed there were no incentives for participating in the survey.
- Person to contact with questions relating to the research and research respondent's rights-since the researcher was physically present and administered the questionnaires to them, they were provided an opening to make enquiries and received answers immediately.

The above requirements and those of the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology of UNISA in conjunction with the ethics committee requirement, formed the bases of the study. Permission was obtained from the University of South Africa's Ethics Committee in the College of Economic and Management Sciences to continue

with the research. Permission was granted and approval given by the Ethics Committee for conducting the research.

5.7 RESEARCH METHOD

The research entailed two stages. Literature review constituted the first stage whiles the empirical research constituted the second stage. The first to third steps involved the conceptualisation of EI, leadership and SEL from theoretical perspectives. Step four was to incorporate the variables and expound the theoretic associations among the variables, while phase five was to construct the hypotheses for the study to be able to attain the aims of the study.

These steps were all accomplished in Chapters 1 to 4. The next stage, the second stage, discusses the empirical part of the study. A convenience sampling technique was used in selecting respondents for the study, which made it possible for the target group of senior high school students who had been counselled to be selected.

5.8 PROCEDURE FOR CONDUCTING THE SURVEY

A letter was written by the researcher to the Ghana education service (GES) seeking permission to conduct the study in the Greater Accra region. The approval letter from GES and completed form 1 was sent to the College of Economic and Management Sciences Research Ethics Review Committee (CEMS-RERC), which subsequently gave its approval for the research to be carried out. The researcher sent the approval letters obtained from the GES and the CEMS-RERC to students in the various schools (Legon Presec, Temasco, Teshie Presec, St. Thomas Aquinas and Accra high schools), which had also accepted and gave approval for the research, where upon dates were fixed with the authorities on which the research could be carried out.

On the day of the survey, students who were 18 years old and above who had gone through counselling were selected. The researcher took steps to ensure that the ethical issues outlined above were observed: what was expected of respondents was clearly explained to them both in words and in writing (as part of the instructions on the questionnaire) and their consent was duly respectfully sought. It was also explained that there would be no foreseeable risks, discomfort or adverse effects

should they decline to partake in the research. They were also communicated to about their participation being totally voluntary. In view of this, they were duly informed they would not be offered any inducements to participate in the study.

The students' confidentiality was assured by the researcher attaching a confidentiality letter (signed by the researcher) to the questionnaires that they were provided with. After that was done, the researcher administered the questionnaires. The respondents were briefed on how to complete the questionnaires and all outstanding and unclear issues were clarified. The questionnaires took approximately 20 minutes to complete and the participants were each given an envelope into which they placed their completed questionnaire before returning it to the researcher.

5.9 DATA SCORING

Responses to the items in the questionnaires were presented on a Likert scale (7points) starting from 1; strongly disagree to 7; strongly agree for the WLEIS and the TLI. The SECQ was originally administered on a six-point scale starting from; "not at all true of me" to "very true of me". However, in this study, the SECQ comprised the following responses: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neutral, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree. This was done for the purposes of uniformity because the respondents were students. For all the responses, 1 represented least strength of the responses while 7 reflected the most strength of responses.

5.10 DATA ANALYSIS

After data was collected, the researcher collated and captured it in IBM SPSS (VERSION 25). The coded data was then analysed statistically. Following the data analysis, the sample was first described using descriptive statistics and subsequently exploratory factor analysis and item analysis were conducted on both the measurement instruments using the sample data from the study. The proposed model was tested using SEM, revealing the correlations among the variables. These correlations are presented in Table 6.6 of the next chapter. The statistical software

packages, IBM SPSS (VERSION 25) and SmartPLS (version 3.2.8) were used in the statistical analysis of all data collected in this study. They are presented as follows;

5.10.1 Frequency tables

The frequency of incidence was stated when the sample was defined. This explanation is presented in Table 6.1 in the next chapter.

5.10.2 Normality and differences between groups

EI, leadership and SEL data were tested with the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests to determine if the data was normally distributed. The data showed no significant differences therefore Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric tests were employed to ascertain whether there were significant differences among the dimensions. These results are presented in section 6.7 of the next chapter.

5.10.3 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

The statistical procedure of factor analysis is mainly employed to ascertain the fundamental dimensional features of a questionnaire. The procedure is useful mainly in helping reveal the core dimensional structure of a questionnaire. The expectation is that items that refer to the same dimension will associate with each other and this norm is used in factor analysis to reveal underlying dimensions or features.

According to Kerlinger (1986, p. 569):

> Factor analysis serves as the course of scientific parsimony. It reduces the multiplicity of tests or measures to greater simplicity. It tells us, in effect, what tests belong together – which ones virtually measure the same thing, in other words and how much they do so. It thus reduces the number of variables with which the scientist must cope. It helps the scientist locate and identify unities or fundamental properties underlying tests and measures.

In the study, EFA was conducted to check whether the proposed factor structures were consistent with the actual data. EFA was run using the principal components extraction method with varimax rotation. All three scales employed in the research were tested using the principal components analysis (PCA) employing IBM SPSS (VERSION 25). Hair et al. (2010) purport that the PCA is appropriate when the prime interest is prediction or when the least number of factors is required to justify the maximum amount of the total variance. Comparatively, when the objective is to ascertain the latent measurements of a construct of which little is known, an error variance (which a researcher hopes to discard) is acquired and then common factor analysis befits the model. The a priori criteria were employed in this study and these factor analysis processes are discussed in section 6.5 of the next chapter.

5.10.4 Sampling adequacy

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and Barlett's test were conducted to determine whether the data was adequate for the factor analysis. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy test was employed when the partial correction between variables was very small. Barlett's test of sphericity was used to ascertain whether the correlation matrix was an identity matrix. If this was specified, then factor analysis was not applied (Field, 2009). It is recommended that the KMO value (which ranges between 0 and 1) is greater than 0.50. Large KMO values show that the relationships are comparatively solid and that factor analysis would clearly show separable and reliable factors. The recommendation is that the *p* value of Barlett's test be smaller than 0.05 as this would show the correlation matrix is not an identity one.

5.10.5 Eigenvalues

Eigenvalues offer a suggestion of how much variance in the data is explained by a factor. When an eigenvalue is very large in relation to the eigenvalues of other factors, most of the variance will be accounted for by that factor (Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al. (2010) purport that the latent root criterion is the most commonly patronised. However, this approach only reflects factors with latent roots (eigenvalues) greater than 1 and would thus appear to be very conventional if less than 20 factors are removed and very substantial if more than 50 are removed (Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al. (2010)

again show that another approach for choosing the number of factors to extract is the a priori criterion. This approach is employed when the investigator has prior knowledge of the number of factors that is required to be removed. In this study, the latent root criterion (PCA) was used.

5.10.6 Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation

Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation was the rotation method employed in the study. Vogt (1993, p. 91) defines rotation as "[a]ny of several methods in factor analysis by which the researcher attempts to relate the calculated factors to theoretical entities. This is done differently depending upon whether the factors are believed to be correlated (oblique) or uncorrelated (orthogonal)". Osborne (2015, p. 20), describing rotation from the viewpoint of an investigator mentions that " rotation is any of a variety of methods used to further analyse initial PCA or EFA results with the goal of making the pattern of loadings clearer or more pronounced. This process is designed to reveal the simple structure".

Gorsuch (1983, pp.203-204) enumerate four separate types of orthogonal approaches which are; equamax, orthomax, quartimaz and varimax. Varimax with Kaiser Normalization is an orthogonal varimax method used to reduce variables to conceptually important latent ones. This classification and rationale also allow for replication of studies. Due to the kind of factors used in this research and the philosophical underpinnings of positivism and deductive research, (uncorrelated) varimax with Kaiser Normalisation (orthogonal) was used and is presented in the next chapter.

5.10.7 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling is defined as a multivariate approach that associate features of multiple regression that examines dependent relationships and factor analysis which represents unmeasured ideas such as factors with multiple variables to create sequence of interconnected concurrent dependence associations (Hair et al. 2010).

Hair et al. (2010) specify that all SEM procedures are distinctive due to the fact that they approximate numerous and interconnected dependency associations; thus they have the capability to symbolise unobserved ideas and models in associations and justify measurement error in the course of estimation.

One of the salient software applications developed by Ringle, Wende and Will (2005) is SmartPLS; partial least squares for structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). The software has been accepted and attracted a lot of attention since its launch in 2005, not only because of its availability to academics and researchers but also due to its user-friendly interface and advanced reporting characteristics (Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Figure 5.2 offers a vivid representation of the main of SEM-PLS that were followed.

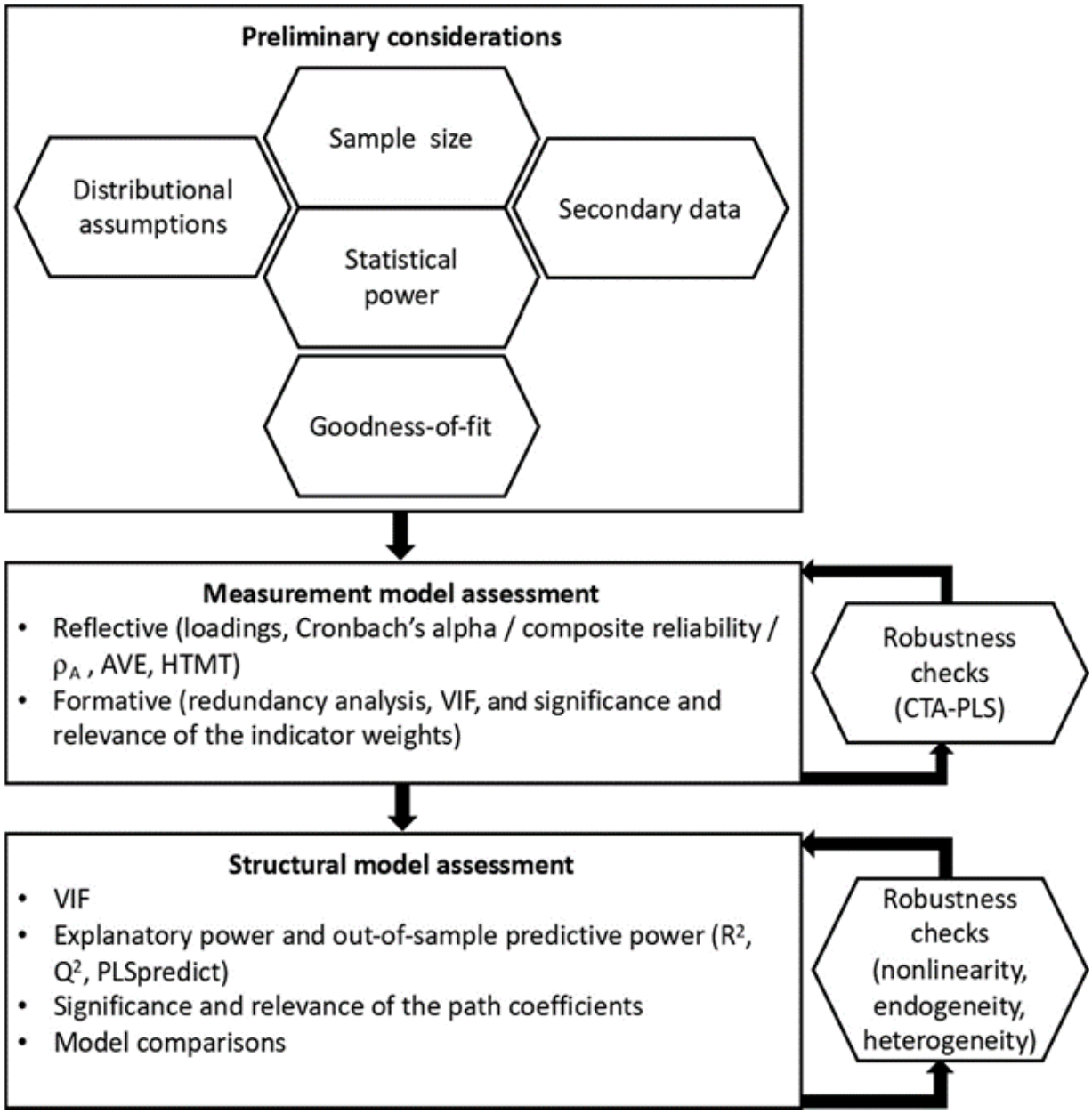

Figure 5.2*: Aspects and statistics to consider in a PLS-SEM analysis* (Hair et al., 2019, p. 4)

5.10.7.1 Preliminary considerations

PLS-SEM is a unique process for evaluating composite- based path models. Hair et al. (2019, p.5) state that, investigators should contemplate employing PLS-SEM for analysis in the following circumstances;

- Investigation is based on analysing a theoretical outline based on prediction. This research sought to build a model examining school counsellors' leadership and EI as predictors of students' SEL outcomes.
- The structural model is multifaceted and comprises various constructs, indicators and/or model associations. The model structures of the current study comprises three major constructs: leadership, EI and SELC, some subconstructs with many indicators and model relationships.
- The study aim is to gain an understanding into the growing complication by discovering theoretical additions of conventional theories that are exploratory research and advancement oriented. The current study is based on exploratory research.
- The path model consists of individual or multiple formatively measured constructs. The current study elaborates on the first and second order formative constructs in the next chapter.
- The distribution matters are an issue, such as the absence of normality and when follow up analysis of latent variable scores is required in research. Follow up analyses were carried out for some latent scores and are presented in the next chapter.
- Sample size is restricted by small population. However, PLS-SEM augurs very well with sample sizes that are large such as that of the current study. The sample size in the study was 800.

5.10.7.2 Sample size

Hair et al. (2019) posits that PLS-SEM provides resolution with small sample sizes when models entail numerous constructs and large numbers of items. Theoretically, the PLS-SEM algorithm makes this possible by calculating measurement and structural model relationships separately instead of concurrently. In a nutshell, as its name denotes, the algorithm computes partial regression relationships in the measurement and structural models by using different ordinary least squares regressions (Hair et al., 2017b; Willaby et al., 2015).

Again, Hair et al. (2019) mentions that, PLS-SEM augurs well with sample sizes that are large. A major essential concern in PLS-SEM is with the minimum sample size estimation. Hair et al. (2011) proposed a commonly employed minimum sample size estimation approach in PLS-SEM which is the "10-times rule" method. The "10-times rule" approach supports the notion that the sample size should be larger than 10 times the maximum number of inner or outer model associations pointing at any latent variable in the model. Kock and Hadaya (2018) offer two linked approaches centred on mathematical equations on minimum sample size estimation in PLS-SEM. The former approach is termed the inverse square root approach due to its use of the inverse square root of the size of a sample for standard error estimation, which is an essential stage in minimum sample size estimation.

The latter approach is referred to as the gamma-exponential method, since it depends on gamma and exponential smoothing purpose correlations applied to the initial approach. Established on the Monte Carlo experiments, both approaches have been shown to be objectively precise with the initial approach also being predominantly inviting by way of its ease of use (Kock & Hadaya, 2018). Kock and Hadaya (2018, p. 15) present a table of the different estimation methods. The table, Table 5.6, is presented below:

Table 5.6

Performance of Different Estimation methods (Kock & Hadaya, 2018, p. 15)

Method	**Minimum required sample size**
Monte Carlo simulation	265
10-times rule	20
Minimum R-squared	110
Inverse square root	287
Gamma-exponential	273

Table 5.6 depicts the estimates of the minimum required sample size based on the Monte Carlo simulation (Kock & Hadaya, 2018), the 10-times rule, the minimum R-squared, the inverse square root and the gamma-exponential methods.

5.10.7.3 Statistical power

A test's probability to escape type II errors or false negatives is known as statistical power (Cohen, 1988, 1992; Goodhue, Lewis & Thomson, 2012; kock & hadaya, 2018). Statistical power is ordinarily valued for a definite coefficient and size of sample for samples selected from a population, at a specified significance level usually, $p < 0.05$ (Kock & Hadaya, 2018). In employing PLS-SEM, investigators are advantageous of the technique's increased level of statistical power (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2019).

The presence of lots of statistical power means that PLS-SEM is more like to ascertain associations as significant when they truly exist in the population (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2019). The PLS-SEM feature of larger statistical power is relatively suitable for exploratory research that studies not so developed of emerging theory. An illustration of statistical power (types of errors) and levels of significance is presented in Table 5.7 below;

Table 5.7

Statistical Power (Types of Errors)

Table of error types		**Null hypothesis (H_0) is**	
		True	**False**
Decision about null hypothesis (H_0)	**Don't reject**	Correct inference (true negative) (probability = 1 - α)	Type II error (false negative) (probability = β)
	Reject	Type I error (false positive) (probability = α)	Correct inference (true positive) (probability = 1 - β)

Source: Sheskin (2004)

A study's defined significance level, denoted by α, is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis, given that the null hypothesis is assumed to be true (Dalgaard, 2008) and the *p*-value of a result, where *p* is the probability of obtaining a result at least as extreme, given that the null hypothesis is true. The result is statistically significant by the standards of the study (Devore, 2011). Before collection of data commences, the significance level for a research is selected and is characteristically fixed at 5% (Craparo, 2007) or significantly lower subject to the field of research.

5.10.7.4 Goodness of fit

Whereas CB-SEM depends heavily on the notion of model of fit, this is considerably not the case in PLS-SEM (Hair et al., 2019). Subsequently, certain scholars wrongly allude that PLS-SEM is not convenient for testing of and confirmation of theories (Westland, 2015). Some scholars have permitted and recommended model fit procedures for PLS-SEM (Henseler et al., 2016a). Henseler and Sarstedt (2013) and Hair and colleagues (2019) have mentioned that investigators should be very vigilant when allowing for the effectiveness of these processes for PLS-SEM. Researchers have cautioned that since the procedure for obtaining PLS-SEM results is not centred on reducing the separation between observed and estimated covariance matrices, the idea of chi-square-based model fit processes and their extensions, as is employed in CB-SEM, is not appropriate.

For that matter, even bootstrap-based model fit evaluations, for instance, some distance procedure or the SRMR (standardised root mean square residual value) (Henseler et al., 2016a; Henseler et al., 2017), which enumerate the PLS-SEM difference between the observed and estimated covariance matrices, ought to be chosen with great care (Hair et al., 2017a; Rigdon, 2012). The above precautions were taken into consideration. In terms of fit indices, SRMR was used in the current study. SRMR needs to be smaller than 0.08 (Hu & Bentler, 1998). This fit index must be met before the hypotheses of the proposed model can be tested (Fındıklı, Yozgat, & Rofcanin, 2015).

The fit indices were met and are presented in Table 6.25 in the next chapter. This resulted in the model being a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998), therefore supporting the central hypothesis, H_1, thus paving way for the rest of the hypotheses of the proposed model to be tested. These are presented in Tables 6.25 and 6.26 of the next chapter.

5.10.7.5 Measurement model assessment

There are two measurement model assessment methods: reflective and formative measurement model assessment.

Figure 5.3 below illustrates the measurement model assessment in stage 1, which depicts the measurement model evaluation and in stage 2, portraying the structural model evaluation.

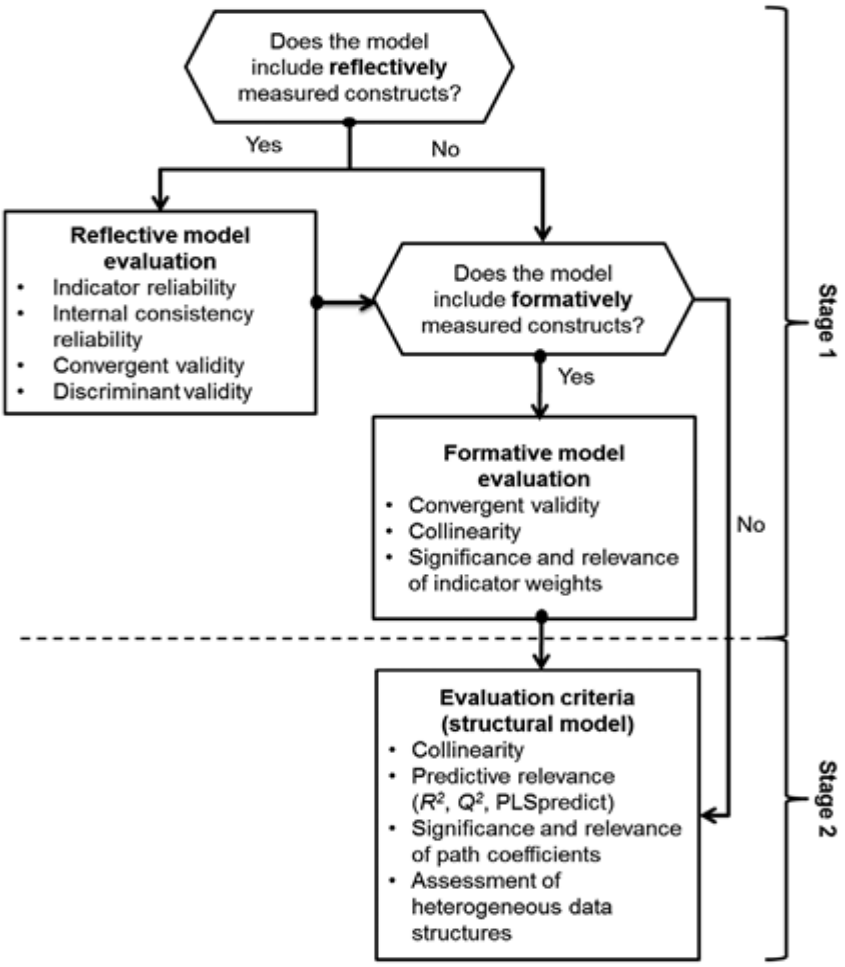

Figure 5.3: PLS-SEM Evaluation Guideline (Sarstedt, Ringle, Smith, Reams & Hair, 2014, p.10)

- *Assessing reflective measurement models*

Christophersen and Konradt (2012) mention that reflective measures are anticipated to have huge intercorrelations and the measure can really be perceived to “reflect the latent variable. The initial step in reflective measurement model assessment involves examining the indicator loadings. Loadings above 0.708 are recommended, as they indicate that the construct explains more than 50% of the indicator’s variance, hence

providing acceptable item reliability (Hair et al., 2019). In addition, internal consistency reliability is assessed, most often using Jöreskog (1971) composite reliability. Higher values generally show higher levels of reliability, with reliability values between 0.60 and 0.70 considered “acceptable in exploratory research” and values between 0.70 and 0.90 ranging from “satisfactory to good”. Values of 0.95 and higher are problematic, however, as they may specify that items are redundant, thus reducing construct validity (Diamantopoulos, Sarstedt, Fuchs, Wilczynski & Kaiser, 2012; Hair et al., 2013).

Another measure of internal consistency reliability that offers related thresholds but produces lower values than composite reliability is the Cronbach’s alpha. Cronbach’s alpha specifically is a minimal exact measure of reliability, as the items are unloaded. On the other hand, with composite reliability, the items are weighted or loaded based on the construct indicators’ individual loadings, hence, this reliability is higher than Cronbach’s alpha. Whereas Cronbach’s alpha may be too conventional, the composite reliability may be too profuse, and the construct’s true reliability is typically observed as lying within these two extreme values.

As an alternative, Dijkstra and Henseler (2015) proposed rho_A an almost exact measure of construct reliability, which usually falls between Cronbach’s alpha and the composite reliability. Therefore, rho_A may characterise a good compromise if one assumes that the factor model is correct. Additionally, researchers can use bootstrap confidence intervals to test if the construct reliability is significantly higher than the recommended minimum threshold (e.g. the lower bound of the 95% confidence interval of the construct reliability is higher than 0.07). Similarly, construct reliability can be subjected to testing to ascertain whether it is significantly lesser than the suggested maximum threshold (i.e. the upper limit of the 95% confidence interval of the construct reliability is less than 0.95 [Hair et al., 2019]). For bootstrap confidence intervals to be obtained, Aguirr-Urreta and Rönkö (2018) suggest that researchers should usually use the percentile method. But, when the reliability coefficient’s bootstrap distribution is skewed, the bias-corrected and accelerated (BCa) method should be preferred to obtain bootstrap confidence intervals.

The next step of the reflective measurement model assessment concerns the convergent validity of each construct measure. Convergent validity is the extent to

which the construct converges to explain the variance of its items (Hair et al., 2019). The measure employed in assessing a contract's convergent validity is the average variance extracted (AVE) for every item on the construct. To compute the AVE, the researcher has to square the loading of every indicator on a construct and calculate the mean value. A satisfactory AVE is 0.50 or greater, demonstrating that the construct clarifies or explains at least 50% of the variance of its items (Ringle et al., 2018).

A further way to measure discriminant validity, otherwise the extent to which a construct is in reality separate or different from other constructs in the structural model. Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommended the initial metric and recommended that the AVE of every construct ought to be compared to the squared inter construct correlation (as an assessment of the shared variance) of that same construct and every other reflectively measured constructs should not be larger than their AVEs. Some investigation shows that this metric may not be appropriate for discriminant validity assessment. For instance, Henseler et al. (2015) reveal that the Fornell-Larker criterion does not do too well, especially when the indicator loadings on a construct vary only marginally (i.e. all indicator loadings are between 0.65 and 0.85).

Additionally, Henseler et al. (2015) recommended the heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations (Voorhess et al., 2016). The HTMT is described as the mean value of the item associations across constructs linked to the (geometric) mean of the average associations for the items measuring the same construct. Discriminant validity issues manifest when HTMT values increase. Henseler et al. (2015) suggest a threshold value of 0.90 for structural models with constructs that are conceptually very alike. Besides these recommendations, bootstrapping can be used to examine if the HTMT value is significantly separate from 1.00 (Henseler et al., 2015) or a lesser threshold value such as 0.85 or 0.90, which ought to be defined centred on the research outline (Franke & Sarstedt, 2019). Furthermore, the investigator can ascertain if the upper bound of the 95% confidence interval of HTMT is lower than 0.90 or 0.85.

- *Assessing formative second-order models*

Hair and colleagues (2019) mention that, PLS-SEM is the desired method employed when formative constructs are in the structural model. Formative models are assessed centred on convergent validity, indicator collinearity, statistical significance and significance of the indicator weights (Hair et al., 2017a).

For formatively measured second-order constructs, convergent validity is assessed by the correlation of the construct with another measure of the same notion. Redundancy analysis is a procedure initially proposed by Chin (1998) to execute convergent validity. Cheah, Sarstedt, Ringle, Ramayah and Ting (2018) indicate that an item which reveals the importance of the construct under concern, is usually enough as a substitute measure, notwithstanding the restrictions concerning the criterion validity (Sarstedt et al., 2016a). Hair et al. (2017a) advocates that the correlation of the formatively measured construct with the single-item construct evaluating the same concept should be 0.70 or greater.

The variance inflation factor (VIF) is regularly employed to measure collinearity of the formative indicators. VIF values which are 5 or more reveal critical collinearity concerns among the indicators of formatively measured constructs. Nevertheless, collinearity issues can also manifest at lower VIF values of 3 (Becker et al., 2015; Mason & Perreault, 1991). Preferably, the VIF values should be at least 3 or lower (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006; Hair et al., 2011).

The last phase investigators require to evaluate is the statistical significance and importance of the indicator weights, for instance the size (Ringle et al., 2018). PLS-SEM is a nonparametric approach; hence, bootstrapping is employed to ascertain statistical significance (Chin, 1998). Hair et al. (2017a) recommends employing BCa bootstrap confidence intervals for significance testing in case the bootstrap distribution of the indicator weights is skewed. If not, investigators ought to employ the percentile approach to create bootstrap-based confidence intervals (Aguirre-Urreta & Rönkkö, 2018).

When the confidence interval of an indicator weight involves zero, there is the indication that, the weight is not statistically significant and ought not to be in exclusion from the measurement model. Nevertheless, if an indicator weight is not significant, it

is not automatically inferred as proof of poor measurement model quality. Rather, the indicator's total impact to the construct is taken into consideration (Cenfetelli & Bassellier, 2009), as defined by its out loading (i.e. the bivariate correlation between the indicator and its construct). Indicators with non-significant weight should be removed if the loading is also not significant (Hair et al., 2017a).

After evaluating the statistical significance of the indicator weighs, investigators should scrutinise importance of every indicator. The indicator weights are standardised to values between 1 and þ1, but in unusual instances can also assume values lower or higher than this, which reveals abnormal result (i.e. due to collinearity problems or small sample sizes). A weight close to zero (0) shows a weak association whereas weights close to þ1 (or 1) reveal strong positive or (negative) associations (Ringle et al., 2018).

The constructs used in the study were higher-order constructs (HOC). The two-stage approach technique (reflective-formative) in PLS-SEM was used to provide for the impact of HOCs in the model (Becker et al., 2012). The model was calculated with the reflective first order constructs and then used the latent variable scores as the formative indicators of the second order constructs. Counsellors' transformational leadership (CTL), counsellors' emotional intelligence (CEI) and students' social and emotional learning competencies (SELC) are aggregate multidimensional constructs emerging from the main dimensions; EI, TLI and SELC respectively, therefore having meaning or being meaningful because of their dimensions (lower-order constructs).

In these multidimensional constructs, overall CTL, CEI and SELC cannot be observed directly (which is unidimensional); rather, they are composites given meaning by their component facets. In both the latent and aggregate cases, the underlying multidimensional constructs (i.e. CTL, CEI and SELC) are not measured directly, but instead represent the conceptual (and empirical) variance common to the underlying dimensions (Bollen & Lennox, 1991; Bollen & Ting, 2000; Edwards & Bagozz, 2000). For that matter, the application of a reflective-formative model (i.e. reflective for a lower-level model and formative for the higher-order model). In sum, the higher-order constructs are formative; they are an amalgamation of numerous exact (latent) dimensions in a common model (Becker et al., 2012; Edwards, 2001; Wetzels, Oderken-Schröder & Van Oppen, 2009).

Measurement model assessment employing confirmatory factor analysis was employed to report the validity and reliability of the latent variables. The indicators which were retained after principal component analysis were allocated to their corresponding latent variables. The SmartPLS version 3.2.8 (Ringle, Wende & Becker, 2015) was run to create the pictorial and calculate results of reliability, convergent and discriminant validity. The outcomes of this procedure are reported in Tables 6.19, 6.20, 6.21 and 6.22 of the next chapter.

Further, to be able to assess the relevance of the formative model, collinearity diagnostic checks were conducted by estimating the variance inflation factor for the indicators of the various constructs. Table 5.8 below presents the evaluation of the measurement models:

Table 5.8

Evaluation of Measurement Models (collinearity)

Second-order construct	First-order construct
CEI	CEI_OEA/UOE
	CEI_ROE
CTL	CTL_FAG/HPE
	CTL_IAV/PAM
	CTL_PIS/InTS
SELC	SELC_RDM
	SELC_RM
	SELC_SA
	SELC_SM
	SELC_SoA

Collinearity diagnostic checks indicating the VIF for the various models are further captured and explained in the next chapter.

- *Coefficient of determination (R^2)*

The coefficient of determination (R^2) measures the amount of variance in the dependent variable that can be determined by the independent variables. The R^2 is in the range of 0 and 1, with higher degrees specifying more predictive correctness. As is always the case, R^2 values of 0.75 and 0.25 may be considered large, reasonable and weak respectively (Hair et al., 2012). An illustration of the coefficient of determination values is presented in Table 5.9 below:

Table 5.9

Coefficient of determination (R^2)

R^2	**Values**
Substantial	0.75
Moderate	0.5
Weak	0.25

- *Blindfolding validated redundancy measure (Q2)*

A different way to assess the predictive accuracy of the PLS path model is to calculate the Q2 value (Hair et al., 2019). This metric is centred on the blindfolding procedure that eliminates lone points in the data matrix, ascribes the removed points with the mean and approximates the model parameters (Ridgon, 2014; Sarstedt et al., 2014). Hair et al. (2019) indicate that Q2 values ought to be greater than zero (0) for a precise construct to specify the predictive exactness of the structural model for that construct.

The generally accepted recommendation is for Q2 values to be greater than 0, 0.25 and 0.50. Q2 values greater than 0, 0.25 and 0.50 portray minor, average and major predictive importance of the PLS path model respectively (Hair et al., 2019). According to Fornell and Cha (1994), when the test criterion is greater than zero (0), the model is said to have predictive validity, if not, the model cannot be allowed predictive significance (Chin, 1998; Fornell & Cha, 1994). Blindfolding was used to estimate the predictive significance of the model and is presented in the next chapter.

- *Statistical significance and relevance of the path coefficients*

Sarstedt et al. (2019) recommends investigators should contemplate on nonlinear effects, endogeneity and unobserved heterogeneity by means of the structural model. A significant test analysis in each of the partial regressions portrays a possible nonlinear effect. More so, investigators can institute an interaction expression to plot a nonlinear effect in the model and test its statistical importance employing bootstrapping (Svensson, Teichmann & Stegle, 2018).

Unobserved heterogeneity occurs when subsections of data ensue that yield significantly diverse model estimates. When this happens, approximating the model established on the whole data set is very probable to generate deceptive outcomes (Becker, Rai & Ringle, 2013). Therefore, PLS-SEM analyses should entail a repetitive check for unobserved heterogeneity to ascertain if the analysis of the whole data set is realistic or not (Hair et al., 2019).

Sarstedt et al. (2017b) advocated for a methodical process for identifying and handling unobserved heterogeneity. Employing a criterion originated from a predetermined combination PLS (Sarstedt et al., 2011), investigators can ascertain the number of divisions to be removed from the data if need be (Hair et al., 2016; Matthews, Sarstedt, Hair & Ringle, 2016). Should heterogeneity exist at a critical level, the subsequent action requires running the PLS prediction- oriented segmentation procedure (Becker, Rai & Ringle, 2013) to reveal the segment structure of the data.

In addition, attempts should be made to recognise appropriate exploratory variables that portray the uncovered sections (Ringle, Wende & Will, 2010). If appropriate explanatory variables manifest, a moderator (Becker, Rai & Rigdon, 2013; Henseler, & Fassott, 2010) or multi group analysis (Chin & Dibbern, 2010; Matthews, 2017) in a blend with a measurement invariance assessment, provides further specific findings, conclusions and implications (Henseler et al., 2016b).

PLS-MGA is a group of diverse procedures that have been created for matching PLS model estimates across clusters of data. Ordinarily, PLS-MGA is employed in exploring variances between path coefficients in the structural model (Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Hopkins & Kuppelwieser, 2014). The multi-group analysis (MGA) allows pre-defined data groups to be tested to ascertain whether they possess significant

variances in their specific group parameter approximations including coefficients of path (Ringle et al., 2015). Multi group analysis was conducted in the current study to test the predefined differences in the specific groups and is presented in the next chapter.

Wong (2013) provides some guidelines when using PLS-SEM (SmartPLS) which are presented in Table 5.10 below:

Table 5.10

Guidelines on PLS-SEM Application (Wong, 2013, p. 6)

Topics	*Suggestions*	*References*
Measurement Scale	*Avoid using categorical scale in endogenous constructs.*	*Hair et al., 2010*
Value for outer weight	*Use a uniform value of 1 as starting weight for the approximation of the latent variable score*	*Henseler, 2010*
Maximum number of iterations	*300*	*Ringle et al., 2005*
Bootstrapping	*Number of bootstrapping "samples" should be 5000 and number of bootstrap "cases" should be the same as the number of valid observations*	*Hair et al., 2011*
Inner model evaluation	*Do not use goodness-of-fit (GoF) Index*	*Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013*
Outer model evaluation (reflective)	*Report indicator loadings. Do not use Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency reliability*	*Bagozzi and YI, 1988*

Outer model evaluation (formative)	*Report indicator weights. To test the outer model's significance, report t-values, p-values and standard errors*

In summarising the PLS-SEM application in the current study, a table is compiled illuminating the various steps of the total PLS-SEM as presented by Hair et al. (2019, p. 15). Hair et al. (2019) reiterate that researchers require a broad but a succinct outline of the reflections and metrics necessary to certify their analysis and presentation of the PLS-SEM findings.

Table 5.11 below is a comprehensive overview of the various steps followed in the PLS-SEM results presentation.

Table 5.11

Overview of PLS-SEM Application (Hair et al., 2019 p. 15)

Item	*Suggestion*
Reflective measurement models	0.708
Reflective indicator loadings	Internal consistency reliability
Internal consistency reliability	Cronbach's alpha is the lower bound, the composite reliability is the upper bound for internal consistency reliability. r A usually lies between these bounds and may serve as a good representation of a construct's internal consistency reliability, assuming that the factor model is correct. Minimum 0.70 (or 0.60 in exploratory research)

	Maximum of 0.95 to avoid indicator redundancy, which would compromise content validity. Recommended 0.70–0.90 Test if the internal consistency reliability is significantly higher (lower) than the recommended minimum (maximum) thresholds. Use the percentile method to construct the bootstrap-based confidence interval; in case of a skewed bootstrap distribution, use the BCa method.
Convergent validity	AVE 0.50
Discriminant validity	For conceptually similar constructs: HTMT < 0.90 For conceptually different constructs: HTMT < 0.85 Test if the HTMT is significantly lower than the threshold value
Formative measurement models	0.70 correlation
Convergent validity (redundancy analysis)	Probable (i.e. critical) collinearity issues when VIF 5 Possible collinearity issues when VIF 3-5
Collinearity (VIF)	Ideally show that VIF < 3
Statistical significance of weights	p-value < 0.05 or the 95% confidence interval (based on the percentile method or, in case of a skewed bootstrap distribution, the BCa method) does not include zero

Relevance of indicators with a significant weight	Larger significant weights are more relevant (contribute more)
Relevance of indicators with a non-significant weight	Loadings of 0.50 that are statistically significant are considered relevant
Structural model Collinearity (VIF)	Probable (i.e. critical) collinearity issues when VIF 5 Possible collinearity issues when VIF 3-5 Ideally show that VIF < 3
R2 value	R2 values of 0.75, 0.50 and 0.25 are considered substantial, moderate and weak. R2 values of 0.90 and higher are typical indicative of overfit
Q2 value	Values larger than zero are meaningful Values higher than 0, 0.25 and 0.50 depict small, medium and large predictive accuracy respectively of the PLS path model
PLSpredict	Set k = 10, assuming each subgroup meets the minimum required sample size Use ten repetitions, assuming the sample size is large enough Predictive values > 0 indicate that the model outperforms the most naïve benchmark (i.e. the indicator means from the analysis sample). Compare the MAE (or the RMSE) value with the LM value of each indicator. Check if the PLS-SEM analysis (compared to the LM) yields higher prediction errors in terms of RMSE (or MAE) for all (no

	predictive power), the majority (low predictive power), the minority or the same number (medium predictive power) or none of the indicators (high predictive power
Model comparisons	Select the model that minimises the value in BIC or GM compared to the other models in the set.
Robustness checks	Measurement models CTA-PLS Structural model Nonlinear effects Endogeneity Unobserved heterogeneity

5.10.8 Mediation analysis

Mediation analysis examines a conjectural underlying sequence where a variable affects another variable and furthermore influences a third variable. Mediation defines a characteristically firmly recognised association between two other variables which are occasionally termed the intermediate variable due to the fact that they frequently define the processes through which an effect happens. This is occasionally referred to as an indirect effect (Cheong & Mackinnon, 2012). Furthermore, a mediator is a third variable that forms a link between the endogenous and exogenous variables, causing this effect in the endogenous variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). According to Tingley, Yamamoto, Hirose, Keele and Imai (2014), mediation analysis can be conducted in the orthodox way by employing Baron and Kenny's four-step indirect effect method or through the contemporary mediation methods. Although Baron and Kenny's technique is amongst the traditional approaches for examining mediation, it has an inclination to possess low statistical power (Tingley et al., 2014).

In determining the mediation effect of CTL on the CEI-SELC relation in this study, the steps as proposed by Nitzl, Roldan and Cepeda (2016) were employed. Nitzl et al. (2016) mentioned that, for PLS-SEM a significant indirect effect is the only requirement for creating a mediation effect. This process is presented in the next chapter.

5.10. 9 Tests for multigroup analysis

Multigroup analysis is a unique manner of demonstrating continuous moderating effects (Henseler & Fassott, 2010). Theoretically, the assessment of group specific effects includes the contemplation of a definite moderator which alters the course or power of the relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable. Group effects include a categorical moderator variable imposing a moderating effect on the group membership of each observation (Henseler et al., 2009).

The multigroup analysis (MGA) permits the testing of whether already defined data groups have significant variances in their specific group parameter estimates, including path coefficients (Ringle et al., 2015). PLS-MGA denotes a cluster of separate procedures that have been established for matching PLS model estimations across groups of data. Generally, PLS-MGA is used to explore differences between path coefficients in the structural model (Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Hopkins et al., 2014). The PLS-MGA used in the study is presented in the next chapter.

5.10.10 Mean group differences

In the current study, a normality test was conducted using Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics and is discussed in section 6.3 of the next chapter to determine the nature of the data. The normality test showed that data was not normally distributed, hence Kruskal Wallis and Mann-Whitney U nonparametric tests were employed to ascertain whether statistically significant differences exist between students as defined by gender, ethnicity and age with regard to each of the dimensions of the students' SELC. The non-parametric tests are presented below:

- *Kruskal-Wallis test*- the Kruskal-Wallis test is a nonparametric test employed in ascertaining if more than two independent groups vary. It can be observed as a nonparametric correspondent of the one way independent ANOVA (Field, 2009).
- *Mann-Whitney U*- the Mann- Whitney U test is employed to ascertain if two independent samples offer the same median (Trexdoux & Durrheim, 2002).

The two tests were employed to ascertain the statistical variances of the participants in regard to gender, ethnicity and age in order to ascertain whether there were any differences in their SELC. The outcomes of these tests are duly presented in the next chapter.

5.11 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

Hypothesis 1

The empirical manifested model of counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes shows a significant fit with the theoretical hypothesised model.

Hypothesis 2:

Counsellors' emotional intelligence significantly predicts counsellors' transformational leadership.

Hypothesis 3:

Counsellors' emotional intelligence significantly predicts students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes.

Hypothesis 4:

Counsellors' transformational leadership significantly predicts students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes.

Hypothesis 5:

Counsellors' transformational leadership mediates the relationship between counsellors' emotional intelligence and students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes.

Hypothesis 6:

There are significant differences within the three structural model relationships based on gender.

Hypothesis 7:

Biographical variables have a significant impact on students' social and emotional learning competencies within a sample of senior high school students.

5.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In Chapter 5, step 1 the unit of analysis forming the population and sample were discussed. In step 2, i.e., the measurement instruments were presented. In step 3; data collection, step 4; data analysis and step 5; hypotheses formulation which all entail elements of phase 2, forming the empirical study were offered. Thus, the aim of chapter 5 was duly accomplished.

This sets the stage for the next chapter, Chapter 6, which discusses the empirical research results.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses. It provides descriptive statistics on demographic information and constructs. It also reports on tests of mean differences, factor analyses, the measurement of structural models, mediation and multigroup analyses.

6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data on the biographical variables as well as the item descriptives are reported.

6.2.1 Biographical variables

This section presents the descriptive information on the biographical variables of the sample of 800 respondents who completed the questionnaires. The results are depicted in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1

Demographic Information relating to Respondents

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
Gender			
Male	546	68.3	68.3
Female	254	31.7	100.0
Total	***800***	***100.0***	
Age			
18	635	79.4	79.4
19	156	19.5	98.9
20	4	0.5	99.4
23	3	0.4	99.8
24	2	0.2	100.0
Total	***800***	***100.0***	

Ethnicity			
Akan	330	41.3	41.3
Ewe	148	18.5	59.8
Ga	241	30.1	89.9
Dagbon	81	10.1	100.0
Total	***800***	***100.0***	
School			
School 1	334	41.8	41.8
School 2	101	12.6	54.4
School 3	225	28.1	82.5
School 4	85	10.6	93.1
School 5	55	6.9	100.0
Total	***800***	***100.0***	
SHS 3	***800***	***100.0***	***100.0***

Table 6.1 shows the results of respondents' demographic profile. A total of 254 respondents were female (31.7%), while 546 respondents (68.3%) were male. In terms of age distribution, the majority were 18 years (79.4%) followed by 19 years and above (19.5%). In terms of ethnic distribution, 330 respondents (41.3%) were Akans, 148 Ewes (18.5%), 241 Gas (30.1%) and 81 (10.1%) indicated Dagbon. Five secondary schools participated in the study, thus formed the population of the study. This population comprised 800 students who were conveniently selected, thus forming the sample for the study. All the respondents were in SHS 3 (100%). Since the sample population of the study was students from five senior high schools, both public and private, in the Greater Accra region, there was no specific number of population. In addition, convenience sampling technique was used in the study, therefore interest focused the sample; n = 800. The demographics of the sample reflected the original operational definition of the sample population apart from students' level, which was limited to SHS 3 in the empirical study instead of SHS 1-3 as earlier proposed. The limitation to SHS 3 was done in order to ensure that only students who were 18 years and above participated in the study as explained in Chapter 5. These details are presented in Table 6.1 above.

6.2.2 Item and construct descriptives

This section reports on the item and construct descriptive statistics of each of the three measuring scales.

Table 6.2 shows the descriptive statistics of the counsellors' EI (CEI).

Table 6.2

Item-Construct Descriptive Statistics: Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)

Item	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Others Emotional Appraisal					
CEI_OEA1	800	3.85	1.668	-0.014	-0.594
CEI_OEA2	800	3.67	1.604	0.164	-0.380
CEI_OEA3	800	3.80	1.543	0.104	-0.252
CEI_OEA4	800	3.58	1.581	0.406	-0.169
Use of Emotion					
CEI_UOE1	800	3.61	1.638	0.294	-0.343
CEI_UOE2	800	3.59	1.710	0.336	-0.491
CEI_UOE3	800	3.64	1.690	0.363	-0.595
CEI_UOE4	800	3.40	1.842	0.538	-0.667
Regulation of Emotion					
CEI_ROE1	800	3.19	1.457	0.408	-0.281
CEI_ROE2	800	3.56	1.367	-0.280	-0.271
CEI_ROE3	800	3.62	1.485	-0.336	-0.529
CEI_ROE4	800	3.63	1.382	-0.170	-0.631
Overall Scale Mean					*3.59*
Overall Scale SD					*0.978*

Table 6.2 indicates CEI had mean scores ranging from 3.19 to 3.85 with an overall scale mean score of 3.59 (SD = 0.978). The skewness values were within the

recommended normality range of -1 and +1. Similarly, the kurtosis values were within the suggested normality range of -2 and +2, indicating that the scores were normally distributed around the mean. Normality means skewness should be around zero, (0) i.e. between -1 and +1; and kurtosis should be between -2 and +2 (George & Mallery, 2010).

The descriptive statistics of the counsellors' transformational leadership are reported in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

Item-Construct Descriptive Statistics: Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI)

Item	n	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Identifying and Articulating a Vision					
CTL_IAV1	800	3.80	1.209	-0.985	0.091
CTL_IAV2	800	3.88	1.242	-0.789	0.496
CTL_IAV3	800	3.81	1.282	-0.760	0.251
CTL_IAV4	800	3.78	1.325	-0.473	0.397
CTL_IAV5	800	3.64	1.359	-0.395	0.159
Providing an Appropriate Model					
CTL_PAM1	800	3.72	1.305	-0.454	0.426
CTL_PAM2	800	3.81	1.252	-0.449	0.766
CTL_PAM3	800	3.64	1.448	-0.366	-0.469
Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals					
CTL_FAG1	800	3.30	1.381	0.329	-0.076
CTL_FAG2	800	3.16	1.391	0.241	-0.832
CTL_FAG3	800	4.04	0.858	0.307	1.313
CTL_FAG4	800	3.79	1.335	-1.104	0.089
High Performance Expectations					
CTL_HPE1	800	3.69	1.275	-1.112	0.234

CTL_HPE2	800	3.95	0.812	-0.585	0.862
CTL_HPE3	800	3.79	1.341	-1.086	0.043
Providing Individualised Support					
CTL_PIS1	800	3.83	1.026	-0.721	-0.260
CTL_PIS2	800	3.15	0.811	-0.016	-0.982
CTL_PIS3	800	2.73	1.077	0.086	-1.248
CTL_PIS4	800	3.27	1.276	-0.716	-0.557
Intellectual Stimulation					
CTL_IntS1	800	3.03	1.502	-0.371	-1.437
CTL_IntS2	800	2.86	1.628	0.129	-1.591
CTL_IntS3	800	3.98	0.843	1.330	3.241
Overall Scale Mean					*3.57*
Overall Scale SD					*0.610*

Table 6.3 above shows that the indicators of TLI recorded mean scores ranging from 2.73 to 4.04 with an overall scale mean of 3.57 (SD = 0.610). The skewness values were within the recommended normality range of -1 and +1 except for CTL_FAG4, CTL_HPE1, CTL_HPE£ and CTL_IntS3. Similarly, the kurtosis values were within the suggested normality range of -2 and +2 except for CTL_IntS3 (George & Mallery, 2010).

The descriptive statistics of the students' emotional learning competence (SELC) is reported in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4

Item-Construct Descriptive Statistics: Social Emotional Competence Questionnaire (SECQ)

Item	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Self-Awareness					
SELC_SA1	800	6.54	1.231	-3.347	10.705
SELC_SA2	800	6.50	1.191	-3.079	9.519
SELC_SA3	800	6.59	1.165	-3.492	12.290
SELC_SA4	800	6.60	0.986	-3.908	17.309
SELC_SA5	800	6.70	0.964	-4.400	20.782
Social Awareness					
SELC_SoA1	800	6.52	1.003	-3.387	13.496
SELC_SoA2	800	6.40	1.182	-2.750	7.950
SELC_SoA3	800	6.45	1.266	-2.885	8.188
SELC_SoA4	800	6.48	1.144	-2.786	7.897
SELC_SoA5	800	6.51	1.043	-2.939	9.780
Self-Management					
SELC_SM1	800	3.95	1.239	-0.339	0.970
SELC_SM2	800	3.89	1.210	-0.787	0.279
SELC_SM3	800	3.93	1.127	-0.755	0.821
SELC_SM4	800	3.83	1.247	-0.712	0.211
SELC_SM5	800	3.80	1.125	-0.955	0.233
Relationship Management					
SELC_RM1	800	3.91	1.083	-1.262	1.127
SELC_RM2	800	3.84	0.966	-1.032	0.833
SELC_RM3	800	3.99	1.001	-0.824	1.745
SELC_RM4	800	3.89	1.117	-0.660	0.139
SELC_RM5	800	3.74	1.204	-0.669	-0.040
Responsible Decision-making					
SELC_RDM1	800	3.87	1.119	-0.689	0.377
SELC_RDM2	800	3.98	1.151	-0.824	0.772
SELC_RDM3	800	4.02	1.032	-0.711	0.361

SELC_RDM4	800	3.49	1.068	0.040	-0.095
SELC_RDM5	800	4.14	1.026	-0.566	0.185
Overall Scale Mean					*4.94*
Overall Scale SD					*0.527*

For SELC, the overall mean score was 4.94 (SD = 0.527) with indicator mean scores ranging from 3.49 to 6.70. Neither skewness nor kurtosis values were within the recommended normality range for all indicators of self-awareness and social awareness. In addition, skewness values of two items (i.e. SELC_RM1 and SELC_RM2) of relationship management were not within the recommended normality range of -1 and +1. However, the skewness and kurtosis values were within the recommended normality range for all indicators of responsible decision-making, indicating that scores were normally distributed around the mean.

The next section reports on the test for normality of data.

6.3 TEST FOR NORMALITY OF DATA

Normality tests were run for all constructs. Normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics. The results are presented in Table 6.5 below.

Table 6.5

Test of Normality

Constructs	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
SELC	.317	800	.000	.557	800	.000
CEI	.101	800	.000	.920	800	.000
CTL	.198	800	.000	.776	800	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction						

Table 6.5 depicts the results of testing for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics. Normality of data is assumed if the $p \leq .05$ (Ho & Yu, 2015). The results show that none of the three constructs (i.e. SELC, CEI and CTL) satisfied the assumptions for normality of the data, signifying that non-parametric tests

or analyses would be appropriate. Thus, correlational and inferential statistics should be computed using non-parametric tests.

6.4 CORRELATIONAL STATISTICS

This section provides bivariate correlations among CEI, CTL and SELC. The Spearman's correlation test was used to compute the bivariate correlations between the variables. The results are presented in Table 6.6.

Table 6.6

Correlations among CEI, CTL and SELC

Constructs		**1**	**2**	**3**
1. CEI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	800		
2. CTL	Correlation Coefficient	.318**	1.000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		
	N	800	800	
3. SELC	Correlation Coefficient	.368**	.278**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	
	N	800	800	800

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As depicted in Table 6.6, significant positive correlations were found among all three constructs. Specifically, SELC significantly positively correlated with CEI (r = .368; moderate practical effect; p ≤ .01) and CTL (r = .278; small practical effect; p ≤ .001). This suggests that high levels of positive attitude (emotions) towards CEI and CTL are associated with higher levels of SELC (competencies). Similarly, CEI was found to be significantly and positively correlated with CTL (r = .318; moderate practical effect; p ≤ .01). This suggests that the high levels of positive leadership attitude towards CEI are associated with higher levels of agreement towards CTL.

6. 5 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

To explore the construct dimensions, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was first conducted to check if the proposed factor structures are actually consistent with the current data. EFA was run employing the principal components extraction method with Varimax rotation from a randomly splitted (Hair et al., 2018) dataset (n=388). All the scales employed in this study were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using IBM SPSS (VERSION 25). Prior to conducting the PCA, data suitability for factor analysis was examined using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity.

In this study, the following guidelines were applied in the extraction of the factors (Hair et al., 2014; Gefen & Straub, 2005):

i. Minimum factor loading of 0.5 used to allocate an item to a factor,
ii. Number of factors retained is based on Eigenvalues greater than 1.0,
iii. Varimax rotation method used for factor rotation to clearly load items to factors and gain better interpretation, and
iv. One item or two items factors were dropped (Hair et al., 2014).

6.5.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of WLEIS

The principal component analysis was done on all items of emotional intelligence. This was done to determine whether the factors can be grouped into others emotional appraisal, use of emotion and regulation of emotion. There were 12 items measuring the aspect of emotional intelligence (WLEIS). The Barlett's Test of Sphericity offered a chi-square value of 2617.643 with a p-value of 0.000 indicating sufficient correlations. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.854, exceeding the recommended value of 0.5. Thus, both indicate that a factor analysis is appropriate.

Table 6.7 shows the KMO and Bartlett's test results for Counsellors' emotional intelligence (WLEIS) scale.

Table 6.7

KMO and Bartlett's test for Counsellors' emotional intelligence (WLEIS) scale

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.854
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2617.643
	Df	66
	Sig.	.000

Table 6.8 shows that communalities for counsellors' emotional intelligence

Table 6.8

Counsellors' emotional intelligence (WLEIS): Communalities

Items	**Initial**	**Extraction**
CEI_OEA1	1.000	.742
CEI_OEA2	1.000	.785
CEI_OEA3	1.000	.821
CEI_OEA4	1.000	.686
CEI_UOE1	1.000	.741
CEI_UOE2	1.000	.692
CEI_UOE3	1.000	.626
CEI_UOE4	1.000	.770
CEI_ROE1	1.000	.478
CEI_ROE2	1.000	.714
CEI_ROE3	1.000	.638
CEI_ROE4	1.000	.717

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

The communalities of the items were observed. All items were larger than 0.4. Further, the extracted communalities were exported into Excel and the average communality was calculated which yielded 0.70. This was higher than the recommended value of 0.60, so retaining all factors is probable (MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999).

Rotated Component Matrix for the counsellors' emotional intelligence (WLEIS) is shown in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9

Counsellors' Emotional Intelligence (WLEIS): Rotated Component Matrix[a]

Manifest variables	Component			Action
	1	2	3	
CEI_OEA1	.856	.063	-.078	
CEI_OEA2	.881	.038	-.080	
CEI_OEA3	.893	-.093	-.125	
CEI_OEA4	.810	-.120	.127	
CEI_UOE1	.860	-.022	.022	
CEI_UOE2	.828	.055	.049	
CEI_UOE3	.513	.192	.571	Removed (only two items under component 3)
CEI_UOE4	.578	.266	.605	Removed (only two items under component 3)
CEI_ROE1	-.034	.648	.237	
CEI_ROE2	.413	.182	-.714	Removed due to low factor loading (<0.50)
CEI_ROE3	-.006	.794	-.087	
CEI_ROE4	.024	.841	-.093	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Table 6.10 shows the total variance explained for the counsellors' emotional intelligence (WLEIS) scale.

Table 6.10

Total Variance Explained - Counsellors' emotional intelligence (WLEIS) scale

Total Variance Explained									
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.291	44.089	44.089	5.291	44.089	44.089	5.252	43.765	43.765
2	1.922	16.013	60.102	1.922	16.013	60.102	1.930	16.087	59.853
3	1.196	9.969	70.071	1.196	9.969	70.071	1.226	10.218	70.071
4	.764	6.369	76.440						
5	.623	5.195	81.634						
6	.508	4.235	85.869						
7	.447	3.726	89.595						
8	.377	3.146	92.741						
9	.330	2.750	95.490						
10	.210	1.749	97.240						
11	.184	1.531	98.770						
12	.148	1.230	100.000						
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

From Table 6.9 and 6.10, the principal component analysis revealed a three-factor solution which accounted for 70.1% of total variance in the data. The emotional intelligence construct consisted of three dimensions (i.e. others emotional appraisal (OEA), use of emotion (UOE) and regulation of emotion (ROE)). However, some of the items did not load appropriately and adequately onto the original components.

Thus, factor 3 was omitted from further analyses as it had only two items (CEI_UOE3 and CEI_UOE4) and item CEI_ROE2 was removed due to low factor loading (<0.50). Accordingly, the emotional intelligence construct in this study has been reduced to two dimensions. It was also apparent that two items (i.e. CEI_UOE1 and CEI_UOE2) which were expected to be under UOE rather loaded adequately onto OEA.

Factor 1 was named “Others Emotional Appraisal/Use of Emotion” since it consisted of all the items on use of emotion with two items from UOE. The eigenvalue was 5.29 and it accounted for 44.1 % of the total variation. Factor 2 was named “regulation of

Emotion" since it consisted of three items on regulation of emotion. The eigenvalue was 1.9 and it accounted for 16% of the total variation. This implies that the Use of emotion dimension did not emerge as a separate dimension.
Higher values constitute more of the attribute and lower values constitute less of the attributes. These attributes are further explained in annexure 6.

6.5.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis of the TLI

The principal component analysis was conducted on all items of transformational leadership skills. This was done to determine whether the factors can be grouped into the six dimensions as propounded in the literature. There were 22 items measuring the aspect on transformational leadership skills (TLI). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity gave a chi-square value of 9216.807 with a p-value of 0.000 indicating sufficient correlations. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.842, exceeding the recommended value of 0.5. Consequently, both indicate that a factor analysis is appropriate.

Table 6.11 below shows the KMO and Bartlett's test results for TLI.

Table 6.11

KMO and Bartlett's test for TLI

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.842
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9216.807
	Df	231
	Sig.	.000

Table 6.12 shows that communalities for Counsellors' Transformational leadership skills.

Table 6.12

Counsellors' Transformational Leadership Skills (TLI): Communalities

Items	Initial	Extraction
CTL_IAV1	1.000	.514
CTL_IAV2	1.000	.778
CTL_IAV3	1.000	.764
CTL_IAV4	1.000	.789
CTL_IAV5	1.000	.777
CTL_PAM1	1.000	.729
CTL_PAM2	1.000	.799
CTL_PAM3	1.000	.646
CTL_FAG1	1.000	.706
CTL_FAG2	1.000	.659
CTL_FAG3	1.000	.780
CTL_FAG4	1.000	.953
CTL_HPE1	1.000	.947
CTL_HPE2	1.000	.899
CTL_HPE3	1.000	.960
CTL_PIS1	1.000	.883
CTL_PIS2	1.000	.691
CTL_PIS3	1.000	.642
CTL_PIS4	1.000	.914
CTL_IntS1	1.000	.857
CTL_IntS2	1.000	.899
CTL_IntS3	1.000	.667

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

The communalities of the items were observed. All items were larger than 0.4. More, the extracted communalities were exported into Excel and the average communality was calculated which yielded 0.78. This was higher than the recommended value of 0.60, so retaining all factors is probable (MacCallum et al., 1999).

Rotated Component Matrix for the TLI is shown in Table 6.13 below.

Table 6.13

Counsellors' Transformational leadership skills: Rotated Component Matrix[a]

Manifest variables	Component					Action
	1	2	3	4	5	
CTL_IAV1	-.095	.660	-.028	.022	-.261	
CTL_IAV2	-.025	.859	.040	.133	-.144	
CTL_IAV3	-.070	.863	.024	.006	-.117	
CTL_IAV4	.061	.867	.025	-.066	.170	
CTL_IAV5	.016	.870	-.001	-.058	.126	
CTL_PAM1	.087	.839	.060	.004	.121	
CTL_PAM2	-.036	.882	.045	.016	.131	
CTL_PAM3	.015	.798	.081	.028	.044	
CTL_FAG1	-.019	.054	-.022	-.048	.837	Removed (only two items under component 5)
CTL_FAG2	-.014	.015	-.007	-.065	.809	Removed (only two items under component 5)
CTL_FAG3	.835	.035	.155	.097	.219	
CTL_FAG4	.908	.005	.289	-.197	-.072	
CTL_HPE1	.945	.015	.225	-.033	-.036	
CTL_HPE2	.938	-.095	.050	.044	-.077	
CTL_HPE3	.912	.000	.293	-.196	-.061	
CTL_PIS1	.921	-.018	.185	-.025	-.012	Cannot be assigned in a meaningful way
CTL_PIS2	-.419	.013	-.114	.707	-.047	Removed (only two items under component 4)
CTL_PIS3	-.039	.056	-.395	.692	.042	Removed (only two items under component 4)
CTL_PIS4	.464	.061	.784	-.280	.045	
CTL_IntS1	.342	.145	.843	.090	-.012	
CTL_IntS2	.337	.038	.883	-.053	-.045	
CTL_IntS3	-.112	-.001	-.195	-.773	.138	Removed due to low factor loading (<0.50)

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

The following Table 6.14 shows the total variance explained for the TLI scale.

Table 6.14

Total Variance Explained - Counsellors' transformational leadership skills (TLI) scale

Total Variance Explained									
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.887	31.306	31.306	6.887	31.306	31.306	5.639	25.631	25.631
2	5.609	25.495	56.801	5.609	25.495	56.801	5.588	25.402	51.033
3	1.871	8.504	65.305	1.871	8.504	65.305	2.609	11.859	62.892
4	1.597	7.260	72.565	1.597	7.260	72.565	1.790	8.134	71.026
5	1.288	5.854	78.418	1.288	5.854	78.418	1.626	7.392	78.418
6	.778	3.537	81.955						
7	.664	3.017	84.972						
8	.604	2.746	87.718						
9	.488	2.216	89.934						
10	.387	1.761	91.694						
11	.330	1.501	93.195						
12	.295	1.339	94.534						
13	.253	1.151	95.685						
14	.226	1.025	96.711						
15	.176	.800	97.511						
16	.145	.658	98.169						
17	.129	.584	98.753						
18	.107	.484	99.237						
19	.089	.404	99.642						
20	.050	.227	99.868						
21	.022	.100	99.969						
22	.007	.031	100.000						
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

From Table 6.14, the EFA for the transformational leadership construct extracted a five-factor solution, explaining 78.4% of the total variance with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (refer to Table 6.14). The six-factor structure is not considered self-evident in this sample.

Following the guideline provided by Hair et al. (2014), factor 4 and 5 were omitted from further analyses as factor 4 and 5 had only two items each. Item CTL_IntS3 was removed due to low factor loadings (<0.50) while item CTL_PIS1 was dropped because it cannot be assigned in any meaningful way. Consequently, the structure was reduced to a three-factor structure. Thus, the factor loadings show this construct has been reduced to three factors.

The first one relating to Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals and High-Performance Expectations dimension. The second one to Identifying and Articulating a Vision and Providing an Appropriate Model dimension and the last to one to Providing Individualized Support and Intellectual Stimulation dimension. All the three factors had an eigenvalue of more than one. Factor 1 accounted for 31.3% of variance with an eigenvalue of 6.89. Factor 2 accounted for 25.5% of variance with an eigenvalue of 5.6. Factor 3 accounted for 8.5% of variance with an eigenvalue of 1.87. The three-factor model accounted for 65.3% of total variance in the data. The accepted variance of a factor analysis for a construct is 60% (Hair et al., 2012).

6.5.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis of the SECQ

The principal component analysis was done on all 25 items of students' social and emotional learning competences. This was done to determine whether the factors can be grouped into five dimensions. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity gave a chi-square value of 6962.737 with a p-value of 0.000 indicating sufficient correlations. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.856, exceeding the threshold of 0.5. Thus, both indicate that a factor analysis is appropriate.

The following Table 6.15 shows the KMO and Bartlett's test results for the SECQ scale.

Table 6.15

KMO and Bartlett's test for SELC

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.856
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6962.737
	Df	300
	Sig.	.000

Table 6.16 shows that communalities for SECQ scale.

Table 6.16

Students' social and emotional learning competences and outcomes: Communalities

Items	Initial	Extraction
SELC_SA1	1.000	.816
SELC_SA2	1.000	.845
SELC_SA3	1.000	.893
SELC_SA4	1.000	.719
SELC_SA5	1.000	.701
SELC_SoA1	1.000	.709
SELC_SoA2	1.000	.784
SELC_SoA3	1.000	.758
SELC_SoA4	1.000	.818
SELC_SoA5	1.000	.658
SELC_SM1	1.000	.532
SELC_SM2	1.000	.749
SELC_SM3	1.000	.709
SELC_SM4	1.000	.754
SELC_SM5	1.000	.597
SELC_RM1	1.000	.621
SELC_RM2	1.000	.628
SELC_RM3	1.000	.500
SELC_RM4	1.000	.586
SELC_RM5	1.000	.722
SELC_RDM1	1.000	.728
SELC_RDM2	1.000	.535

SELC_RDM3	1.000	.645
SELC_RDM4	1.000	.937
SELC_RDM5	1.000	.543

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

The communalities of the items were observed. All items were larger than 0.4. More, the extracted communalities were exported into Excel and the average communality was calculated which yielded 0.69. This was higher than the recommended value of 0.60, so retaining all factors is probable (MacCallum et al., 1999).

Rotated Component Matrix for the SECQ scale is shown in the next Table 6.17.

Table 6.27

Students' social and emotional learning competences and outcomes: Rotated Component Matrix[a]

Manifest Variables	**Component**					**Action**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	
SELC_SA1	.013	.204	.879	-.025	.025	
SELC_SA2	.013	.302	.863	-.008	.091	
SELC_SA3	.037	.313	.890	.003	.032	
SELC_SA4	.004	.472	.703	-.039	.017	
SELC_SA5	-.002	.623	.558	.009	-.044	Cannot be assigned in a meaningful way
SELC_SoA1	.002	.688	.484	.038	-.014	
SELC_SoA2	.004	.844	.266	-.003	.004	
SELC_SoA3	.010	.833	.247	-.042	-.040	
SELC_SoA4	.007	.860	.275	-.043	.039	
SELC_SoA5	-.044	.805	.064	.032	.050	
SELC_SM1	.115	.034	-.037	.702	.155	
SELC_SM2	.564	-.061	-.001	.654	-.013	
SELC_SM3	.523	-.015	-.055	.654	-.060	
SELC_SM4	.479	-.026	.038	.722	-.036	
SELC_SM5	.616	-.002	-.008	.464	-.045	Cannot be assigned in a meaningful way
SELC_RM1	.723	-.017	.047	.308	-.034	
SELC_RM2	.771	.015	-.032	.179	.020	

SELC_RM3	.689	-.011	.052	.143	-.050	
SELC_RM4	.751	.010	.018	.085	.115	
SELC_RM5	.835	-.026	-.016	.032	.153	
SELC_RDM1	.841	.022	-.003	-.002	.146	Cannot be assigned in a meaningful way
SELC_RDM2	.685	-.003	.015	.205	.155	Cannot be assigned in a meaningful way
SELC_RDM3	.245	.032	-.042	-.158	.747	
SELC_RDM4	.167	.052	.040	.035	.951	
SELC_RDM5	-.067	-.052	.104	.205	.695	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

The following Table 6.18 shows the total variance explained for the SECQ scale.

Table 6.38

Total Variance Explained - SECQ scale

Total Variance Explained									
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.479	25.917	25.917	6.479	25.917	25.917	5.339	21.356	21.356
2	6.325	25.299	51.216	6.325	25.299	51.216	4.122	16.490	37.846
3	2.038	8.154	59.370	2.038	8.154	59.370	3.590	14.359	52.205
4	1.394	5.575	64.945	1.394	5.575	64.945	2.357	9.430	61.635
5	1.252	5.007	69.952	1.252	5.007	69.952	2.079	8.317	69.952
6	.915	3.661	73.613						
7	.816	3.262	76.875						
8	.642	2.567	79.442						
9	.588	2.351	81.792						
10	.533	2.132	83.925						
11	.516	2.065	85.989						
12	.448	1.790	87.779						
13	.402	1.608	89.387						
14	.348	1.392	90.780						
15	.330	1.319	92.099						

16	.315	1.259	93.358						
17	.292	1.167	94.524						
18	.254	1.015	95.540						
19	.233	.933	96.473						
20	.204	.817	97.290						
21	.200	.802	98.092						
22	.174	.695	98.787						
23	.134	.536	99.323						
24	.093	.372	99.695						
25	.076	.305	100.000						
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

From Table 6.18, the principal component analysis revealed a five-factor solution which accounted for 69.9% of the total variation (see Table 6.18). Items SELC_SM5, SELC_RDM1, SELC_RDM2 were deleted because they could not be assigned in any meaningful way (they could not fit into any of the dimensions). Likewise, item SELC_SA5 was removed due to cross loading. Thus, items SELC_SM5, SELC_RDM1, SELC_RDM2 and SELC_SA5 were deleted from further analysis.

Factor 1 accounted for 25.9% of variance with an eigenvalue of 6.5. Factor 2 accounted for 25.3% of variance with an eigenvalue of 6.3. Factor 3 accounted for 8.2% of variance with an eigenvalue of 2.0. Factor 4 accounted for 5.6% of variance with an eigenvalue of 1.4 and Factor 5 accounted for 5.0% of variance with an eigenvalue of 1.3.

6.6 PLS-SEM RESULTS

Since the constructs used in the study were higher-order constructs (HOC), a two-stage technique in PLS-SEM was used to cater for the impact of HOCs on the model (Becker, Klein & Wetzels, 2012). Becker, Klein & Wetzels (2012) posit that the two-stage approach can be applied if the researcher is only interested in the higher-level estimates, for instance the path coefficient to and from the higher-order constructs. The two-stage approach starts by estimating the scores of first-order constructs in the first stage. In the second stage, the scores obtained from the first stage are used as indicators for the second-order construct; at the same time the path coefficients

between other constructs are estimated (Hair et al., 2011). Thus, at first the researcher calculated the model with the reflective first-order constructs and then used the latent variable scores as the formative indicators of the second-order constructs. Consequently, this study utilised a reflective-formative HOC model (Type II).

6.6.1 Measurement model assessment (CFA)

This section of the analysis reports on the reliability and validity of the latent variables. The 46 indicators, which were retained after PCA analysis, were assigned to their respective latent variables. Then, the SmartPLS version 3.2.8 (Ringle et al., 2015) was run to generate the pictorial and calculation results of reliability, convergent and discriminant validity. The results of this process are reported in Tables 6.19, 6.20, 6.21, 6.22 and Figure 6.1 below.

6.6.1.1 Reliability and convergent validity of sub-constructs

The item loading, construct reliability and convergent validity are reported in Table 6.19.

Table 6.19

Results on Reliability and Convergent Validity of Sub-Constructs

Latent variable	Indicator	Loadings	CA	rho_A	CR	AVE
CEI_OEA/UOE	CEI_OEA1	0.856	0.930	0.937	0.945	0.741
	CEI_OEA2	0.874				
	CEI_OEA3	0.906				
	CEI_OEA4	0.812				
	CEI_UOE1	0.870				
	CEI_UOE2	0.841				
CEI_ROE	CEI_ROE1	0.479	0.688	0.820	0.809	0.600
	CEI_ROE3	0.902				
	CEI_ROE4	0.870				
CTL_FAG/HPE	CTL_FAG3	0.841	0.966	0.994	0.974	0.881
	CTL_FAG4	0.974				
	CTL_HPE1	0.979				

	CTL_HPE2	0.914				
	CTL_HPE3	0.976				
CTL_IAV/PAM	CTL_IAV1	0.711	0.934	0.937	0.946	0.687
	CTL_IAV2	0.863				
	CTL_IAV3	0.864				
	CTL_IAV4	0.858				
	CTL_IAV5	0.844				
	CTL_PAM1	0.832				
	CTL_PAM2	0.847				
	CTL_PAM3	0.799				
CTL_IntS/PIS	CTL_IntS1	0.948	0.934	0.961	0.957	0.882
	CTL_IntS2	0.931				
	CTL_PIS4	0.939				
SELC_RDM	SELC_RDM3	0.805	0.736	0.781	0.856	0.671
	SELC_RDM4	0.975				
	SELC_RDM5	0.643				
SELC_RM	SELC_RM1	0.783	0.850	0.853	0.893	0.625
	SELC_RM2	0.818				
	SELC_RM3	0.736				
	SELC_RM4	0.800				
	SELC_RM5	0.814				
SELC_SA	SELC_SA1	0.866	0.903	0.920	0.933	0.779
	SELC_SA2	0.933				
	SELC_SA3	0.950				
	SELC_SA4	0.770				
SELC_SM	SELC_SM1	0.627	0.839	0.870	0.894	0.682
	SELC_SM2	0.896				
	SELC_SM3	0.870				
	SELC_SM4	0.880				
SELC_SoA	SELC_SoA1	0.791	0.902	0.911	0.927	0.719
	SELC_SoA2	0.879				
	SELC_SoA3	0.869				
	SELC_SoA4	0.907				
	SELC_SoA5	0.787				

Note: CA = Cronbach's Alpha; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

In Table 6.19, the outer loadings, Cronbach's alpha, rho_A, composite reliability and AVE for the sub-constructs are reported. Based on the analysis, the indicator loadings range from 0.479 to 0.979. Three indicators had loadings less than the recommended

threshold of 0.7. However, since this study is exploratory in nature and the reliability and validity measures are adequate, these indicators were maintained (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2018). Furthermore, Hair et al. (2017) and Hullard (1999) suggested a threshold of 0.40 for item loadings and any item less than this value must be deleted.

The reliability (using Cronbach's alpha, rho_A and composite reliability) of the latent variables was above 0.7 except the ROE which recorded a Cronbach's alpha score of 0.688. Although this looks unacceptable, in PLS-SEM modelling more reliance is placed on the results of the composite reliability (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2009) and rho_A than the Cronbach's alpha (Dijkstra & Henseler, 2015). This is because the Cronbach's alpha provides a severe underestimation of the internal consistency reliability of the latent variable in the PLS model (Henseler et al., 2009). Consequently, since the composite reliability and rho_A indicators satisfy the minimum acceptable threshold of 0.7, internal consistency has been achieved. In addition, the average variance extracted (AVE) for each of the latent variables was above the 0.50 cut-off point. This demonstrates adequate convergent validity for all the latent variables.

Figure 6.1 depicts the first-order measurement model from the SmartPLS 3.2.8 software.

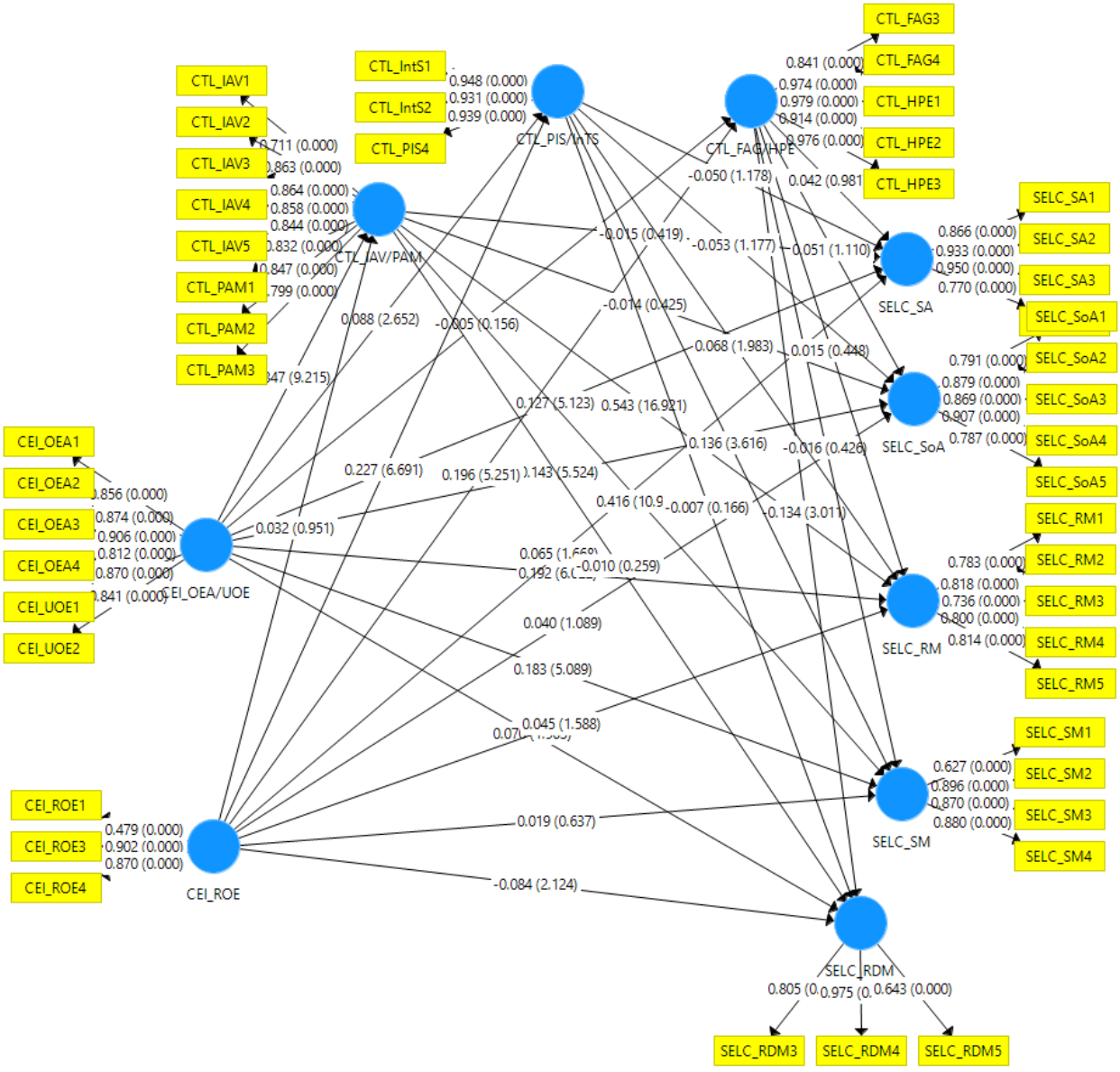

Figure 6.1: First-order Factor Model (First Stage)

Notes. *Boxes = indicators; items measures*

Circles = Sub-construct; latent variables

Lines/Arrows = Paths; the various relationships

Figure 6.1 above illustrates the utilisation of the reflective first-order constructs as discussed in detail earlier in section 6.4. The arrows indicate the path coefficient to and from the first-order constructs. The arrows to the item measures (yellow boxes), are the indicators of the first-order constructs. These first-order constructs were examined for reliability and validity (confirmatory factor analysis), of which the

formative second-order construct emerged using latent scores. Thus, the scores obtained from the reflective first-order constructs are used as indicators for the second-order construct.

As explained earlier, CTL, CEI and SELC are aggregate multidimensional constructs caused by their component dimensions which are OEA, ROE, SA, SoA and others. As a result, CTL, CEI and SELC are higher-order constructs caused by, or having meaning because of, their dimensions (lower-order constructs). In these multidimensional constructs, overall CTL, CEI and SELC cannot be observed directly; rather, they are composites given meaning by their component facets. In both the latent and aggregate cases, the underlying multidimensional constructs (CTL, CEI and SELC) are not measured directly, but instead represent the conceptual (and empirical) variance common to the underlying dimensions (Bollen & Lennox, 1991; Bollen & Ting, 2000; Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000). Hence, the application of a reflective-formative model (i.e. reflective for the lower-level model and formative for the higher-order model). All in all, the higher-order constructs are formative, they are a combination of several specific (latent) dimensions in a general concept (Becker et al., 2012; Edwards, 2001; Wetzels et al., 2009). The model for the formative second-order constructs is shown in Figure 6.2.

6.6.1.2 Discriminant validity of subconstructs (latent variables)

In this section, the discriminant validity of the subconstructs is examined. Three approaches to assessing the discriminant validity of the constructs (Fornell and Larcker criterion, the cross loadings and the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) approach) were applied. The results are depicted in Tables 6.20, 6.21 and 6.22.

In Table 6.20, the discriminant validity of the latent variables using the Fornell-Larcker criterion is reported.

Table 6.20

Fornell and Larcker Criterion of Discriminant Validity for Latent Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. CEI_OEA/UOE	***0.861***									
2. CEI_ROE	0.025	***0.775***								
3. CTL_FAG/HPE	-0.001	0.196	***0.939***							
4. CTL_IAV/PAM	0.348	0.040	0.081	***0.829***						
5. CTL_PIS/InTS	0.094	0.229	0.621	0.167	***0.939***					
6. SELC_RDM	0.064	-0.110	-0.155	-0.001	-0.105	***0.819***				
7. SELC_RM	0.388	0.091	0.110	0.624	0.196	0.143	***0.791***			
8. SELC_SA	0.119	0.065	0.022	0.027	0.000	0.057	-0.010	***0.883***		
9. SELC_SM	0.341	0.069	0.106	0.502	0.217	0.058	0.650	-0.049	***0.826***	
10. SELC_SoA	0.134	0.041	0.025	0.033	-0.001	0.032	0.000	0.554	0.004	***0.848***

From Table 6.20, the square roots of the AVEs are shown on the diagonals; the figures below the diagonals are the correlations between the constructs. From the table, all figures on the diagonals are greater than the figures below them, which indicates that discriminant validity is assured. According to Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, and Mena (2012), discriminant validity using the Fornell-Larcker criterion at the construct level can be achieved if the square root of the AVE is greater than the highest correlation between the latent variable and the other constructs.

Table 6.21 below shows the discriminant validity of the latent variables using the cross-loading criterion.

Table 6.21

Cross-loading Criterion for the Discriminant Validity of Latent Variables

Items	CEI_OEA /UOE	CEI_ ROE	CTL_FAG -HPE	CTL_IAV -PAM	CTL_PIS _InTS	SELC_ RDM	SELC _RM	SELC _SA	SELC _SM	SELC_ SoA
CEI_OE A1	**0.856**	0.058	0.012	0.328	0.097	0.011	0.346	0.079	0.339	0.094
CEI_OE A2	**0.874**	0.073	0.042	0.300	0.104	-0.029	0.359	0.118	0.320	0.123
CEI_OE A3	**0.906**	-0.037	-0.010	0.390	0.117	0.086	0.346	0.088	0.315	0.129
CEI_OE A4	**0.812**	-0.044	-0.031	0.202	0.025	0.059	0.283	0.098	0.227	0.102

CEI_UOE1	**0.870**	-0.003	-0.033	0.251	0.037	0.114	0.348	0.099	0.265	0.107
CEI_UOE2	**0.841**	0.070	0.007	0.294	0.084	0.098	0.314	0.136	0.275	0.135
CEI_ROE1	-0.037	**0.479**	-0.018	0.000	0.075	0.002	0.035	0.098	0.028	0.028
CEI_ROE3	0.023	**0.902**	0.218	0.012	0.232	-0.112	0.073	0.033	0.060	0.025
CEI_ROE4	0.033	**0.870**	0.150	0.070	0.178	-0.095	0.092	0.070	0.064	0.049
CTL_FAG3	-0.012	0.162	**0.841**	0.112	0.463	-0.125	0.037	0.036	0.043	0.036
CTL_FAG4	0.005	0.198	**0.974**	0.091	0.664	-0.150	0.140	0.026	0.139	0.026
CTL_HPE1	0.016	0.190	**0.979**	0.086	0.612	-0.153	0.118	0.018	0.112	0.019
CTL_HPE2	-0.020	0.146	**0.914**	-0.006	0.438	-0.129	0.056	0.004	0.032	0.012
CTL_HPE3	-0.002	0.208	**0.976**	0.081	0.666	-0.164	0.128	0.021	0.129	0.024
CTL_IAV1	0.323	0.036	0.001	**0.711**	0.114	0.060	0.490	0.013	0.402	-0.006
CTL_IAV2	0.336	-0.035	0.029	**0.863**	0.142	-0.026	0.588	0.003	0.450	0.005
CTL_IAV3	0.309	0.029	0.004	**0.864**	0.117	-0.025	0.588	0.017	0.463	0.030
CTL_IAV4	0.256	0.108	0.131	**0.858**	0.170	-0.002	0.576	0.044	0.378	0.053
CTL_IAV5	0.280	0.050	0.128	**0.844**	0.128	-0.006	0.472	0.027	0.391	0.033
CTL_PAM1	0.271	0.068	0.142	**0.832**	0.173	-0.031	0.445	0.017	0.386	0.036
CTL_PAM2	0.277	-0.015	0.024	**0.847**	0.090	0.051	0.474	0.025	0.376	0.042
CTL_PAM3	0.244	0.035	0.096	**0.799**	0.171	-0.019	0.472	0.035	0.465	0.027
CTL_IntS1	0.128	0.244	0.529	0.201	**0.948**	-0.091	0.225	-0.006	0.237	-0.019
CTL_IntS2	0.071	0.175	0.569	0.123	**0.931**	-0.097	0.153	-0.002	0.188	0.015
CTL_PIS4	0.054	0.218	0.669	0.131	**0.939**	-0.109	0.161	0.011	0.175	0.007
SELC_RDM3	0.045	-0.133	-0.103	-0.028	-0.076	**0.805**	0.141	0.046	0.034	0.027
SELC_RDM4	0.081	-0.108	-0.137	0.023	-0.097	**0.975**	0.154	0.060	0.076	0.044
SELC_RDM5	0.023	-0.018	-0.146	-0.002	-0.084	**0.643**	0.040	0.029	0.026	0.000

SELC_RM1	0.338	0.073	0.012	0.474	0.152	0.093	**0.783**	-0.027	0.590	-0.017
SELC_RM2	0.335	0.027	0.043	0.539	0.142	0.088	**0.818**	-0.003	0.543	0.010
SELC_RM3	0.274	0.002	0.075	0.441	0.110	0.069	**0.736**	0.001	0.457	0.021
SELC_RM4	0.281	0.139	0.139	0.506	0.195	0.135	**0.800**	-0.009	0.495	0.006
SELC_RM5	0.305	0.107	0.161	0.503	0.170	0.172	**0.814**	-0.002	0.483	-0.016
SELC_SA1	0.107	0.030	0.031	0.041	0.016	0.039	0.005	**0.866**	-0.046	0.423
SELC_SA2	0.120	0.043	0.027	0.015	-0.003	0.078	-0.021	**0.933**	-0.044	0.499
SELC_SA3	0.118	0.071	0.016	0.021	0.002	0.052	-0.003	**0.950**	-0.032	0.507
SELC_SA4	0.068	0.087	0.002	0.021	-0.016	0.026	-0.017	**0.770**	-0.054	0.540
SELC_SM1	0.160	0.076	0.125	0.269	0.202	0.095	0.327	-0.010	**0.627**	0.037
SELC_SM2	0.332	0.053	0.088	0.463	0.192	0.063	0.642	-0.042	**0.896**	-0.015
SELC_SM3	0.289	0.023	0.107	0.497	0.146	-0.001	0.549	-0.061	**0.870**	0.004
SELC_SM4	0.317	0.087	0.042	0.391	0.192	0.055	0.579	-0.039	**0.880**	0.000
SELC_SoA1	0.096	0.017	0.019	0.037	0.001	0.021	-0.015	0.588	-0.013	**0.791**
SELC_SoA2	0.136	0.029	0.019	0.030	-0.001	0.013	-0.011	0.473	0.004	**0.879**
SELC_SoA3	0.104	0.043	0.014	0.023	-0.022	-0.002	0.002	0.447	0.001	**0.869**
SELC_SoA4	0.122	0.046	0.004	0.032	-0.014	0.054	0.016	0.467	0.008	**0.907**
SELC_SoA5	0.104	0.038	0.052	0.017	0.033	0.047	0.009	0.392	0.015	**0.787**

Table 6.21 reveals that the outer loading of each indicator was greater on its respective latent variable than its cross-loadings on any other latent variables. This also confirms that discriminant validity was achieved.

In the next table, Table 6.22, the discriminant validity of the latent variables using the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) analysis criterion is reported.

Table 6.22

Results of Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) Analysis Criterion for the Discriminant Validity of Sub-constructs

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. CEI_OEA/UOE										
2. CEI_ROE	0.084									
3. FAG-HPE	0.032	0.201								
4. IAV-PAM	0.365	0.091	0.103							
5. PIS_InTS	0.096	0.253	0.643	0.174						
6. SELC_RDM	0.097	0.145	0.187	0.066	0.129					
7. SELC_RM	0.434	0.139	0.124	0.694	0.213	0.172				
8. SELC_SA	0.129	0.110	0.025	0.034	0.014	0.068	0.022			
9. SELC_SM	0.374	0.089	0.118	0.556	0.248	0.091	0.757	0.055		
10. SELC_SoA	0.144	0.058	0.029	0.041	0.027	0.043	0.025	0.626	0.026	

For discriminant validity, the latest criteria for evaluating discriminant validity, the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratios, were considered. All HTMT values (Table 6.22) were below the threshold of 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2015) or 0.90 (Hair et al., 2013), and this thus confirms that discriminant validity was attained.

6.6.1.3 Assessment of Formative Second-order Model Constructs (Second Stage)

In order to assess the relevance of the model, collinearity diagnostic checks were conducted by estimating the variance inflation factor (VIF) for the indicators of the various constructs.

Figure 6.2, and Tables 6.23 and 6.24 illustrate the assessment of formative second-order constructs. Figure 6.2 shows the weights and significance of outer weights for the formative second-order constructs.

Table 6.23

Collinearity Statistics (VIF)

Second-order construct	First-order construct	VIF
CEI	CEI_OEA/UOE	1.001
	CEI_ROE	1.001
CTL	CTL_FAG/HPE	1.631
	CTL_IAV/PAM	1.030
	CTL_PIS/InTS	1.666
SELC	SELC_RDM	1.026
	SELC_RM	1.766
	SELC_SA	1.453
	SELC_SM	1.742
	SELC_SoA	1.445

As revealed in the Table 6.23, the VIF values for each of the formative second-order constructs are lower than the threshold value of 3.3 (Diamantopoulous & Siguaw, 2006). This suggests that these constructs are distinct and are measuring different aspects of their respective higher-order constructs. Hence, there is no multicollinearity problem.

Figure 6.2 below portrays the formative second-order model (second stage):

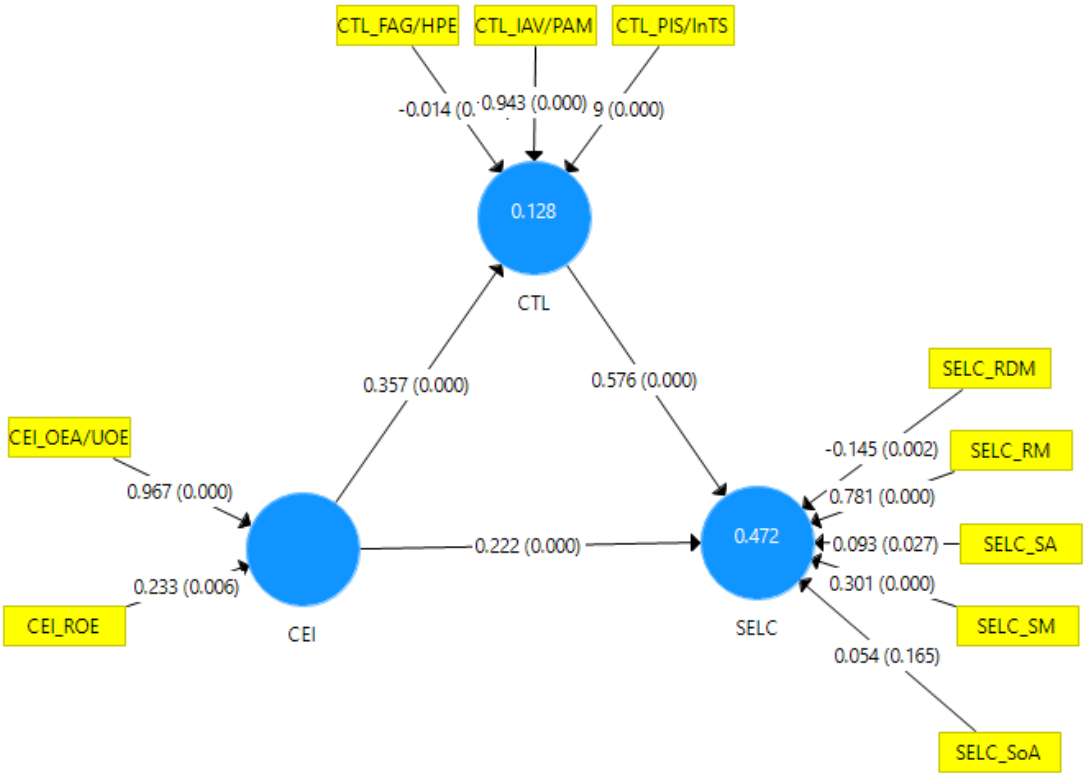

Figure 6.2: Formative Second-order Model (Second Stage)

Boxes = First-order construct (sub-dimensions)

Circles = Second-order construct

Lines/Arrows = Paths; the various relationships

As Figure 6.2 shows, all indicators of the second-order constructs were significant at $p < 0.05$ except for FAG/HPE and SoA. The general criteria for the validity of formative constructs require that insignificant elements should not be erased, but preserved (Henseler et al., 2009, 2016). Consequently, both significant and insignificant indicators (i.e. first-order constructs/subconstructs) were retained for further analysis. In support of this, Hair et al. (2017) are of the opinion that an indicator that results in an insignificant outer weight should be retained rather than deleted, provided its corresponding outer loading is at least 0.50, or statistically significant. Following this, Table 6.24 displays the outer loadings for all indicators. FAG/HPE and SoA were below 0.50, hence this failed the first criterion for retention. However, the table

indicates that they are significant at $p < 0.05$; hence they met the second criterion for retention.

Table 6.24

Path Assessment

Path for all indicators	Loading	P-values
CTL_FAG/HPE -> CTL	0.198	0.003
SELC_SoA -> SELC	0.102	0.035
CTL_IAV/PAM -> CTL	0.978	0.000
CTL_PIS/InTS -> CTL	0.367	0.000
SELC_SoA -> SELC	0.102	0.035
SELC_RDM -> SELC	-0.009	0.870
SELC_RM -> SELC	0.955	0.000
SELC_SA -> SELC	0.092	0.089
SELC_SM -> SELC	0.795	0.000
CEI_OEA/UOE -> CEI	0.972	0.000
CEI_ROE -> CEI	0.257	0.005

6.6.2 Structural model assessment

This section discusses the results of the PLS-SEM technique used to analyse the relationships among the study constructs based on the conceptual framework of the study.

6.6.2.1 Model fit results using SRMR

In terms of fit indices, SRMR (standardised root mean square residual value) was used (Hu & Bentler, 1998); this needs to be smaller than 0.08. This fit index must be met before the hypotheses of the proposed model can be tested (Fındıklı et al., 2015).

The model fit index is presented in Table 6.25 below.

Table 6.25

Results of SRMR

Criterion	Saturated model	Estimated model
SRMR	0.053	0.053

Regarding the model, the SRMR was found to be 0.053, which is less than the 0.08 threshold. This implies that there is a good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1998). Therefore, hypothesis H_1 is supported and the rest of the hypotheses of the proposed model can be tested.

6.6.2.2 Evaluation of path coefficients and hypothesis testing

The results of the structural equation model are presented in Table 6.26 below.

Table 6.26

Results of Path Coefficients

Hypotheses	Path	B	T-value	p-Values	f^2	Remarks
H_2	CEI -> CTL	0.357	9.745	0.000	0.146	Supported
H_3	CEI -> SELC	0.222	6.716	0.000	0.082	Supported
H_4	CTL -> SELC	0.576	18.984	0.000	0.549	Supported
H_5	CEI -> CTL -> SELC	0.206	8.956	0.000	-	Supported

According to Chin (2010) and Hair et al. (2013), the values for f^2 of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 represent small, medium and large effect sizes respectively. As summarised in Table 6.26, the predictive effect size of CEI on CTL was 0.146 which is close to medium effect size. The effect size of CEI on SELC was 0.082, which was small. In contrast, the effect size of CTL on SELC was the largest with f^2 of 0.549 indicating a large effect size.

As shown in Table 6.26 and in Figures 6.3 and 6.4, all the path relationships were found to be significantly positive. Specifically, the estimated results indicate a positive significant relation between CEI and CTL (β = 0.357; t = 9.745; p = .000) and SELC (β = 0.222; t = 6.716; p = .000), lending support for hypotheses H_2 and H_3. A positive and significant relation was also found between CTL and SELC (β = 0.576; t = 18.984; p = .000), consequently providing support for hypothesis H_4. Finally, CTL was found to partially mediate the relationship between CEI and SELC (β = 0.206; t = 8.956; p = .000) which supports H_5.

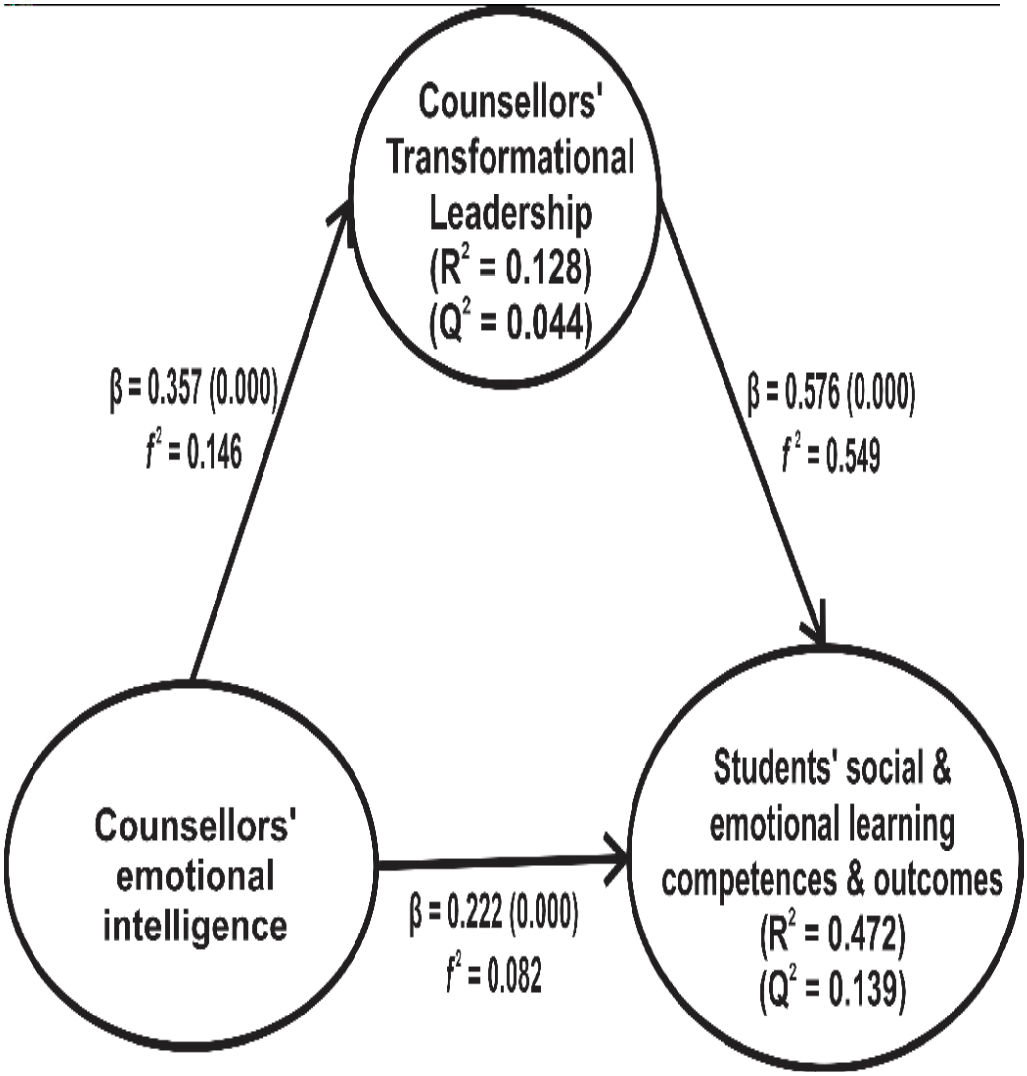

Figure 6.3: Final Structural Model with Path Coefficients, R^2, Q^2 and f^2

Figure 6.3 shows all the part relationships that were established, as shown in Table 6.26. All the path relationships were found to be significantly positive, indicating a positive significant relationship between counsellors' EI and counsellors' transformational leadership.

In determining the mediation effect of CTL on the CEI-SELC relation, the steps as proposed by Nitzl et al. (2016) were followed. According to these researchers, for PLS-SEM, a significant indirect effect is the only prerequisite for establishing a mediation effect. Consequently, variance accounted for (VAF) was estimated by dividing the indirect effect by the total effect. Table 6.27 shows the VAF estimates.

Table 6.27

VAF for the Mediation Effect of CTL

Path	Indirect Effect	Direct Effect	Total Effect	VAF
CEI -> CTL -> SELC	0.206	0.222	0.428	0.481

As shown in Table 6.27, the estimated result of VAF was 0.481 which falls between the margin of 0.20 < VAF < 0.80 (Hair et al., 2013). Accordingly, it can be inferred that 48.1% of the effect of CEI on SELC is explained through the mediation of the CTL.

6.6.2.3 The coefficient of determination (R^2)

The R^2 measures the amount of variance in the dependent variable that can be accounted for by the independent variable(s). The R^2 ranges from 0 to 1, with higher levels indicating more predictive accuracy. As a rule of thumb, R^2 values of 0.75, 0.5, and 0.25 may be considered substantial, moderate and weak, respectively (Hair et al., 2012). The R^2 coefficient is shown in Table 6.28 and Figure 6.2.

Table 6.28

Results of the Coefficient of Determination Analysis

Construct	R square	R square adjusted
CTL	0.128	0.126
SELC	0.472	0.471

From Table 6.28, the coefficient of determination (R^2) is 0.128 for CTL. This implies that CEI explains 12.8% of the variance in CTL and by extension has weak predictive value. With regard to the SELC, the CEI and CTL explain 47.2% of the variance in SELC and these have average predictive power. The final structure and mediation model of the study (see Figure 6.4) is presented in the next section.

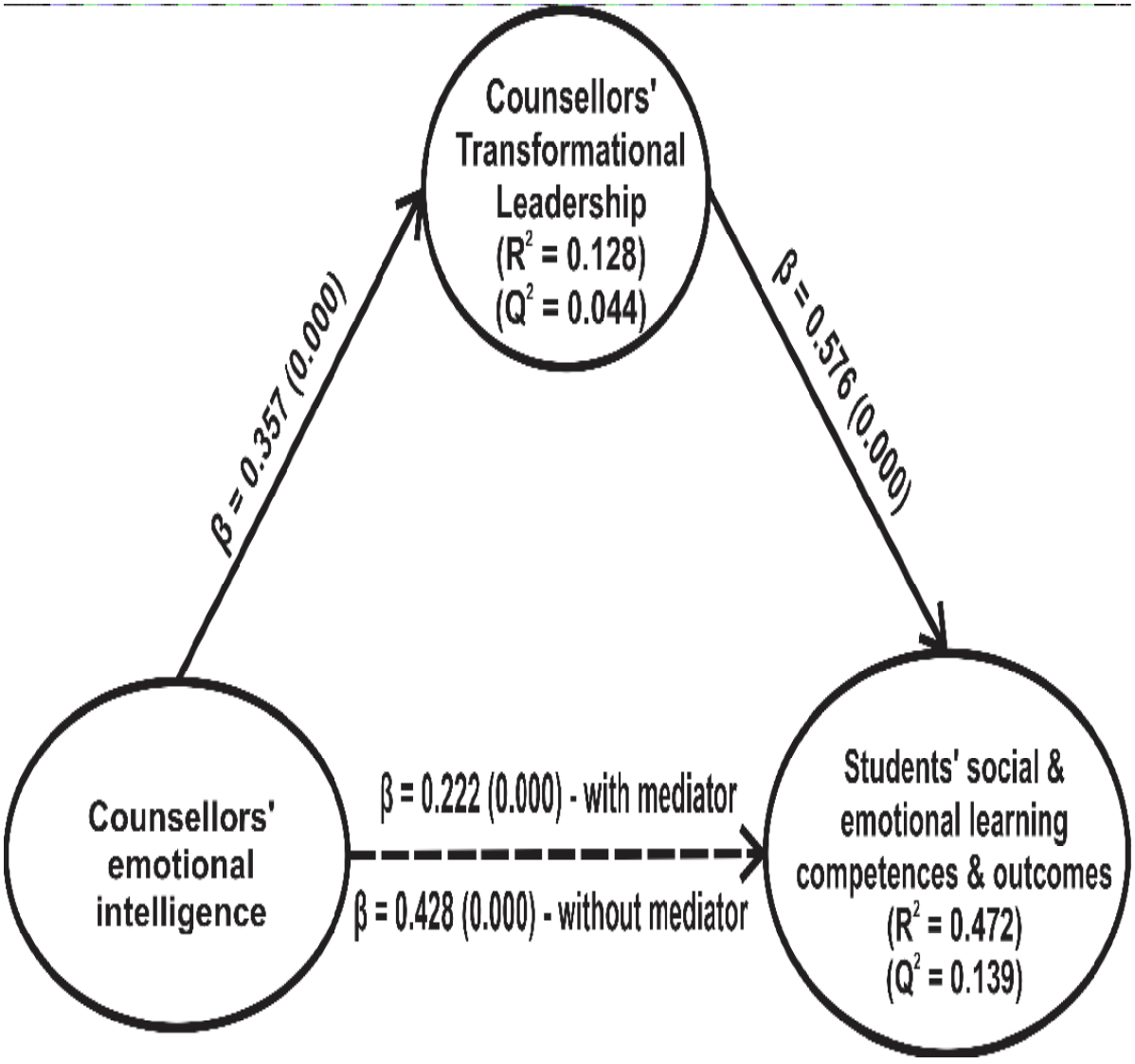

Figure 6.4: Final Structural and Mediation Model

The above figure illustrates the final structure and the mediation effect of the study. The figure shows that all path relationships were established to be significantly positive. Again, counsellors' transformational leadership was found to a certain degree to (partial) mediate the relationship between CEI and students' SELC as explained in detail in the previous sections above. This shows that counsellors' transformational leadership has some positive effect on CEI and students' SEL outcomes.

6.6.2.4 Blindfolding

The "blindfolding" procedure which assumes that a part of the raw data matrix is missing during the estimation of the parameters was used to estimate the predictive relevance of the model. According to Fornell and Cha (1994), if this test criterion is larger than 0, the model is considered to have predictive validity, otherwise the model cannot be granted predictive relevance (Fornell & Cha, 1994; Chin, 1998). The predictive relevance (Q^2) of the model is presented in Table 6.29.

Table 6.29

Results of Blindfolding Analysis (Cross-validated Redundancy)

Construct	**SSO**	**SSE**	**Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)**
CEI	1,600.00	1,600.00	
CTL	2,400.00	2,293.69	0.044
SELC	4,000.00	3,443.84	0.139

From Table 6.29, the predictive relevance (Q^2) of the model was 0.044 for CTL and 0.139 for SELC. These results show that the model has predictive relevance.

6.6.3 Multi-group analysis for significant differences

The multi-group analysis (MGA) allows one to test whether predefined data groups have significant differences in their group-specific parameter estimates, including path coefficients (Ringle et al., 2015). PLS-MGA refers to a set of different techniques that has been developed for comparing PLS model estimates across groups of data. Usually, PLS-MGA is used to explore differences between path coefficients in the structural model (Hair et al., 2014). The MGA result is presented in Table 6.30.

Table 6.30

Path Coefficient Differences between Males and Females

Hypotheses	Path	Path coefficients		T-values		P-values		Path coefficients diff	p-value (Female vs male)
		Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	(Female – male)	
H_{6a}	CEI -> CTL	0.430	0.352	6.117	8.467	0.000	0.000	0.077	0.169
H_7	CEI -> SELC	0.178	0.242	2.991	5.777	0.003	0.000	0.064	0.812
H_8	CTL -> SELC	0.607	0.557	11.556	14.317	0.000	0.000	0.050	0.216

The PLS multi-group analysis (PLS-MGA) conducted using SmartPLS (version 3.2.8) substantiates that the three structural model relationships did not significantly differ across gender. Although there are differences in the path, the differences are not significant. For example, for CEI and CTL relation, a difference of 0.077 (p = 0.169) was recorded, thus indicating that there is no significant difference in the effect of CEI on CTL, CEI on SELC and CTL on SELC between the female and the male groups.

6.7 TEST FOR SIGNIFICANT MEAN DIFFERENCES

Mann-Whitney and Kruskal Wallis non-parametric tests were used to determine whether statistically significant differences exist between groups of students as defined by gender, ethnicity and age with regard to each of the dimensions of the students' SEL outcomes.

The Mann-Whitney test results with respect to the five dimensions of students' SEL outcomes based on gender are shown in Table 6.31.

Table 6.31

Mann-Whitney Test Results for the Gender Groups on the Dimensions of the SECQ

SELC Dimensions	Gender	n	Mean	SD	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Self-Awareness	Male	546	6.60	0.927	-0.21	0.830
	Female	254	6.48	1.170		
Social-Awareness	Male	546	6.47	0.933	-0.05	0.958
	Female	254	6.48	1.014		
Self-Management	Male	546	3.90	0.994	-0.51	0.610
	Female	254	3.91	0.981		
Relationship Management	Male	546	3.91	0.839	-1.38	0.168
	Female	254	3.81	0.876		
Responsible Decision-making	Male	546	3.89	0.876	-0.22	0.826
	Female	254	3.86	0.775		

The results in Table 6.31 indicate that there are no significant differences in the level of SELC dimensions based on gender at the 95% level ($p > 0.05$). In other words, the participants do not differ in their SEL outcomes which implies that gender has no influence on these outcomes.

Kruskal Wallis test results with respect to the five dimensions of students' SEL outcomes based on age are shown in Table 6.32 below.

Table 6.32

Mann-Whitney Test Results for the Age Groups on the Dimensions of the SELC

SELC Dimensions	Age range	n	Mean	SD	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Self-Awareness	18 years	635	6.59	0.934	-0.257	0.797
	19 years and above	165	6.45	1.262		
Social-Awareness	18 years	635	6.49	0.901	-0.650	0.516
	19 years and above	165	6.40	1.154		
Self-Management	18 years	635	3.89	1.001	-0.189	0.850
	19 years and above	165	3.94	0.947		
Relationship Management	18 years	635	3.87	0.866	-0.218	0.828
	19 years and above	165	3.90	0.797		
Responsible Decision-making	18 years	635	3.88	0.849	-0.419	0.675
	19 years and above	165	3.89	0.834		

The results of the Mann-Whitney test displayed in Table 6.32 reflect no significant differences in all the five dimensions of the SELC based on age range at the 95% level ($p > 0.05$). This implies that the age of the students did not significantly influence their level of self-awareness, self-management, relationship management, responsive decision-making and social awareness.

Kruskal Wallis test results with respect to the five dimensions of students' social and emotional learning outcomes based on ethnicity are shown in the following Table 6.33.

Table 6.33

Kruskal Wallis Test Results for the Race Groups on the Dimensions of the SELC

SELC Dimensions	Race (Ethnicity)	n	Mean	SD	Chi-square	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Self-Awareness	Akan	330	6.65	0.806	3.86	0.277
	Ewe	148	6.37	1.253		
	Ga	241	6.57	1.024		
	Dagbon	81	6.53	1.187		
Social-Awareness	Akan	330	6.47	0.960	0.41	0.939
	Ewe	148	6.40	1.099		
	Ga	241	6.49	0.909		
	Dagbon	81	6.54	0.820		
Self-Management	Akan	330	3.89	0.988	3.19	0.363
	Ewe	148	3.93	0.959		
	Ga	241	3.86	1.007		
	Dagbon	81	4.03	1.005		
Relationship Management	Akan	330	3.81	0.813	6.64	0.084
	Ewe	148	3.88	0.937		
	Ga	241	3.90	0.859		
	Dagbon	81	4.04	0.801		
Responsible Decision-making	Akan	330	3.89	0.791	2.32	0.509
	Ewe	148	3.99	0.856		
	Ga	241	3.82	0.881		
	Dagbon	81	3.85	0.917		

From the results of the Kruskal–Wallis test in Table 6.33, no statistically significant difference between groups based on race or ethnicity emerged on any of the students' SEL outcomes at the 95% level ($p > 0.05$). This implies that that race or ethnicity of the students did not significantly influence the level of students' SEL outcomes.

Table 6.34 presents a summary of the test for significant differences in the students' SEL competencies in terms of gender, age and race based on the results in Tables 6.31, 6.32 and 6.33.

Table 6.34

Summary of Test for Significant Differences in the SELC in Terms of Gender, Age and Race

Hypotheses	**Demographic variable**	**p-value range**	**Decision**
H_{7a}	Gender	0.168–0.958 > 0.05	Rejected
H_{7b}	Age	0.516–0.850 > 0.05	Rejected
H_{7c}	Ethnicity	0.084–0.939 > 0.05	Rejected

As illustrated in Table 6.34, the test for significant differences in students' SEL competencies in terms of gender, age and ethnicity showed insignificant differences ($p > 0.05$). Thus, gender, age and ethnicity do not meaningfully influence the levels of students' SELC of this study sample, hence hypothesis 7 is not supported.

6.8 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The results of the study were derived through statistical analysis, which employed descriptive statistics to provide demographic information on the study constructs. The results for the test of mean differences, factor analyses, measurements and structural models, mediation and the multiple-group analyses were also reported.

The constructs employed in the study, emotional intelligence (EI), leadership and social emotional learning (SEL) were higher-order constructs. Principal component analysis was done on all items of EI, transformational leadership skills and social and emotional learning competencies (SELC). The EI construct consisted of three dimensions; however, some of the items did not load appropriately and adequately onto the original components. Therefore, two items were dropped as a result of cross loading and one item was removed as a result of low factor loading. Therefore, the EI construct in this study was reduced to two dimensions. Consequently, 22 items were used to measure the aspect of transformational leadership skills (TLI). Following the guideline provided by Hair et al. (2014), factors 4 and 5 were deleted from further analyses as these had only two items each: one item was removed due to low factor

loadings (< 0.50) while the other was dropped because it could not be assigned in any meaningful way (could not fit into any of the dimensions). Accordingly, the structure was reduced to a three-factor structure, thus reducing to three. The principal component analysis for SELC revealed a five-factor solution which accounted for 68% of the total variation (see Table 6.18). Three items were deleted because they could not be assigned in any meaningful way. Likewise, one item was removed due to cross loading but all five dimensions were maintained since none was removed or deleted. The remaining constructs were subjected to PLS-SEM.

The empirical relationship between CEI and leadership skills in relation to students' SELC was measured by structural model assessment as presented in section 6.6.2 of the chapter. The two-stage approach technique of PLS-SEM was employed to explain the impact of the higher-order constructs in the current model (Ringle et al., 2015). Initially, the model was calculated with the reflective first-order constructs and then used to calculate the latent variable; that is, the formative indicators of the second-order constructs. PLS-SEM technique was used to analyse the relationships. These empirical relationship, as shown in Table 6.26, Figures 6.2, 6.3 and 6.4, all showed that the path relationships were found to be significantly positive. The appraised results revealed a significant positive relationship between counsellors' emotional intelligence (CEI), counsellors' transformational leadership and students' SELC, lending support for hypotheses 2 and 3, as discussed earlier in the chapter. A positive and significant relationship was also found between counsellors' transformational leadership and students' SELC and outcomes, also providing support for hypothesis 4. Similarly, counsellors' transformational leadership was found to partially mediate the relationship between CEI and students' SELC and outcomes in the study, thus supporting hypothesis 5.

Multi-group analysis (PLS-MGA) was used to explore differences between path coefficients in the structural model. The results indicate that there is no significant difference in the effect of CEI on counsellors' transformational leadership and students' SELC, as well as the effect of counsellors' transformational leadership on students' SELC between the female and male groups, for that matter not lending support for hypothesis 6. PLS-MGA also revealed that there are no differences between path coefficients in the structural model as presented in Table 6.30 in the

earlier section. This therefore confirms that there is no significant difference in the three structural model relationships based on gender.

The tests for significant mean differences, i.e., the non-parametric tests of Mann-Whitney and Kruskal Wallis, were used to determine whether statistically significant differences existed between groups of students as defined by gender, age and ethnicity with regard to each of the dimensions of the students' SEL outcomes. Results showed that there were no significant differences in the level of SELC dimensions based on gender at the 95% level ($p > 0.05$). In other words, the participants did not differ in their SEL outcomes, which meant that gender had no influence on the students' SEL outcomes. However, this does not support hypothesis 7 of the study of findings of the literature review which suggest that females differ and show more SELC than their male counterparts (Tengey, 2016).

Further, in relation to age, it was discovered that no significant differences exist between the age groups in relation with students' level of social awareness, self-awareness, self-management, relationship management and responsible decision-making, i.e. the age of the students did not significantly influence he levels of students' SEL outcomes; thus, the participants did not differ in their SEL outcomes based on age. This confirms the findings of literature review that students of different ages do not differ on any of the dimensions of the SELC.

Furthermore, the results of the study reveal no statistically significant difference between the biographical group of ethnicity on any of the students' SEL outcomes. This implies that the ethnicity of the students did not significantly influence any level or dimension of these outcomes. This confirms findings in the literature that students of different ethnicity in senior high schools do not differ on any of the dimensions of the SELC (Tengey, 2016). A summary of the research hypotheses is presented in the next section.

6.9 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The last part of the chapter provides a summary of the research hypotheses. Table 6.35 portrays the hypotheses of the study.

Table 6.35

Summary of the Study Hypotheses

Hypothesis number	**Hypothesis statement**	**Supported/ Not supported**
Hypothesis 1	The empirical manifested model of counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes show a significant fit with the theoretical hypothesised model	Supported
Hypothesis 2	Counsellors' emotional intelligence significantly predicts counsellors' transformational leadership	Supported
Hypothesis 3	Counsellors' emotional intelligence significantly predicts students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes	Supported

Hypothesis 4	Counsellors' transformational leadership significantly predicts students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes	Supported
Hypothesis 5	Counsellors' transformational leadership mediates the relationship between counsellors' emotional intelligence and students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes	Supported
Hypothesis 6	There are significant differences within the three structural model relationships based on gender	Not supported
Hypothesis 7	Biographical variables have a significant impact on students' social and emotional learning competencies within a sample of senior high school students	Not Supported

6.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the results of phase 2, the empirical research, as part of the research methodology explained in section 1.8. To begin with, the research sample was first described in terms of the biographical and demographic variables. Afterward, factor analysis of the study constructs was presented followed by item analysis. The descriptive and inferential statistics and the PLS-SEM of significance to this research were explained. The research results were interpreted to be able to integrate the findings of the literature review with those of the empirical research. The hypotheses formulated were supported or rejected on the basis of the results of the empirical study. Additionally, the interaction between the biographical and demographic variables was described.

The final step in the current thesis, which is a discussion of the conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the research study, will be addressed in the next and final chapter, Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter, Chapter 6, presented the results of phase 2, which constituted the empirical research as part of the research methodology presented in section 1.8 of the first chapter. The current chapter deals with steps 7, 8 and 9 which are the conclusions, limitations and recommendations respectively of the same phase in conclusion of the research.

To begin with in this final chapter, conclusions will be drawn on both the theoretical and empirical aspects of the study. Subsequently, the limitations of the study will be noted and recommendations made for the participating institutions and further research in general.

7.2 CONCLUSION

This study was conducted in two phases. At the outset, a theoretical model of leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of social and emotional learning (SEL) was established from the literature review, after which the empirical model for counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence (EI) as predictors of SEL outcomes was constructed and tested using structural equation modelling (SEM).

The general aim of this study was formulated in section 1.5, i.e. to develop a model of counsellors' leadership and EI as predictors of students' SEL outcomes.

The general aim was achieved by achieving the specific aims (as set in section 1.5.1) and is discussed in the sections below:

7.2.1 Conclusions regarding the literature review

The literature review was conducted by presenting research on EI, leadership and SEL and an integration of the three constructs.

7.2.1.1 Specific aims pertaining to the literature review on emotional intelligence and leadership

During this study, the first aim of phase 1 (as formulated in section 1.5.1) in Chapter 1 (the literature review) was achieved as follows:

LA 1: To expound and explain the constructs of emotional intelligence (EI) and leadership in counsellors and their key dimensions.

This aim was achieved in Chapters 2 and 3. In meeting the aim, the subsequent information was discovered:

EI was defined as an ability which includes the following elements:

- ability to identify own feelings
- ability to determine the feelings of others
- ability to manage own emotions
- ability to understand and manage others emotions.

Attention was drawn to Caruso and Salovey (2004) who proposed the use and practice of a broad emotional vocabulary to increase the ability to better understand emotions. These emotions were distinguished and functioned as a reference for the emotions covered by this study.

Again, it was discovered that the transformational school leader offers a mission centred on setting direction, achievement focused on nurturing individuals and principles centred on restructuring the organisation (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Sinek, 2014; Smith & Piele, 2006; Wiseman et al., 2013). Sinek (2014) discloses that transformational school leaders advance a collective vision for the school, build consensus on important priorities, hold high expectations, offer employment, model suitable values, build collaborative principles and collective leadership; most importantly, transformational school leadership has positive effects on school culture which lead to positive outcomes.

7.2.1.2 Specific aims pertaining to the literature review on social and emotional learning

During this study, the second specific aim of phase 1 in the literature review was achieved as follows:

LA 2: To expound and explain the construct of social and emotional learning (SEL) in students and its key dimensions.

This aim was achieved in Chapter 4. In meeting the aim, it was discovered that SEL is the way in which individuals become socially and emotionally intelligent. Particular emphasis was placed on how children or students, through SEL, develop EI as they acquire and manage emotions, care about themselves and others, make ethical and responsible decisions and develop positive relationships with peers and adults (Fulcher 2017; Sinek, 2014; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015). In reviewing the literature, it came to light that SEL is based on five dimensions as categorised by CASEL (2008, 2017). These categories include self-awareness, social awareness, self- management, relationship management and responsible decision-making. These social and emotional learning competencies (SELC) refer to the skills, knowledge and attitudes essential to understand, control and manage emotions (self-awareness), establish and achieve positive goals (self-management), feel and express empathy for others (social awareness), create and maintain positive relationships (relationship skills) and make responsible choices (responsible decision-making) (CASEL, 2017).

7.2.1.3 Specific aims pertaining to the literature review on emotional intelligence and effective leadership as predictors of social and emotional learning

LA 3: To explain the theoretical relationship between EI and effective leadership in order to understand their predictive effects on students' SEL outcomes.

This aim was also achieved in Chapter 4. In meeting the aim, it was discovered, in section 4.4.4, that collaboration is needed between certain personnel (school leadership) such as school administrators, teachers, parents and students, amongst others, by initially getting to know their views. The question of what school concerns

need to be addressed, what stakeholders want for the students and the school, in terms of both academics and SEL, what social and emotional qualities they value, and ways in which these needs and wants could be addressed are all geared towards finding predictive ways of building students' SELC. It was also discovered in that same section that the effectiveness of a principal's leadership affects new programme implementation, therefore knowing the principal's leadership (transformational) style can help the school counsellor to recognise where the principal can be most effective in SEL support (Fullan, 2014; Wiseman et al., 2013).

7.2.1.4 Specific aim pertaining to the literature review on whether there was any variation in biographical factors that has any influence on social and emotional learning

LA 4: To determine the variation in the data of senior high school students through group differences or moderation

Again, this aim was attained in Chapter 4. It was discovered that gender has an influence on social and emotional learning outcomes. In a study examining students' social and emotional learning competencies in the Greater Accra and Ashanti Regions of Ghana, it was ascertained that female students scored higher on the SELC than their male counterparts (Tengey, 2016). Furthermore, it was discovered that age had an influence on SEL outcomes. Furthermore, research by Panayiotou et al. (2019) found that students between the ages of nine and 12 who were enrolled in elementary schools in the United Kingdom, and who were drawn from a major randomised trial of a widespread SEL intervention, showed some sequential associations between social-emotional competence, school connectedness and mental health difficulties and academic attainment. These are examples of studies cited in the literature that focused on biographical variables. This concluded the literature research and paved the way for the empirical research which is discussed in the next section.

LA 5: To develop a theoretical model of counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership as predictors of students' SEL outcomes.

Aim 5 was achieved by developing an integrated theoretical model which was presented in section 4.5 (see Figure 4.3) to portray and illustrate the wealth of literature, studies, theories, elements and variables that have been discussed in relation to EI, leadership and SEL. EI was revealed as being connected to leadership as leadership is also related to EI. Leadership theories and studies were discussed from Plato's concept of leadership to contemporary concepts and the evolution of the various perspectives of leadership. Some of these perspectives include competency, behavioural, contingency, implicit and transformational views, from which transformational leadership styles among others emerged. SEL has mainly been practised in educational institutions with educators, parents, families and communities, among others, all being regarded as stakeholders. Research has shown that SEL and transformational leadership are positively linked and have led to improvement and transformation in educational institutions. Again, as mentioned earlier in the study, although these constructs have been studied, they have only been studies individually. In the current study, all three constructs – EI, leadership and SEL – were integrated into a single study and a model of counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of students' SEL outcomes was developed. The empirical and final models of the study are presented in Figures 7.1 and 7.2 respectively below.

7.2.2 Conclusions regarding the empirical research

During this research, the specific aims (as formulated in section 1.5.2) of phase 2 (the empirical research) were achieved as follows:

- EA 1: To measure the constructs of EI and leadership in counsellors and their key dimensions in a sample of senior high school students.
- EA 2: To measure the construct of SEL in students and its key dimensions in a sample of senior high school students.
- EA 3: To determine the empirical relationship between counsellors' EI and leadership skills, and senior high school students' SEL outcomes.

- EA 4: To determine whether biographical variables have a significant impact on students' SEL in a sample of senior high school students.
- EA 5: To develop and test an empirical model of counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of students' SEL outcomes in a sample of senior high school students.

In terms of the research results, hypotheses 1 to 3 (H_1–H_3) were supported on the basis of the descriptive and inferential analysis of the study on counsellors' EI and leadership and students' SEL outcomes, the descriptive and inferential analysis of the differences between demographic variables and SELC and the results of SEM respectively. The findings of the empirical study based on the research aims and the relevant research hypotheses are presented as conclusions of the empirical research.

7.2.2.1 Specific aims pertaining to the empirical research

EA 1: To measure the constructs of emotional intelligence and leadership in counsellors and their key dimensions in a sample of senior high school students.

The constructs of EI and leadership were measured using the WLEIS and the TLI respectively. Eight hundred senior high students from five schools in the capital city of Ghana were conveniently selected to rate their school counsellors on their levels of EI and effective leadership (transformational) respectively. The item and construct descriptive statistics on each of the two measuring scales in the current study were presented in section 6.2.2 of the previous chapter. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to check whether the proposed factor structures were consistent with the data. Two items were dropped owing to cross loading and one item was removed as a result of low factor loading. The EI construct in this study was reduced to two dimensions.

After conducting the exploratory factor analysis on the TLI, the structure was reduced to a three-factor structure, indicating that loadings on this construct were reduced to three factors, the first one relating to Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals and

High-Performance Expectations dimension, the second one to Identifying and Articulating a Vision and Providing an Appropriate Model dimension and the last, to Providing Individualized Support and Intellectual Stimulation dimension. This indicates that the scales have been confirmed in the Ghanaian context, as in other countries, with reliability (0.934) and that they meet acceptable standards.

EA 2: To measure the constructs of social and emotional learning in students and its key dimensions in a sample of senior high school students.

Social and emotional learning competencies were measured using the social emotional competency questionnaire (SECQ), which is based on the five competencies (dimensions) of CASEL's social and emotional learning. The eight hundred students who rated their counsellors' on EI and leadership concurrently completed the SECQ inventory. Four items were deleted because they could not be assigned in any meaningful way and one item was removed due to cross loading. All five dimensions were therefore retained since none was removed or deleted. The overall mean score (as seen in Table 6.4) seems to be fairly high among the sample. This aim was thus realised.

EA 3: To determine the empirical relationship between counsellors' EI and leadership skills, and senior high school students' SEL outcomes.

The empirical relationship between counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership skills in relation to students' social and emotional learning competencies (SELC) was accessed and assessed through structural model assessment (section 6.6.2). The PLS-SEM technique was used to analyse the relationships. The empirical relationship (as shown in Table 6.26 and Figures 6.3 and 6.4) indicates that all the path relationships were found to be significantly positive. The appraised results show a positive significant relation between counsellors' EI and counsellors' transformational leadership, and students' social and emotional learning competencies, lending support for hypotheses 2 and 3: hypothesis 2: *Counsellors' emotional intelligence significantly predicts counsellors' transformational leadership; and* hypothesis 3: *Counsellors' emotional intelligence significantly predicts students'*

social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes'. This in effect means that school counsellors scored high on EI translating to an increase in their EI levels and impacting positively on their leadership skills. It thus showed that they were effective leaders and were instilling positive skills and social and emotional competencies in the students.

A positive and significant relation was also found between counsellors' transformational leadership and students' social and emotional learning competencies, also providing support for hypothesis H4: *Counsellors' transformational leadership significantly predicts students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes*. Thus, it was again discovered that school counsellors were effective leaders (transformational leadership) and, for that matter, effectively influenced students' social and emotional learning competencies, thereby improving these competencies. This in effect means that students displayed positive behaviours among themselves, towards their peers and towards significant others. This also translates to a positive outcome where they refrain from and do not indulge in antisocial behaviour.

Furthermore, it was discovered that counsellors' transformational leadership mediated the relationship between counsellors' emotional intelligence and students' social and emotional learning competencies in the study, thus supporting H5: *Counsellors' transformational leadership mediates the relationship between counsellors' emotional intelligence and students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes.* In effect, counsellors' transformational leadership explains (mediates) the relationship between counsellors' EI and students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes. This means that the school counsellors who took part in the study were transformational leaders and their effective leadership skills had a positive impact on their SI, thus reflecting how they handled themselves and managed their students. This resulted in the students developing positive skills and competencies and therefore exhibiting sound emotional and social behaviours and attitudes towards themselves, their educators and their significant others. These positive social and emotional attitudes translate to positive outcomes such as being decent respectful students, being empathetic towards colleagues, and taking responsible decisions such as not engaging in deviant behaviours or causing trouble at school among others.

Moreover, structural model relationships based on gender were explored. Hypothesis 6: *There are significant differences within the three structural model relationships based on gender*, was formulated. The results of the multi-group analysis did not confirm that there is a significant difference in the effect of counsellors' EI on counsellors' transformational leadership and students' social and emotional learning competencies, as well as the effect of counsellors' transformational leadership on students' social and emotional learning competencies between the female and male groups, therefore not lending support for hypothesis 6. It was accordingly found that there is no significant difference in the three structural model relationships based on gender. Consequently, there are no significant differences in the relationships among the three structures of emotional intelligence, effective leadership and social and emotional learning competencies. The multi-group analysis revealed significant differences in their group-specific parameter estimates, including the path coefficients. The multi-group analysis was used to explore differences between the path coefficients in the structural model and revealed that there was no difference in the structures based on gender. This means that neither male nor female counsellors differ on the emotional intelligence and leadership scales, nor do male and female students differ in terms of the social and emotional learning competencies. As mentioned earlier, in combining the three separate constructs, emotional intelligence, leadership and social and emotional learning into a single model, this is an exclusive exploration; cutting edge research. This was also presented in the multi-group analysis results in Table 6.30 in the previous chapter.

EA 4: To determine whether there is a variation in the data of senior high school students through group differences or moderation

Empirical aim 4, as stated above, was determined in Chapter 6. The aim was met by means of the descriptive statistical analysis (as seen in section 6.2) on the biographical variables reported and the tests for significant mean differences (as seen in section 6.7). Hypothesis 7: *'Biographical variables have a significant impact on students' social and emotional learning within a sample of senior high school students'* was formulated based on literature reviewed on students' social and emotional learning research (Tengey, 2016) that suggested there were differences in some biological factors of students as; age, gender and ethnicity. These biological

variables; age, gender and ethnicity were tested to support this aim. However, the empirical results of the study indicated that there were no significant differences between gender, age and ethnicity in relation to the level of SELC dimensions. In effect, the participants did not differ in their social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes which implies that gender has no influence on the students' social and emotional learning outcomes in the current study. This does not, however, support the literature findings that females differ from and exhibit more of the social and emotional learning competencies than their male counterparts (Tengey, 2016).

Again, this assertion can be explained by the fact that the sample in the current study was solely based on students in the Greater Accra region while that of 2016 was based on the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions of Ghana. Furthermore, the sample size was not the same. In the current study, respondents were solely SHS level 3 students, while the other sample employed students from SHS 1–3. In addition, the sample size in the current study is 800 while that of Tengey (2016) was 150. These may be just a few of the reasons that accounted for the differences. This implies that female students in senior high schools do not differ in terms of being aware of themselves and do not relate better to other individuals or society than their male counterparts. In the same vein, male students do not manage themselves better than their female counterparts, nor do they manage relationships with other individuals better and nor do they make more responsible decisions than their female counterparts.

With regard to age, it was discovered from the empirical study that no significant differences were found on any of the five dimensions. This indicates that students' age did not significantly influence level of self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, relationship management and responsive decision-making. In effect, the age of a student; whether 18 years or older, had no influence on how they perceived or were aware of themselves. This also means that how old a student is does not affect how he or she relates to others. Furthermore, there is little difference between an older student and a younger one in relation to how they manage themselves. Finally, there is little difference between how an 18-year-old student will

make or take responsible decisions as compared to a student who is older than 18. Accordingly, this does not confirm the findings in the literature that students of different age groups differ on the dimensions of the social and emotional learning competencies (Tengey, 2016).

Ethnicity (race) in the empirical study showed no statistically significant difference between biographical groups on any of the students' social and emotional learning outcomes. This implies that students' ethnicity did not significantly influence any level or dimension of students' social and emotional learning outcomes. This again confirms findings in the literature that students of different ethnicity in senior high schools do not differ on any of the dimensions of the social and emotional learning competencies (Tengey, 2016). This means that the ethnicity of the students, i.e. Akan, Ewe, Ga and Dagbon, did not significantly influence how they were aware of themselves, how they behaved, how they felt and how they took decisions. This means that the regions that the students hail from does not affect how they perceived themselves or their societal norms, nor did it have any influence on the way they managed themselves and others, and nor did it influence how they made decisions.

EA 5: To develop and test an empirical model of counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of students' SEL outcomes in a sample of senior high school students.

The fifth (5) aim was achieved in chapter 6. The SEM investigated the impact of school counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership skills in predicting students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes. Higher order constructs (HOC) and the two-stage approach technique in PLS-SEM were used in the study. The model was calculated with the reflective first-order constructs and then the latent variable scores were used as the formative indicators of the second-order constructs. The standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) value was used for the fit indices. This fit index was met before the hypotheses of the proposed model was tested, as reported in Table 6.25. An illustration of the empirical model of counsellors' leadership and EI as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes is also portrayed in Figure 7.1 below.

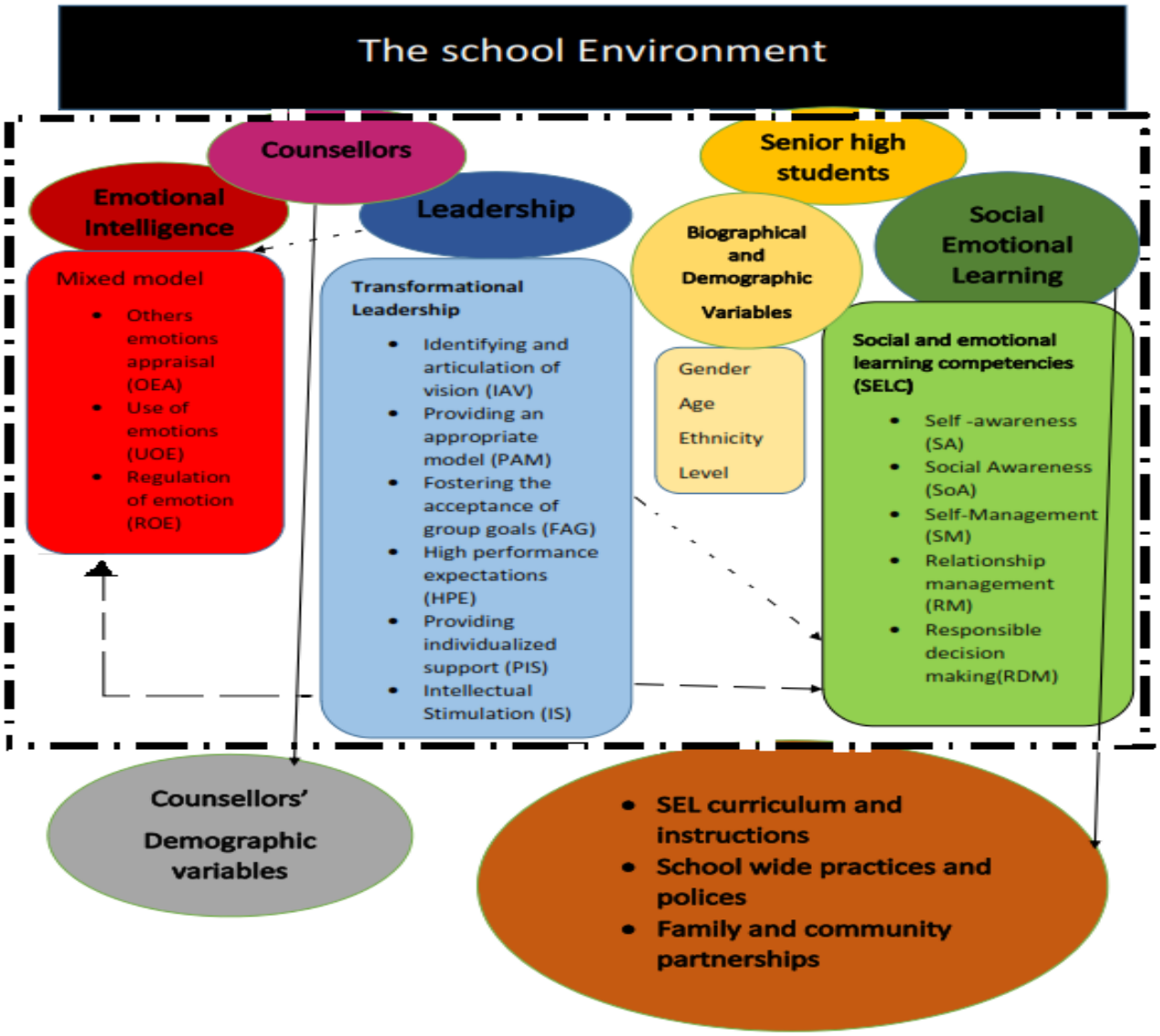

Figure 7.1: *An Integrated Empirical Model of Counsellors' Leadership and Emotional Intelligence as Predictors of Students' Social and Emotional Learning Outcomes*

Notes:

1. ___ indicates a practical relationship of constructs
2. ……. Indicates positive significant relationship among constructs
3. _ _ _ _ indicates mediation between constructs
4. ._._._._indicates the constructs measured

The integrated empirical model of counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes is depicted in Figure 7.1 above. This illustrates the empirical model proposed by the researcher from which the final empirical model of the study emerged, as is portrayed in Figure 7.2. All constructs and variables in Figure 7.1 were measured, apart from counsellors' biographical and demographic characteristics, SEL curriculum and instructions, school-wide practices and policies, and family and community partnerships, which were not part of the focus of the study. As explained earlier in Chapter 1, counsellors were not directly assessed in the study thus their biographic data could not be assessed through the other rater (students). The school environment, although very necessary in the study, could also not be measured.

SEM indicated that the predictive effect size of counsellors' EI on counsellors' transformational leadership was close to medium. This means that counsellors' who showed EI in the study had or showed medium or average transformational leadership. This in effect means that counsellors did not show many effective leadership qualities. The effect size of counsellors' EI on students' social and emotional learning competencies was, however, small (Hair et al., 2013). This also means that counsellors rated on EI in the study had a relatively small effect on students with regard to their social and emotional learning competencies or outcomes. This again means that counsellors' influence on students when it comes to students' social and emotional competence was minimal. This implies that counsellors do not show or exhibit empathy towards students and, thus, counsellors are not meeting students' emotional needs. On the contrary, the effect size of counsellors' transformational leadership on students' social and emotional learning competencies was the largest, indicating that counsellors' exhibited high transformational leadership, in effect, effective leadership in relation to students' social and emotional learning competencies or outcomes. Counsellors showed effective leadership by guiding students, and nurturing and encouraging them to be successful in attaining their academic goals (see Table 6.26).

This explains that when counsellors – thus leaders – are emotionally intelligent and are transformational leaders, they influence their students and protégés in positive

ways. This thus confirms the assertions of researchers who are of the view that when children are taught and nurtured to develop SEL, they develop EI as they acquire and manage emotions, care about themselves and others, make ethical and responsible decisions and develop positive relationships with peers, adults and significant others (Fulcher, 2017; Sinek, 2014; Tengey, 2015; Tengey & Ganu, 2015).

Additionally, SEM proved that all the path relationships were significantly positive, as mentioned earlier in the previous section (see Table 6.26). Specifically, the estimated results indicate a positive significant relation between counsellors' EI and counsellors' transformational leadership. This means that counsellors who exhibit EI showed transformational leadership and impacted positively on students' social and emotional learning competencies or outcomes in senior high schools.

SEM further revealed the mediation effect of counsellors' transformational leadership on counsellors' EI and students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes, as seen in Figure 6.4 above and Figure 7.2 below. It was discovered that the effect of counsellors' EI on students' social and emotional learning competencies could be explained through the mediation of the counsellors' transformational leadership (see Table 6.27). This means that school counsellors who were assessed on emotional intelligence in the study, had effective leadership skills or showed significant transformational leadership when dealing with students in senior high schools, as explained in detail in the above section. Figure 7. 2 below portrays the final empirical model of counsellors' leadership and EI as predictors of students' SEL outcomes.

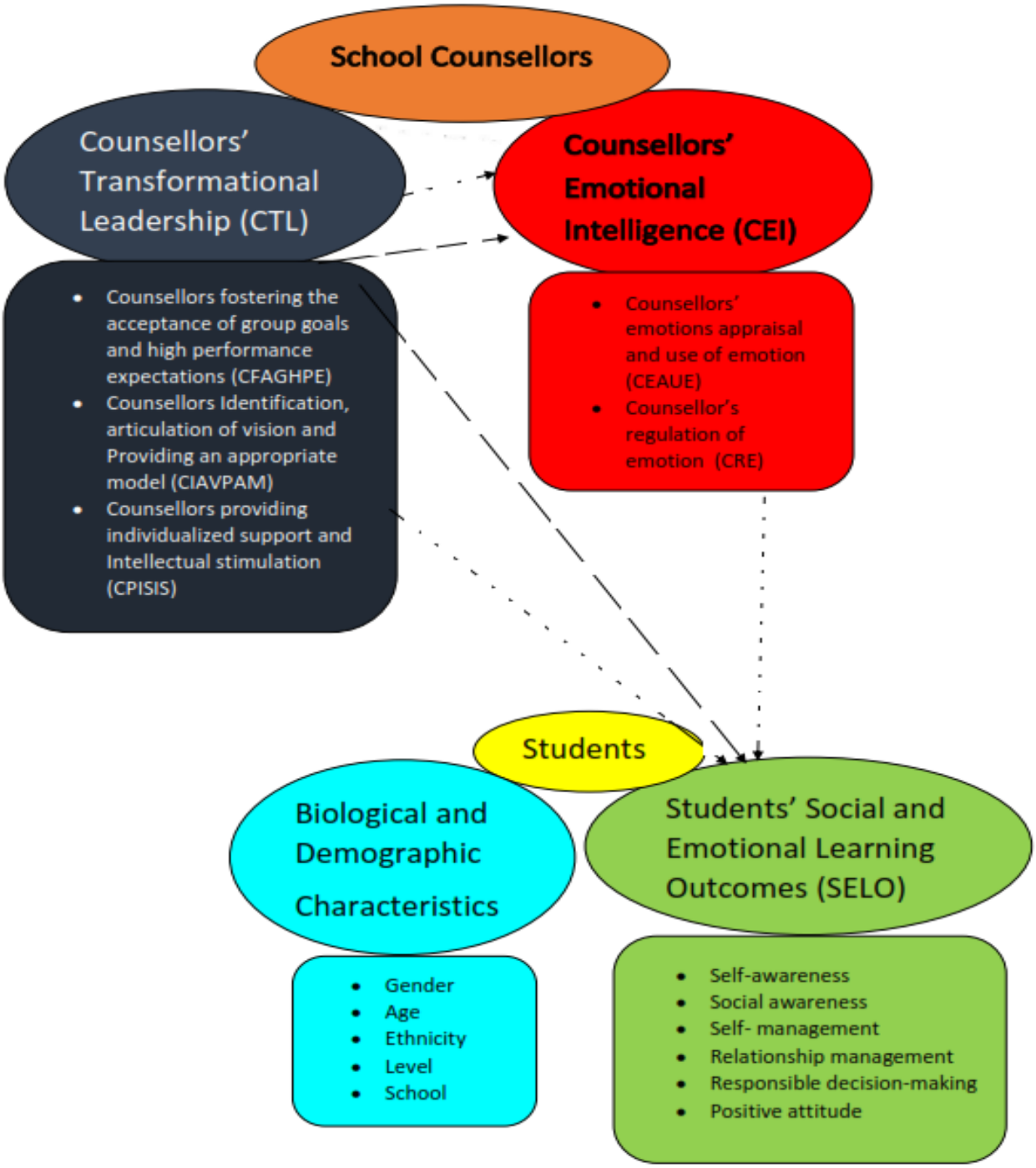

Figure 7.2: *Model of Counsellors' Leadership and Emotional Intelligence as Predictors of Students' Social and Emotional Learning Outcomes (CLESSELO)*

Notes:

1. ……..indicates a positive significant relationship among constructs
2. _ _ _ _ indicates mediation between constructs

Counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes (CLESSELO) is the final model that emerged from the empirical study. As depicted above in Figure 7.2, the original six dimensions of counsellors' transformational leadership (CTL) were reduced to three in the current study: counsellors fostering and acceptance of group goals and high performance expectations (CFAGPAM); counsellors' identification, articulation of a vision and providing an appropriate model (CIAVPAM); and counsellors providing individual support and individual stimulation (CPISIS). The three dimensions of CEI in the study were also reduced to two: counsellors' emotional appraisal and use of emotion (CEAUE) and counsellors' regulation of emotion (CRE). All five dimensions of the SELC were retained in their original positions. These constructs, subconstructs and allotted items have been explained in detail (see study constructs and items matrix, Annexure 6). The predictive effect size of CEI on CTL was found to be medium, while CEI was found to have a small predictive effect size on students' SELO. The predictive effect size of CTL on students' SELO was however large.

Empirical aim 5 above made it possible for the central hypothesis, which happens to be hypothesis 1 (H_1), *there is a significant fit of the empirical manifested model of counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes and the theoretical hypothesised model*, to be confirmed. As mentioned earlier in Chapter 5 (see Table 6.25), in SEM-PLS the central hypothesis must be met before the other hypotheses formulated for the study can be tested (Hu & Bentler, 1998).

The new model consequently suggests that the current study is unique, in that the results reported differ from those reported by previous studies. This could be typically due to the unique combination of the three constructs, i.e. emotional intelligence, leadership and social emotional learning, and to the unique characteristics of the sample group, i.e. students in senior high schools, and the characteristic role

required of their school counsellors. In conclusion, the researcher may thus infer that the results of the PLS-SEM boosted the final model above. The final model (Figure 7.2) suggests that if educational institutions were to decide to predict students' social and emotional learning competencies and/or outcomes in senior high schools, school counsellors' EI and transformational leadership (effective leadership skills) could be used in the prediction to ascertain whether students are socially and emotionally competent or not.

These arena would enable institutions to recognise developmental areas based on students' strengths and weaknesses and on their social and emotional learning competencies. This outcome would allow or enable educational institutions to initiate interventions targeted at addressing areas of students' competencies, therefore putting measures in place to advance their social and emotional learning competency development, thus in effect, curbing much antisocial behaviour in senior high schools.

7.2.3 Conclusions relating to contributions to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology

The findings of the literature review and the empirical research results contribute to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in particular to human behaviour and work-related attitudes. The literature review gave insights into the relationships between EI and transformational leadership and also revealed relationships between EI and SEL. It further elaborated on transformational leadership and SEL. These insights gleaned from the literature review, provided an understanding of the concepts and theoretical models that have led to the development of the counsellors' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership model for predicting students' SEL outcomes.

EI and leadership are just two of the work-related attitudes which industrial and organisational psychology considers. Basically, the study of the relationship between EI and leadership as a predictor of DEL is new and will add to the new and existing knowledge, advancing school counsellors' EI and that of students' SELC in educational institutions.

Industrial psychologists play a vital roles in helping institutions to advance their assessment and intervention procedures. The findings of this study could help industrial and organisational psychologists to use the counsellor's EI and leadership as predictors of the students' social and emotional learning outcomes model developed in the study. This model could serve as a framework for industrial and organisational psychologists to assist educational institutions in dealing with developmental and transformational attitudes to assess their students or client competencies in the area of emotional intelligence, leadership and social and emotional learning competencies. Industrial psychologists could use the counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership as predictors of the students' social and emotional learning outcomes model to design, propose and introduce institutional interventions geared towards improving students' SEL outcomes. This research adds to the area of human behaviour and work-related attitudes by proposing a model of counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership in predicting students' SEL outcomes. This model could enable educational institutions to identify developmental areas based on students' social and emotional learning competencies.

In conclusion, educational institutions should realise the benefits of augmenting students' social and emotional learning competencies through institutional initiatives. The benefits of positive students' SEL outcomes include constructing contexts or environments that stimulate school achievement, and nurturing empathetic relationships with grownups and colleagues, problem solving and communal engagement.

This leaves us with the discussion in the final section of this chapter.

7.3 LIMITATIONS

The limitations of this research will be presented below in terms of the literature review and the empirical study.

7.3.1 Limitations of the literature review

The following limitations were apparent in the literature review;

- As mentioned when defining the problem statement of the study, fundamentally there is a paucity of research studies carried out in the Ghanaian setting on the relationship among these variables, more specifically among educational institutions. This posed a limitation to assessing the literature especially on SEL in the African setting. Empirical studies were limited in the Ghanaian domain and therefore little could be cited in the literature review.
- Again, literature was scarce on school counselling in the Ghanaian domain. As a sub construct lending support to the three constructs being reviewed in this study, there was scant research on school counsellors available, thus limiting the literature review in that arena.

7.3.2 Limitations of the empirical study

The limitations of the study are discussed below in terms of its ability to generalise and to make concrete recommendations on the basis of its findings:

- Convenient sampling was used for this study which implies that the findings could not be generalised to all educational institutions because they pertain only to the population involved in this study.

- Data was nested within schools and that was not considered in the analysis. Counselling services are not provided in all schools in Ghana although there are coordinators who offer counselling services in some schools. The lack of counselling services in some schools limited the number of schools that could be employed in this study. Only five (5) schools with counselling services had given approval for their students to partake in the research. This made it difficult for the schools to be included in the analysis.

- Again, the study was limited to one region. Although little would have changed if other regions had been included in the study, because students are sent to school in regions other than their home regions, it would have been more insightful to explore two or more regions.
- The results could potentially be inflated due to common method bias.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

In achieving the empirical aim of the study, this section makes recommendations for further research based on the findings of the study.

7.4.1 Recommendations for further research

These recommendations are proposed for populations working with individuals in institutional settings such as industrial psychologists, counselling psychologists and organisational development practitioners. The following recommendations for future research in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology are based on the conclusions and limitations of the study:

One of the limitations of the results of this study is that it was based on convenience sampling. This implies that findings could not be generalised to the all educational institutions because they relate only to the population involved in this study. Future research should be tailored to employ other sampling methods such as randomisation where a lot more participants will have an equal chance of being selected.

Additionally, a longitudinal research design should be explored in future research. Although the cross-sectional survey research design employed in this study is not a limitation, longitudinal research could afford school counsellors the opportunity to take participants selected for the study through counselling over a period during which they could be tested after the counselling sections. Although longitudinal research may come with its own internal consistency biases such as history and maturation amongst others, it would be worth a try. Results of such studies in the Ghanaian setting may also go a long way in validating this study.

Furthermore, the study was limited to senior high school students in level three (SHS 3). Future research should take the necessary steps to include all age categories in senior high schools in order to gain wider generalisation of its findings to the population. The results of this study may not have a general applicability without such replications.

Moreover, the study was limited to one region. Future research should explore more regions and possibly more schools for diverse research findings. This could go a long way in validating this study.

There is a need for more research on counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of students' SEL outcomes. Further research, specifically in the Ghanaian context, is needed because there is a paucity of research in that domain. Again, further research would be for institutional development purposes as it would help if the individuals who participate in these research studies were assessed in terms of their emotional intelligence, leadership and SEL growth.

Some relationships were identified in the model, suggesting essential future research. To begin with, the results suggest a positive significant relationship between the dimensions of counsellors' EI and their transformational leadership and students' SEL competencies. A positive and significant relationship was also found between the dimensions of counsellors' transformational leadership and the dimensions of students' SEL competencies. Finally, counsellors' transformational leadership was found to mediate the relationship between counsellors' EI and students' SEL competencies. These relationships between these dimensions warrant further research.

Finally, the development of the counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of students' SEL outcomes model in this study is an effort to design a comprehensive model that could be used to inform both future research and practice.

7.4.2 Recommendations relating to participating institutions (school administrators, educators)

Based on the empirical results as they pertain to the limitations and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are made especially for participating institutions, school administrators, educators and policymakers:

In future, participating institutions, i.e. senior high school students in the Greater Accra region, as well as other educational institutions, could use the new model to predict students' social and emotional learning competencies and outcomes,

recognising areas of strength and weakness at individual and group levels. When focusing on the results of the study, students who took part in the survey demonstrated satisfactory competence in SEL. It is recommended that to be able to retain these levels of competencies, the institutions should continue with the introduction of intervention programmes in those areas.

On the other hand, results also highlighted areas of concern relating to counsellors' EI and leadership (see Table 6.2). It is therefore recommended that the educational institutions embark on interventions in the areas if EI and leadership.

Regarding emotional intelligence and leadership, it is essential that leadership in educational institutions should develop trusting and collaborative relationships with their employees (educators). Strategies pertinent to the institutions include customising EI and leadership competencies to meet educators' expectations and developing leaders who view EI and leadership as tools to support educators instead of as a means to manage work only. EI and leadership play a vital role in inspiring, motivating, persuading and influencing educators to implement the institutional strategy and in refining educators.

Educators, especially school counsellors and administrators, could use the model to determine their EI and leadership skills. The model could also be used to determine their strengths and weaknesses and, hence, create an awareness for further improvement of their EI and leadership skills. It could also be used to propose interventions geared towards leveraging on these strengths and addressing developmental areas.

Institutions, especially educational institutions, could use the model as a template or guideline for formulating organisational strategies, policies and procedures in relation to EI, leadership and SEL.

In conclusion, it is recommended that in future counsellor (educator) student surveys, the institutions should continue to communicate the planned interventions based on the counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of the students' social and emotional learning outcomes model to be able to create an expectation and show commitment. Institutional leaders or school administrators should be committed to making progress in terms of the weaknesses identified by educators and students. School

counsellors (educators) and students should all receive feedback on the results of the EI, leadership and SEL process in order to inspire future participation.

7.4.3 Recommendations for industrial psychologists working in the field of Organisational Psychology

The literature review provided a valuable basis for the development of counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of the students' social and emotional learning outcomes model. In terms of fit indices, SRMR (standardised root mean square residual value) confirmed that the model could be used as a framework for industrial and organisational psychologists.

Institutional heads, educators and industrial psychologists all play the role in and act as organisational development practitioners. To be able to successfully fulfil this role, they are required to conduct organisational audits as they also need comprehensive insight into organisational behaviour in terms of ascertaining the elements that impede and boost success in the organisation that could lead to employee success. The model developed and tested in this study could aid practitioners and leaders to identify the elements that impede and improve employees' advancement.

As organisational practitioners, industrial psychologists should be able to use the findings of the evaluation process to develop interventions geared toward improving or increasing employees' strengths and success at the individual, group or organisational level. The findings of this study also submit that leaders, administrators and educators, amongst others, need to be aware that different biological groups (gender) have different needs affecting their emotional competencies and impacting on their attitude at work. It is necessary to provide an atmosphere that addresses the needs of the different biographical groups to be able to improve their performance and success in organisations.

7.5 Evaluation of the research: theoretical, practical and empirical

This thesis concentrated on developing a model of counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership that could be used in predicting students' SEL outcomes. Counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership skills are essential in the development and advancement of students' SEL outcomes in contemporary educational institutions.

The literature review indicated that there is a theoretical relationship between EI and leadership, EI and social and emotional learning competencies, and leadership and SEL competencies. Contemporary institutions have to deal with the forces of change and are constantly embarking on institutional or organisational transformation initiatives in an effort to adjust to these forces and stay competitive in the global space. Understanding the effect of educators' EI and transformational leadership on students' SEL competencies would go a long way in the preparation of effective schemes and interventions for institutional and organisational behaviour and development.

Strategies and early interventions in schools will cushion students and prepare them for the future world of work. Thus, if policymakers and institutional leaders are able to have a positive impact on students' SEL, students will learn and develop the soft skills necessary for individual, team and organisational success. When these SEL competencies are achieved, they culminate in skills for success that help in adult life and work. This will also minimise the numerous training programmes organisations have to organise for their workers especially younger workers.

Information on the elements that lead to high levels of educator and student advancement and progress affords institutions an understanding into what inspires and motivates their educators and students in their various institutions. Institutions must understand that individuals have distinctive needs and desires that drive them towards accomplishment and fulfilment in their institutions. Most importantly, children, for that matter students, are in their formative years and need to be well guided and counselled to develop effective social and emotional competencies or skills. Each child or student is unique individually. This kind of insight is crucial for institutions because it adds value to institutional processes geared towards

advancing educators' progress and advancement, which will be instilled in the youth/students social and emotional development, well-being and life satisfaction.

The empirical study examined counsellors' EI and leadership in predicting students' SEL outcomes. It also explored students' biographical factors in relation to the dimensions of the SEL competencies. The empirical study offered statistically significant evidence that supports the central hypothesis of this study, i.e. that the there is a significant positive relationship between counsellor's EI and counsellors' transformational leadership, and students' SEL competencies. Also, a positive and significant relationship was found between counsellors' transformational leadership and students' SEL competencies. Finally, counsellors' transformational leadership was found to partially mediate the relationship between counsellors' EI and students' SEL competencies.

The study further provided evidence that there was goodness of fit between the proposed theoretical model of counsellors' emotional intelligence and leadership as predictors of students' SEL outcomes and the empirical data.

In conclusion, it is the researcher's belief that the findings of this study provide understanding and scientific knowledge in terms of counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of students' SEL outcomes and that institutional leaders, educators, policymakers, industrial psychologists and organisational development experts should be able to apply these insights, most importantly the counsellors' EI and leadership, as predictors of the students' social and emotional learning outcomes model in enhancing organisational behaviour, work-related attitudes and development interventions in their educational institutions. Recommendations were made for future research and this study should make a positive contribution to the subfields of human behaviour, organisational behaviour, work-related attitudes and to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in the Ghanaian context.

7.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, conclusions were drawn and discussed on the basis of the aims of both the literature review and the empirical study. Possible limitations were explored in the literature review and the empirical research. Recommendations for future

research were discussed concentrating on the need for more research assessing the relationship among emotional intelligence, leadership and SEL especially in the Ghanaian context. In conclusion, an amalgamation of the research was presented highlighting the fact that the results of the empirical study offered an indication of the differences between biographical variables and counsellors' EI and leadership and students' SEL competencies, and the goodness of fit of the counsellors' EI and leadership as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes model.

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ANNEXURE 1: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Cover Letter & Questionnaire

(Model of Counsellors Leadership and Emotional Intelligence as Predictors of Students' Social and Emotional Learning Outcomes')

Ethical clearance #: 2018_CEMS/IOP_033

Research permission #:

Dear Prospective Participant

You are invited to participate in a survey conducted by Juliet Edwina Yayra Tengey under the supervision of Professor Nico Martins and Professor Ophilia Ledimo, Professors in the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, towards a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at the University of South Africa.

The questionnaire you have received has been designed to study the leadership and emotional intelligence of your school counsellors and your own social and emotional learning competencies. You were selected to participate in this survey because you have sought counselling services from your school counsellor and they have counselled you to that effect. By completing this survey, you agree that the information you provide may be used for research purposes, including dissemination through peer-reviewed publications and conference proceedings.

It is anticipated that the information we gain from this survey will help us to develop a model for counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence that will predict students' social and emotional learning outcomes. It will also provide knowledge that may help other counselling professionals and educators and help develop senior high school students' social and emotional learning competencies. You are, however, under no obligation to complete the survey and you can withdraw from the study prior to submitting the survey. The survey is developed to be anonymous, meaning that we will have no way of connecting the information that you provide to you personally. If you choose to participate in this survey it will not take up more than 30 minutes of your

time. You will not benefit from your participation as an individual; however, it is envisioned that the findings of this study will benefit school counsellors and students in general. It may also inform policy formulation and benefit other researchers seeking information in the domains of leadership, emotional intelligence and social and emotional learning. We do not foresee that you will experience any negative consequences by completing the survey. The researcher undertakes to keep any information provided herein confidential, not to let it out of our possession and to report on the findings from the perspective of the participating group and not from the perspective of an individual.

The records will be kept for five years for audit purposes whereafter they will be permanently destroyed by shredding the questionnaires and permanently deleting the analysis from the computer hard drive. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for your participation in the survey.

The research was reviewed and approved by the College of Economic and Management Sciences (CEMS) Research Ethics Review Committee (CEMS-RERC).

Should you have any questions regarding this survey you can contact me now. Alternatively, you can report any serious unethical behaviour at the University's TollFree Hotline 0800 86 96 93.

Thank you.

SECTION A

General Demographic Survey

Directions: Please complete the following general demographics survey. (All responses are anonymous)

1. Gender: 1. Male_____ 2. Female_____
2. Age:_____
3. Ethnicity:_____
4. Name of

   school_____
5. Level: 1. SHS 1_____ 2. SHS 2 _____ 3. SHS 3_____

SECTION B

WLEIS Instrument Questions

Directions: Please indicate your opinion on the following statements. For each item on the scale from 1-7, make a cross (X) in the appropriate box which most closely reflects the degree of your agreement or disagreement about your counsellor's behaviour; 1 indicating (Strongly disagree) to 7 indicating (strongly agree).

	WLEIS Questions	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Somewhat Disagree 3	Neither 4	Somewhat Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
1	My counsellor always know my emotions from my behaviour.							
2	My counsellor is a good observer of others' emotions.							
3	My counsellor is sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.							
4	My counsellor has good understanding of							

	the emotions of people around him/her							
5	My counsellor always set goals for him/herself and then tries his/her best to achieve them.							
6	My counsellor always tell him/herself, he/she is a competent person.							
7	My counsellor is a self-motivating person.							
	WLEIS Questions	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Somewhat Disagree 3	Neither 4	Somewhat Agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly Agree 7
8	My counsellor always encourages him/herself to try his/her best.							
9	My counsellor is able to control his/her temper so that he/she can handle difficulties rationally							
10	My counsellor is quite capable of controlling his/ her own emotions.							
11	My counsellor can always calm down quickly when he/she is very angry.							
12	My counsellor has good control of his/her emotions							

SECTION C

Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI) Subordinate Version

Below is a set of statements that may or may not describe your counsellor's behaviour. Using the scale below, please indicate by making a cross (X) in the appropriate box, the extent to which you agree (or disagree) that each statement is descriptive of your Counsellor.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
TLI Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My counsellor is always seeking new opportunities for us							
2. My counsellor paints an interesting picture of the future for our group							
3. My counsellor has a clear understanding of where we are going.							
4. My counsellor inspires others with his/her plans for the future.							
5. My counsellor is able to get others committed to his/her dream of the future.							
6. My counsellor leads by "doing" rather than simply "telling."							
7. Provides a good model to follow.							
8. My counsellor leads by example.							
9. My counsellor fosters collaboration among work groups.							
10. My counsellor encourages students to be "team players."							
11. My counsellor gets the group to work together for the same goal.							

12. My counsellor develops a team attitude and spirit among his/her clients.							
13. My counsellor shows that he/she expects a lot from us.							
14. My counsellor insists on only the best performance.							
15. My counsellor will not settle for second best.							
16. My counsellor acts without considering my feelings.							
17. My counsellor shows respect for my personal feelings.							
18. My counsellor behaves in a manner that is thoughtful of my personal needs.							
19. My counsellor treats me without considering my personal feelings.							
20. My counsellor has provided me with new ways of looking at things which used to puzzle me.							
21. My counsellor has ideas that has forced me to rethink some of my own ideas that I have never questioned before.							
22. My counsellor has stimulated me to think about old problems in new ways.							

SECTION D

Students Emotional Learning Competence (SELC)

Directions: Please indicate your opinion on the following statements about you. For each item on the scale from 1-7, circle the number, which most closely reflects the degree of your agreement or disagreement.

SELC	**SELC**	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
	Questions	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
[SA1]	I know what I am thinking and doing							
[SA2]	I understand why I do what I do							
	SELC	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SA3]	I understand my moods and feelings							
[SA4]	I know when I am moody							
[SA5]	I can read people's faces when they are angry							

Social Awareness [SoA1]	I recognise how people feel by looking at their facial expression							
[SoA2]	It is easy for me to understand why people feel the way they do							
[SoA3]	If someone is sad, angry or happy, I believe I know what they are thinking							
[SoA4]	I understand why people react the way they do							
	SELC	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[SoA5]	If a friend is upset, I have a pretty good idea why							
Self-Management [SM1]	I can stay calm in stressful situations							

[SM2]	I stay calm and overcome anxiety in new or changing situations							
[SM3]	I stay calm when things go wrong							
[SM4]	I can control the way I feel when something bad happens.							
[SM5]	When I am upset with someone, I will wait till I have calmed down before discussing the issue							
	SELC	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Relationship Management [RM1]	I will always apologize when I hurt my friend unintentionally							
[RM2]	I always try and comfort my friends when they are sad							

[RM3]	I try not to criticize my friend when we quarrel							
[RM4]	I am tolerant of my friend's mistakes							
[RM5]	I stand up for myself without putting others down							
Responsible Decision Making [RDM1]	When making decisions I take into account the consequences of my actions							
[RDM2]	I ensure that there are more positive outcomes when making a choice							
	SELC	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	Questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
[RDM3]	I weigh the strengths of the situation before deciding on my action							

[RDM4]	I consider the criteria chosen before making a recommendation							
[RDM5]	I consider the strengths and weaknesses of the strategy before deciding to use it							

ANNEXURE 2: RESEARCH STATISTICS

Statistics

		Distribution of gender of respondents	Distribution of age of respondents	Distribution of ethnicity of respondents	Distribution of school of respondents	Distribution of level of respondents
N	Valid	800	800	800	800	800
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0

Distribution of gender of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	546	68.3	68.3	68.3
	Female	254	31.8	31.8	100.0
	Total	800	100.0	100.0	

Distribution of age of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	635	79.4	79.4	79.4
	19	156	19.5	19.5	98.9
	20	4	.5	.5	99.4
	23	3	.4	.4	99.8
	24	2	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	800	100.0	100.0	

Distribution of ethnicity of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Akan	330	41.3	41.3	41.3
	Ewe	148	18.5	18.5	59.8
	Ga	241	30.1	30.1	89.9
	Dagbon	81	10.1	10.1	100.0
	Total	800	100.0	100.0	

Distribution of school of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Legon Presec	334	41.8	41.8	41.8
	Temasco	101	12.6	12.6	54.4
	Teshie Presec	225	28.1	28.1	82.5
	Accra High	85	10.6	10.6	93.1
	St. Thomas Aquianas	55	6.9	6.9	100.0
	Total	800	100.0	100.0	

Distribution of level of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	SHS 3	800	100.0	100.0	100.0

Descriptive Statistics – CEI

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
CEI_OEA1	800	3.84	1.668	-.014	.086	-.594	.173
CEI_OEA2	800	3.67	1.604	.164	.086	-.380	.173
CEI_OEA3	800	3.80	1.543	.104	.086	-.252	.173
CEI_OEA4	794	3.58	1.581	.406	.087	-.169	.173
CEI_UOE1	800	3.61	1.638	.294	.086	-.343	.173
CEI_UOE2	798	3.59	1.710	.336	.087	-.491	.173
CEI_UOE3	800	3.64	1.690	.363	.086	-.595	.173
CEI_UOE4	800	3.40	1.842	.538	.086	-.667	.173
CEI_ROE1	800	3.19	1.457	.408	.086	-.281	.173
CEI_ROE2	798	3.56	1.367	-.280	.087	-.271	.173
CEI_ROE3	788	3.62	1.485	-.336	.087	-.529	.174
CEI_ROE4	796	3.63	1.382	-.170	.087	-.631	.173
Valid N (listwise)	781						

Descriptive Statistics – CTL

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error

CTL_IAV1	798	3.80	1.209	-.985	.087	.091	.173
CTL_IAV2	800	3.88	1.242	-.789	.086	.496	.173
CTL_IAV3	798	3.81	1.282	-.760	.087	.251	.173
CTL_IAV4	797	3.78	1.325	-.473	.087	.397	.173
CTL_IAV5	797	3.64	1.359	-.395	.087	.159	.173
CTL_PAM1	795	3.72	1.305	-.454	.087	.426	.173
CTL_PAM2	795	3.81	1.252	-.449	.087	.766	.173
CTL_PAM3	796	3.64	1.448	-.366	.087	-.469	.173
CTL_FAG1	794	3.30	1.381	.329	.087	-.076	.173
CTL_FAG2	796	3.16	1.391	.241	.087	-.832	.173
CTL_FAG3	800	4.04	.858	.307	.086	1.313	.173
CTL_FAG4	800	3.79	1.335	-1.104	.086	.089	.173
CTL_HPE1	800	3.69	1.275	-1.112	.086	.234	.173
CTL_HPE2	800	3.95	.812	-.585	.086	.862	.173
CTL_HPE3	800	3.79	1.341	-1.086	.086	.043	.173
CTL_PIS1	800	3.83	1.026	-.721	.086	-.260	.173
CTL_PIS2	800	3.14	.811	-.016	.086	-.982	.173
CTL_PIS3	800	2.73	1.077	.086	.086	-1.248	.173
CTL_PIS4	800	3.27	1.276	-.716	.086	-.557	.173
CTL_IntS1	800	3.02	1.502	-.371	.086	-1.437	.173
CTL_IntS2	800	2.86	1.628	.129	.086	-1.591	.173
CTL_IntS3	800	3.97	.843	1.330	.086	3.241	.173
Valid N (listwise)	767						

Descriptive Statistics – SELC

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
SELC_SA1	800	6.54	1.231	-3.347	.086	10.705	.173
SELC_SA2	800	6.50	1.191	-3.079	.086	9.519	.173
SELC_SA3	800	6.59	1.165	-3.492	.086	12.290	.173
SELC_SA4	800	6.60	.986	-3.908	.086	17.309	.173
SELC_SA5	800	6.70	.964	-4.400	.086	20.782	.173
SELC_SoA1	800	6.52	1.003	-3.387	.086	13.496	.173
SELC_SoA2	800	6.40	1.182	-2.750	.086	7.950	.173
SELC_SoA3	800	6.45	1.266	-2.885	.086	8.188	.173
SELC_SoA4	800	6.48	1.144	-2.786	.086	7.897	.173
SELC_SoA5	800	6.51	1.043	-2.939	.086	9.780	.173
SELC_SM1	797	3.95	1.239	-.339	.087	.970	.173
SELC_SM2	799	3.89	1.210	-.787	.086	.279	.173

SELC_SM3	798	3.93	1.127	-.755	.087	.821	.173
SELC_SM4	799	3.83	1.247	-.712	.086	.211	.173
SELC_SM5	798	3.80	1.125	-.955	.087	.233	.173
SELC_RM1	799	3.91	1.083	-1.262	.086	1.127	.173
SELC_RM2	799	3.84	.966	-1.032	.086	.833	.173
SELC_RM3	798	3.99	1.001	-.824	.087	1.745	.173
SELC_RM4	798	3.89	1.117	-.660	.087	.139	.173
SELC_RM5	799	3.74	1.204	-.669	.086	-.040	.173
SELC_RDM1	799	3.87	1.119	-.689	.086	.377	.173
SELC_RDM2	799	3.98	1.151	-.824	.086	.772	.173
SELC_RDM3	799	4.02	1.032	-.711	.086	.361	.173
SELC_RDM4	799	3.49	1.068	.040	.086	-.095	.173
SELC_RDM5	799	4.14	1.026	-.566	.086	.185	.173
Valid N (listwise)	794						

Factor Analysis - CEI

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.852
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5364.483
	Df	66
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
CEI_OEA1	1.000	.714
CEI_OEA2	1.000	.758
CEI_OEA3	1.000	.822
CEI_OEA4	1.000	.703
CEI_UOE1	1.000	.752
CEI_UOE2	1.000	.694
CEI_UOE3	1.000	.663
CEI_UOE4	1.000	.795
CEI_ROE1	1.000	.522
CEI_ROE2	1.000	.668
CEI_ROE3	1.000	.638

CEI_ROE4	1.000	.727

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.226	43.553	43.553	5.226	43.553	43.553	5.051	42.090	42.090
2	2.010	16.750	60.303	2.010	16.750	60.303	2.035	16.958	59.048
3	1.220	10.168	70.470	1.220	10.168	70.470	1.371	11.422	70.470
4	.746	6.220	76.690						
5	.622	5.183	81.872						
6	.511	4.259	86.132						
7	.409	3.407	89.539						
8	.364	3.033	92.572						
9	.303	2.529	95.101						
10	.225	1.877	96.978						
11	.212	1.768	98.746						
12	.150	1.254	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
CEI_OEA1	.834	-.064	.123
CEI_OEA2	.863	-.031	.107
CEI_OEA3	.866	-.180	.200
CEI_OEA4	.823	-.157	-.037
CEI_UOE1	.854	-.137	.066
CEI_UOE2	.832	-.034	.030
CEI_UOE3	.633	.181	-.479
CEI_UOE4	.645	.237	-.568
CEI_ROE1	.045	.699	-.175
CEI_ROE2	.321	.214	.721
CEI_ROE3	.077	.784	.135
CEI_ROE4	.101	.831	.163

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 3 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
CEI_OEA1	.844	.035	.033
CEI_OEA2	.866	.069	.057
CEI_OEA3	.903	-.069	-.046
CEI_OEA4	.816	-.075	.179
CEI_UOE1	.862	-.041	.086
CEI_UOE2	.821	.054	.126
CEI_UOE3	.510	.193	.605
CEI_UOE4	.500	.241	.698
CEI_ROE1	-.071	.678	.239
CEI_ROE2	.417	.320	-.626
CEI_ROE3	.005	.797	-.051
CEI_ROE4	.028	.849	-.070

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	.976	.102	.190
2	-.120	.989	.085
3	.179	.106	-.978

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Factor Analysis - CTL

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.841

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	19352.312
	Df	231
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
CTL_IAV1	1.000	.560
CTL_IAV2	1.000	.766
CTL_IAV3	1.000	.748
CTL_IAV4	1.000	.770
CTL_IAV5	1.000	.766
CTL_PAM1	1.000	.743
CTL_PAM2	1.000	.779
CTL_PAM3	1.000	.641
CTL_FAG1	1.000	.720
CTL_FAG2	1.000	.665
CTL_FAG3	1.000	.792
CTL_FAG4	1.000	.949
CTL_HPE1	1.000	.943
CTL_HPE2	1.000	.892
CTL_HPE3	1.000	.958
CTL_PIS1	1.000	.902
CTL_PIS2	1.000	.719
CTL_PIS3	1.000	.663
CTL_PIS4	1.000	.917
CTL_IntS1	1.000	.865
CTL_IntS2	1.000	.907
CTL_IntS3	1.000	.730

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.167	32.576	32.576	7.167	32.576	32.576	5.730	26.043	26.043
2	5.384	24.472	57.048	5.384	24.472	57.048	5.582	25.373	51.416

3	1.875	8.522	65.570	1.875	8.522	65.570	2.671	12.142	63.558
4	1.695	7.707	73.276	1.695	7.707	73.276	1.783	8.105	71.663
5	1.274	5.793	79.069	1.274	5.793	79.069	1.629	7.406	79.069
6	.726	3.301	82.370						
7	.602	2.737	85.107						
8	.546	2.482	87.589						
9	.498	2.263	89.852						
10	.380	1.727	91.579						
11	.325	1.476	93.055						
12	.293	1.334	94.389						
13	.267	1.214	95.603						
14	.241	1.097	96.700						
15	.190	.862	97.562						
16	.152	.690	98.252						
17	.131	.597	98.849						
18	.095	.432	99.281						
19	.085	.388	99.668						
20	.047	.213	99.881						
21	.019	.088	99.969						
22	.007	.031	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
CTL_IAV1	.224	.658	-.115	-.209	-.138
CTL_IAV2	.303	.801	-.124	-.125	-.032
CTL_IAV3	.282	.810	.013	-.098	-.061
CTL_IAV4	.392	.765	.114	.127	-.047
CTL_IAV5	.362	.776	.074	.161	-.039
CTL_PAM1	.387	.757	.059	.128	.028
CTL_PAM2	.308	.820	.034	.106	.021
CTL_PAM3	.345	.721	-.032	.025	.017
CTL_FAG1	-.058	-.027	.478	.580	.388
CTL_FAG2	-.032	.041	.463	.525	.415
CTL_FAG3	.754	-.206	-.127	.401	.062
CTL_FAG4	.911	-.306	-.039	.066	-.141
CTL_HPE1	.888	-.299	-.180	.160	-.083
CTL_HPE2	.772	-.359	-.275	.269	-.141

CTL_HPE3	.911	-.317	-.035	.073	-.141
CTL_PIS1	.840	-.327	-.185	.209	-.108
CTL_PIS2	-.524	.214	-.475	.025	.415
CTL_PIS3	-.285	.165	-.618	.400	.111
CTL_PIS4	.796	-.188	.285	-.348	.217
CTL_IntS1	.696	-.056	.021	-.382	.480
CTL_IntS2	.702	-.153	.134	-.450	.411
CTL_IntS3	-.086	-.028	.715	.040	-.458

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 5 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
CTL_IAV1	-.059	.690	.052	.010	-.277
CTL_IAV2	-.031	.849	.082	.093	-.169
CTL_IAV3	-.067	.854	.069	-.025	-.096
CTL_IAV4	.093	.862	.013	-.080	.112
CTL_IAV5	.086	.862	-.025	-.034	.120
CTL_PAM1	.090	.847	.044	.007	.124
CTL_PAM2	.004	.877	.006	.034	.095
CTL_PAM3	.054	.794	.066	.059	.003
CTL_FAG1	-.014	-.036	-.043	-.065	.844
CTL_FAG2	-.037	.032	.008	-.044	.813
CTL_FAG3	.846	.085	.116	.088	.217
CTL_FAG4	.905	.045	.302	-.177	-.076
CTL_HPE1	.940	.043	.235	-.014	-.054
CTL_HPE2	.938	-.048	.067	.055	-.057
CTL_HPE3	.911	.035	.300	-.180	-.069
CTL_PIS1	.933	.003	.171	-.013	-.035
CTL_PIS2	-.461	-.014	-.130	.700	.008
CTL_PIS3	-.021	.056	-.465	.665	.020
CTL_PIS4	.475	.080	.782	-.271	.003
CTL_IntS1	.347	.148	.843	.106	-.013
CTL_IntS2	.347	.061	.883	-.042	-.038
CTL_IntS3	-.121	-.017	-.172	-.814	.154

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	.815	.351	.444	-.123	-.027
2	-.333	.933	-.103	.086	.004
3	-.231	.013	.225	-.795	.513
4	.365	.044	-.620	.155	.676
5	-.197	-.059	.597	.567	.528

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Factor Analysis - SELC

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.852
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	13308.935
	Df	300
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
SELC_SA1	1.000	.766
SELC_SA2	1.000	.843
SELC_SA3	1.000	.893
SELC_SA4	1.000	.631
SELC_SA5	1.000	.652
SELC_SoA1	1.000	.683
SELC_SoA2	1.000	.749
SELC_SoA3	1.000	.755
SELC_SoA4	1.000	.812
SELC_SoA5	1.000	.629
SELC_SM1	1.000	.502
SELC_SM2	1.000	.747
SELC_SM3	1.000	.697
SELC_SM4	1.000	.780

SELC_SM5	1.000	.539
SELC_RM1	1.000	.596
SELC_RM2	1.000	.607
SELC_RM3	1.000	.501
SELC_RM4	1.000	.629
SELC_RM5	1.000	.721
SELC_RDM1	1.000	.739
SELC_RDM2	1.000	.513
SELC_RDM3	1.000	.645
SELC_RDM4	1.000	.943
SELC_RDM5	1.000	.428

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.280	25.119	25.119	6.280	25.119	25.119	4.754	19.018	19.018
2	5.862	23.447	48.566	5.862	23.447	48.566	4.098	16.391	35.408
3	2.071	8.282	56.848	2.071	8.282	56.848	3.313	13.254	48.662
4	1.538	6.154	63.002	1.538	6.154	63.002	2.780	11.119	59.781
5	1.247	4.989	67.991	1.247	4.989	67.991	2.052	8.210	67.991
6	.942	3.767	71.759						
7	.761	3.043	74.802						
8	.691	2.765	77.566						
9	.626	2.504	80.070						
10	.586	2.345	82.415						
11	.538	2.150	84.566						
12	.487	1.948	86.514						
13	.462	1.848	88.361						
14	.382	1.527	89.888						
15	.348	1.391	91.278						
16	.340	1.362	92.640						
17	.329	1.314	93.954						
18	.277	1.108	95.062						
19	.253	1.012	96.074						
20	.230	.920	96.994						

21	.206	.826	97.820						
22	.188	.754	98.574						
23	.175	.698	99.272						
24	.105	.418	99.690						
25	.077	.310	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
SELC_SA1	-.150	.678	.076	-.522	.078
SELC_SA2	-.178	.752	.102	-.471	.116
SELC_SA3	-.166	.776	.072	-.497	.109
SELC_SA4	-.182	.735	.014	-.236	.030
SELC_SA5	-.177	.785	-.060	-.005	-.018
SELC_SoA1	-.160	.799	-.064	.123	-.010
SELC_SoA2	-.143	.767	-.102	.356	-.061
SELC_SoA3	-.135	.747	-.114	.396	-.094
SELC_SoA4	-.127	.779	-.064	.423	-.082
SELC_SoA5	-.109	.674	-.056	.396	-.054
SELC_SM1	.459	.112	-.070	.121	.509
SELC_SM2	.775	.118	-.156	.024	.328
SELC_SM3	.720	.107	-.235	.065	.327
SELC_SM4	.738	.123	-.194	.046	.425
SELC_SM5	.696	.100	-.197	.006	.073
SELC_RM1	.756	.131	-.063	-.048	-.019
SELC_RM2	.743	.159	-.028	-.063	-.161
SELC_RM3	.655	.150	-.019	-.044	-.216
SELC_RM4	.719	.145	.065	-.053	-.290
SELC_RM5	.752	.142	.113	-.099	-.336
SELC_RDM1	.727	.160	.156	-.077	-.392
SELC_RDM2	.674	.126	.124	-.010	-.166
SELC_RDM3	.148	.087	.772	.130	.054
SELC_RDM4	.185	.116	.913	.175	.179
SELC_RDM5	.085	.045	.600	.109	.218

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 5 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
SELC_SA1	.016	.192	.853	-.035	.015
SELC_SA2	-.019	.274	.874	-.015	.060
SELC_SA3	-.001	.280	.902	-.006	.027
SELC_SA4	-.014	.429	.667	-.036	.001
SELC_SA5	-.008	.624	.511	-.020	-.032
SELC_SoA1	-.012	.710	.422	.012	-.006
SELC_SoA2	-.006	.838	.214	.014	-.010
SELC_SoA3	.009	.853	.164	-.001	-.021
SELC_SoA4	.014	.884	.170	.005	.037
SELC_SoA5	.001	.782	.127	.021	.042
SELC_SM1	.105	.040	-.009	.689	.121
SELC_SM2	.466	-.024	-.014	.727	.007
SELC_SM3	.410	.011	-.051	.722	-.066
SELC_SM4	.380	-.009	-.010	.797	-.005
SELC_SM5	.534	.000	-.045	.491	-.102
SELC_RM1	.652	-.024	.004	.412	.001
SELC_RM2	.726	.005	.014	.284	-.001
SELC_RM3	.680	.026	-.001	.193	-.010
SELC_RM4	.778	.007	-.011	.144	.057
SELC_RM5	.838	-.028	.014	.108	.085
SELC_RDM1	.850	.005	.008	.042	.116
SELC_RDM2	.671	.002	-.023	.205	.144
SELC_RDM3	.143	.019	.014	-.063	.787
SELC_RDM4	.116	.029	.027	.025	.963
SELC_RDM5	-.012	-.016	.023	.072	.649

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	.819	-.137	-.140	.533	.088
2	.166	.755	.624	.092	.058
3	.067	-.129	.090	-.269	.948
4	-.119	.614	-.747	.113	.195
5	-.533	-.128	.159	.789	.229

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Included		Excluded		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
SELC_SA * Distribution of gender of respondents	800	100.0%	0	0.0%	800	100.0%
SELC_SoA * Distribution of gender of respondents	800	100.0%	0	0.0%	800	100.0%
SELC_SM * Distribution of gender of respondents	799	99.9%	1	0.1%	800	100.0%
SELC_RM * Distribution of gender of respondents	799	99.9%	1	0.1%	800	100.0%
SELC_RDM * Distribution of gender of respondents	799	99.9%	1	0.1%	800	100.0%
SELC_SA * Distribution of age of respondents	800	100.0%	0	0.0%	800	100.0%
SELC_SoA * Distribution of age of respondents	800	100.0%	0	0.0%	800	100.0%
SELC_SM * Distribution of age of respondents	799	99.9%	1	0.1%	800	100.0%
SELC_RM * Distribution of age of respondents	799	99.9%	1	0.1%	800	100.0%
SELC_RDM * Distribution of age of respondents	799	99.9%	1	0.1%	800	100.0%
SELC_SA * Distribution of ethnicity of respondents	800	100.0%	0	0.0%	800	100.0%
SELC_SoA * Distribution of ethnicity of respondents	800	100.0%	0	0.0%	800	100.0%
SELC_SM * Distribution of ethnicity of respondents	799	99.9%	1	0.1%	800	100.0%
SELC_RM * Distribution of ethnicity of respondents	799	99.9%	1	0.1%	800	100.0%
SELC_RDM * Distribution of ethnicity of respondents	799	99.9%	1	0.1%	800	100.0%

SELC_SA SELC_SoA SELC_SM SELC_RM SELC_RDM * Distribution of gender of respondents

Mean

Distribution of gender of respondents	SELC_SA	SELC_SoA	SELC_SM	SELC_RM	SELC_RDM
Male	6.60	6.47	3.90	3.91	3.89
Female	6.48	6.48	3.91	3.81	3.86
Total	6.56	6.47	3.90	3.87	3.88

SELC_SA SELC_SoA SELC_SM SELC_RM SELC_RDM * Distribution of age of respondents

Mean

Distribution of age of respondents	SELC_SA	SELC_SoA	SELC_SM	SELC_RM	SELC_RDM
18	6.59	6.49	3.89	3.87	3.88
19	6.51	6.46	3.95	3.89	3.88
20	5.63	4.90	3.63	3.95	4.08
23	6.00	6.73	3.92	3.73	4.78
24	4.13	4.60	4.00	4.40	3.17
Total	6.56	6.47	3.90	3.87	3.88

SELC_SA SELC_SoA SELC_SM SELC_RM SELC_RDM * Distribution of ethnicity of respondents

Mean

Distribution of ethnicity of respondents	SELC_SA	SELC_SoA	SELC_SM	SELC_RM	SELC_RDM
Akan	6.65	6.47	3.89	3.81	3.89
Ewe	6.37	6.40	3.93	3.88	3.99
Ga	6.57	6.49	3.86	3.90	3.82
Dagbon	6.53	6.54	4.03	4.04	3.85
Total	6.56	6.47	3.90	3.87	3.88

Mann-Whitney Test

Ranks

	Distribution of gender of respondents	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
SELC_SA	Male	546	399.44	218094.50
	Female	254	402.78	102305.50
	Total	800		
SELC_SoA	Male	546	400.22	218519.50
	Female	254	401.10	101880.50
	Total	800		
SELC_SM	Male	545	397.18	216461.00
	Female	254	406.06	103139.00
	Total	799		
SELC_RM	Male	545	407.65	222167.00
	Female	254	383.59	97433.00
	Total	799		
SELC_RDM	Male	545	401.19	218647.50
	Female	254	397.45	100952.50
	Total	799		

Test Statistics[a]

	SELC_SA	SELC_SoA	SELC_SM	SELC_RM	SELC_RDM
Mann-Whitney U	68763.500	69188.500	67676.000	65048.000	68567.500
Wilcoxon W	218094.500	218519.500	216461.000	97433.000	100952.500
Z	-.215	-.053	-.510	-1.380	-.219
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.830	.958	.610	.168	.826

a. Grouping Variable: Distribution of gender of respondents

Kruskal-Wallis Test

Ranks

	Distribution of age of respondents	N	Mean Rank
SELC_SA	18	635	399.55
	19	156	407.36
	20	4	424.13
	23	3	289.83
	24	2	285.00

	Total	800	
SELC_SoA	18	635	403.06
	19	156	398.43
	20	4	76.00
	23	3	456.33
	24	2	313.50
	Total	800	
SELC_SM	18	634	399.22
	19	156	406.23
	20	4	317.13
	23	3	368.00
	24	2	375.25
	Total	799	
SELC_RM	18	634	399.10
	19	156	402.30
	20	4	401.50
	23	3	350.33
	24	2	578.25
	Total	799	
SELC_RDM	18	634	398.30
	19	156	404.70
	20	4	505.75
	23	3	517.67
	24	2	183.25
	Total	799	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	SELC_SA	SELC_SoA	SELC_SM	SELC_RM	SELC_RDM
Kruskal-Wallis H	1.759	9.407	.726	1.373	3.691
df	4	4	4	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.780	.052	.948	.849	.449

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Distribution of age of respondents

Kruskal-Wallis Test

Ranks

	Distribution of ethnicity of respondents	N	Mean Rank
SELC_SA	Akan	330	405.63
	Ewe	148	371.71
	Ga	241	405.29
	Dagbon	81	417.94
	Total	800	
SELC_SoA	Akan	330	402.43
	Ewe	148	405.72
	Ga	241	393.22
	Dagbon	81	404.73
	Total	800	
SELC_SM	Akan	329	393.17
	Ewe	148	411.88
	Ga	241	389.84
	Dagbon	81	436.29
	Total	799	
SELC_RM	Akan	329	377.06
	Ewe	148	412.65
	Ga	241	410.20
	Dagbon	81	439.71
	Total	799	
SELC_RDM	Akan	329	401.06
	Ewe	148	422.39
	Ga	241	388.20
	Dagbon	81	389.91
	Total	799	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	SELC_SA	SELC_SoA	SELC_SM	SELC_RM	SELC_RDM
Kruskal-Wallis H	3.862	.407	3.189	6.639	2.316
df	3	3	3	3	3
Asymp. Sig.	.277	.939	.363	.084	.509

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Distribution of ethnicity of respondents

Statistics for split data

Counsellors' emotional intelligence

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.854
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2617.643
	Df	66
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
CEI_OEA1	1.000	.742
CEI_OEA2	1.000	.785
CEI_OEA3	1.000	.821
CEI_OEA4	1.000	.686
CEI_UOE1	1.000	.741
CEI_UOE2	1.000	.692
CEI_UOE3	1.000	.626
CEI_UOE4	1.000	.770
CEI_ROE1	1.000	.478
CEI_ROE2	1.000	.714
CEI_ROE3	1.000	.638
CEI_ROE4	1.000	.717

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.291	44.089	44.089	5.291	44.089	44.089	5.252	43.765	43.765
2	1.922	16.013	60.102	1.922	16.013	60.102	1.930	16.087	59.853
3	1.196	9.969	70.071	1.196	9.969	70.071	1.226	10.218	70.071
4	.764	6.369	76.440						
5	.623	5.195	81.634						

6	.508	4.235	85.869						
7	.447	3.726	89.595						
8	.377	3.146	92.741						
9	.330	2.750	95.490						
10	.210	1.749	97.240						
11	.184	1.531	98.770						
12	.148	1.230	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	1	2	3
CEI_OEA1	.856	.063	-.078
CEI_OEA2	.881	.038	-.080
CEI_OEA3	.893	-.093	-.125
CEI_OEA4	.810	-.120	.127
CEI_UOE1	.860	-.022	.022
CEI_UOE2	.828	.055	.049
CEI_UOE3	.513	.192	.571
CEI_UOE4	.578	.266	.605
CEI_ROE1	-.034	.648	.237
CEI_ROE2	.413	.182	-.714
CEI_ROE3	-.006	.794	-.087
CEI_ROE4	.024	.841	-.093

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

CTL

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.842
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	9216.807
	Df	231
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
CTL_IAV1	1.000	.514
CTL_IAV2	1.000	.778
CTL_IAV3	1.000	.764
CTL_IAV4	1.000	.789
CTL_IAV5	1.000	.777
CTL_PAM1	1.000	.729
CTL_PAM2	1.000	.799
CTL_PAM3	1.000	.646
CTL_FAG1	1.000	.706
CTL_FAG2	1.000	.659
CTL_FAG3	1.000	.780
CTL_FAG4	1.000	.953
CTL_HPE1	1.000	.947
CTL_HPE2	1.000	.899
CTL_HPE3	1.000	.960
CTL_PIS1	1.000	.883
CTL_PIS2	1.000	.691
CTL_PIS3	1.000	.642
CTL_PIS4	1.000	.914
CTL_IntS1	1.000	.857
CTL_IntS2	1.000	.899
CTL_IntS3	1.000	.667

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.887	31.306	31.306	6.887	31.306	31.306	5.639	25.631	25.631
2	5.609	25.495	56.801	5.609	25.495	56.801	5.588	25.402	51.033
3	1.871	8.504	65.305	1.871	8.504	65.305	2.609	11.859	62.892
4	1.597	7.260	72.565	1.597	7.260	72.565	1.790	8.134	71.026
5	1.288	5.854	78.418	1.288	5.854	78.418	1.626	7.392	78.418
6	.778	3.537	81.955						

7	.664	3.017	84.972						
8	.604	2.746	87.718						
9	.488	2.216	89.934						
10	.387	1.761	91.694						
11	.330	1.501	93.195						
12	.295	1.339	94.534						
13	.253	1.151	95.685						
14	.226	1.025	96.711						
15	.176	.800	97.511						
16	.145	.658	98.169						
17	.129	.584	98.753						
18	.107	.484	99.237						
19	.089	.404	99.642						
20	.050	.227	99.868						
21	.022	.100	99.969						
22	.007	.031	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
CTL_IAV1	-.095	.660	-.028	.022	-.261
CTL_IAV2	-.025	.859	.040	.133	-.144
CTL_IAV3	-.070	.863	.024	.006	-.117
CTL_IAV4	.061	.867	.025	-.066	.170
CTL_IAV5	.016	.870	-.001	-.058	.126
CTL_PAM1	.087	.839	.060	.004	.121
CTL_PAM2	-.036	.882	.045	.016	.131
CTL_PAM3	.015	.798	.081	.028	.044
CTL_FAG1	-.019	.054	-.022	-.048	.837
CTL_FAG2	-.014	.015	-.007	-.065	.809
CTL_FAG3	.835	.035	.155	.097	.219
CTL_FAG4	.908	.005	.289	-.197	-.072
CTL_HPE1	.945	.015	.225	-.033	-.036
CTL_HPE2	.938	-.095	.050	.044	-.077
CTL_HPE3	.912	.000	.293	-.196	-.061
CTL_PIS1	.921	-.018	.185	-.025	-.012
CTL_PIS2	-.419	.013	-.114	.707	-.047
CTL_PIS3	-.039	.056	-.395	.692	.042
CTL_PIS4	.464	.061	.784	-.280	.045

CTL_IntS1	.342	.145	.843	.090	-.012
CTL_IntS2	.337	.038	.883	-.053	-.045
CTL_IntS3	-.112	-.001	-.195	-.773	.138

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

SELC

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.856
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	6962.737
	Df	300
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
SELC_SA1	1.000	.816
SELC_SA2	1.000	.845
SELC_SA3	1.000	.893
SELC_SA4	1.000	.719
SELC_SA5	1.000	.701
SELC_SoA1	1.000	.709
SELC_SoA2	1.000	.784
SELC_SoA3	1.000	.758
SELC_SoA4	1.000	.818
SELC_SoA5	1.000	.658
SELC_SM1	1.000	.532
SELC_SM2	1.000	.749
SELC_SM3	1.000	.709
SELC_SM4	1.000	.754
SELC_SM5	1.000	.597
SELC_RM1	1.000	.621
SELC_RM2	1.000	.628
SELC_RM3	1.000	.500
SELC_RM4	1.000	.586
SELC_RM5	1.000	.722
SELC_RDM1	1.000	.728
SELC_RDM2	1.000	.535

SELC_RDM3	1.000	.645
SELC_RDM4	1.000	.937
SELC_RDM5	1.000	.543

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.479	25.917	25.917	6.479	25.917	25.917	5.339	21.356	21.356
2	6.325	25.299	51.216	6.325	25.299	51.216	4.122	16.490	37.846
3	2.038	8.154	59.370	2.038	8.154	59.370	3.590	14.359	52.205
4	1.394	5.575	64.945	1.394	5.575	64.945	2.357	9.430	61.635
5	1.252	5.007	69.952	1.252	5.007	69.952	2.079	8.317	69.952
6	.915	3.661	73.613						
7	.816	3.262	76.875						
8	.642	2.567	79.442						
9	.588	2.351	81.792						
10	.533	2.132	83.925						
11	.516	2.065	85.989						
12	.448	1.790	87.779						
13	.402	1.608	89.387						
14	.348	1.392	90.780						
15	.330	1.319	92.099						
16	.315	1.259	93.358						
17	.292	1.167	94.524						
18	.254	1.015	95.540						
19	.233	.933	96.473						
20	.204	.817	97.290						
21	.200	.802	98.092						
22	.174	.695	98.787						
23	.134	.536	99.323						
24	.093	.372	99.695						
25	.076	.305	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
SELC_SA1	.013	.204	.879	-.025	.025
SELC_SA2	.013	.302	.863	-.008	.091
SELC_SA3	.037	.313	.890	.003	.032
SELC_SA4	.004	.472	.703	-.039	.017
SELC_SA5	-.002	.623	.558	.009	-.044
SELC_SoA1	.002	.688	.484	.038	-.014
SELC_SoA2	.004	.844	.266	-.003	.004
SELC_SoA3	.010	.833	.247	-.042	-.040
SELC_SoA4	.007	.860	.275	-.043	.039
SELC_SoA5	-.044	.805	.064	.032	.050
SELC_SM1	.115	.034	-.037	.702	.155
SELC_SM2	.564	-.061	-.001	.654	-.013
SELC_SM3	.523	-.015	-.055	.654	-.060
SELC_SM4	.479	-.026	.038	.722	-.036
SELC_SM5	.616	-.002	-.008	.464	-.045
SELC_RM1	.723	-.017	.047	.308	-.034
SELC_RM2	.771	.015	-.032	.179	.020
SELC_RM3	.689	-.011	.052	.143	-.050
SELC_RM4	.751	.010	.018	.085	.115
SELC_RM5	.835	-.026	-.016	.032	.153
SELC_RDM1	.841	.022	-.003	-.002	.146
SELC_RDM2	.685	-.003	.015	.205	.155
SELC_RDM3	.245	.032	-.042	-.158	.747
SELC_RDM4	.167	.052	.040	.035	.951
SELC_RDM5	-.067	-.052	.104	.205	.695

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

ANNEXURE 3: RELIABILITY STATISTICS

CEI

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.853	.845	12

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CEI_OEA1	39.33	111.520	.711	.703	.828
CEI_OEA2	39.50	111.127	.757	.708	.825
CEI_OEA3	39.37	113.412	.717	.757	.828
CEI_OEA4	39.58	114.061	.674	.623	.831
CEI_UOE1	39.56	111.867	.714	.723	.828
CEI_UOE2	39.58	110.603	.719	.697	.827
CEI_UOE3	39.51	116.045	.564	.478	.839
CEI_UOE4	39.75	112.950	.588	.564	.837
CEI_ROE1	39.98	132.837	.135	.260	.866
CEI_ROE2	39.61	128.858	.283	.229	.856
CEI_ROE3	39.54	131.454	.173	.376	.864
CEI_ROE4	39.52	130.847	.215	.433	.860

TLI

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.838	.825	22

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CTL_IAV1	75.11	156.663	.387	.515	.833
CTL_IAV2	75.01	152.273	.526	.735	.827
CTL_IAV3	75.08	152.384	.508	.736	.827
CTL_IAV4	75.09	148.004	.631	.725	.822
CTL_IAV5	75.24	148.222	.600	.718	.823
CTL_PAM1	75.16	148.540	.615	.717	.822
CTL_PAM2	75.10	150.827	.561	.760	.825
CTL_PAM3	75.26	148.572	.541	.607	.825
CTL_FAG1	75.61	168.205	-.009	.370	.850
CTL_FAG2	75.76	166.481	.038	.289	.848
CTL_FAG3	74.85	156.892	.566	.802	.828
CTL_FAG4	75.10	149.126	.587	.985	.824
CTL_HPE1	75.20	150.018	.589	.970	.824
CTL_HPE2	74.95	159.746	.457	.909	.832
CTL_HPE3	75.10	149.100	.585	.990	.824
CTL_PIS1	75.06	155.243	.532	.881	.828
CTL_PIS2	75.76	176.697	-.350	.768	.852
CTL_PIS3	76.18	173.671	-.177	.588	.852
CTL_PIS4	75.63	150.876	.555	.931	.825
CTL_IntS1	75.87	147.851	.537	.828	.825
CTL_IntS2	76.03	148.598	.468	.897	.829
CTL_IntS3	74.95	171.773	-.122	.427	.847

SELC

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.860	.860	25

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SELC_SA1	117.08	166.134	.367	.651	.856
SELC_SA2	117.12	165.155	.415	.805	.855
SELC_SA3	117.03	164.788	.439	.840	.854
SELC_SA4	117.01	168.276	.393	.593	.855
SELC_SA5	116.92	167.660	.429	.648	.854
SELC_SoA1	117.10	166.547	.454	.629	.854
SELC_SoA2	117.23	164.858	.430	.667	.854
SELC_SoA3	117.17	164.193	.416	.668	.855
SELC_SoA4	117.14	164.538	.458	.741	.853
SELC_SoA5	117.12	167.665	.390	.507	.855
SELC_SM1	119.66	167.577	.318	.269	.858
SELC_SM2	119.72	162.533	.498	.686	.852
SELC_SM3	119.69	165.061	.449	.621	.853
SELC_SM4	119.78	162.654	.477	.679	.852
SELC_SM5	119.81	165.902	.423	.492	.854
SELC_RM1	119.70	164.653	.492	.587	.852
SELC_RM2	119.77	165.843	.508	.547	.852
SELC_RM3	119.63	166.763	.447	.459	.854
SELC_RM4	119.73	164.210	.484	.563	.852
SELC_RM5	119.87	162.538	.501	.659	.852
SELC_RDM1	119.74	163.579	.509	.669	.852
SELC_RDM2	119.64	164.715	.451	.444	.853
SELC_RDM3	119.60	173.512	.174	.789	.862
SELC_RDM4	120.13	171.232	.249	.854	.860
SELC_RDM5	119.48	175.403	.106	.630	.863

ANNEXURE 4: PILOT STUDY /DEMOGRAPHY AND STATISTICS

A- DEMOGRAPHICS

Distribution of gender of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	199	60.9	60.9	60.9
	Female	128	39.1	39.1	100.0
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

Distribution of age of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	253	77.4	77.4	77.4
	19	68	20.8	20.8	98.2
	20	4	1.2	1.2	99.4
	23	1	.3	.3	99.7
	24	1	.3	.3	100.0
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

Distribution of ethnicity of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Akan	129	39.4	39.4	39.4
	Ewe	55	16.8	16.8	56.3
	Ga	108	33.0	33.0	89.3
	Dagbon	35	10.7	10.7	100.0
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

Distribution of school of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	School 1	126	38.5	38.5	38.5
	School 2	64	19.6	19.6	58.1
	School 3	137	41.9	41.9	100.0
	Total	327	100.0	100.0	

Distribution of level of respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	SHS 3	327	100.0	100.0	100.0

B- PILOT STUDY STATISTICS

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS)

Construct Operationalization - WLEIS

Construct	Type of measurement model	Number of indicators	Predefined reliability
CEI_OEA	factor (Mode A)	4	1.0000
CEI_UOE	factor (Mode A)	4	1.0000
CEI_ROE	factor (Mode A)	4	1.0000

Loadings - WLEIS

Indicator	CEI_OEA	CEI_UOE	CEI_ROE
CEI_OEA1	**0.8986**	0.6679	0.0670
CEI_OEA2	**0.9056**	0.7034	0.0848
CEI_OEA3	**0.9072**	0.7357	0.0106
CEI_OEA4	**0.8180**	0.6943	0.0020
CEI_UOE1	0.7781	**0.8492**	0.0337
CEI_UOE2	0.7390	**0.8322**	0.0776
CEI_UOE3	0.4765	**0.7373**	0.1123
CEI_UOE4	0.5045	**0.7622**	0.1033
CEI_ROE1	-0.0259	0.0330	**0.8017**
CEI_ROE2	0.0607	0.0873	**0.8604**
CEI_ROE3	0.0121	0.0544	**0.8821**
CEI_ROE4	0.1164	0.1651	**0.7509**

Construct Reliability - WLEIS

Construct	Dijkstra-Henseler's rho (ρ_A)	Jöreskog's rho (ρ_c)	Cronbach's alpha(α)
CEI_OEA	0.9080	0.9340	0.9053
CEI_UOE	0.8117	0.8738	0.8068
CEI_ROE	0.8483	0.8949	0.8424

Convergent Validity - WLEIS

Construct	Average variance extracted (AVE)
CEI_OEA	0.7799
CEI_UOE	0.6346
CEI_ROE	0.6812

Discriminant Validity: Fornell-Larcker Criterion - WLEIS

Construct	CEI_OEA	CEI_UOE	CEI_ROE
CEI_OEA	0.7799		
CEI_UOE	0.6281	0.6346	
CEI_ROE	0.0023	0.0101	0.6812

Squared correlations; AVE in the diagonal.

Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI) Subordinate Version

Construct Operationalization - TLI

Construct	Type of measurement model	Number of indicators	Predefined reliability
CTL_PIS	factor (Mode A)	4	1.0000
CTL_HPE	factor (Mode A)	3	1.0000
CTL_FAG	factor (Mode A)	4	1.0000
CTL_PAM	factor (Mode A)	3	1.0000
CTL_IntS	factor (Mode A)	3	1.0000
CTL_IAV	factor (Mode A)	5	1.0000

Loadings - TLI

Indicator	CTL_IAV	CTL_PAM	CTL_FAG	CTL_HPE	CTL_PIS	CTL_IntS
CTL_IAV1	**0.752**	0.560	-0.055	0.006	-0.137	0.066
CTL_IAV2	**0.866**	0.729	0.006	-0.002	-0.175	0.008
CTL_IAV3	**0.904**	0.734	0.014	-0.016	-0.170	0.050
CTL_IAV4	**0.856**	0.733	0.068	0.091	-0.091	0.020
CTL_IAV5	**0.843**	0.801	0.073	0.125	-0.082	0.009
CTL_PAM1	0.771	**0.912**	0.068	0.095	0.005	-0.004
CTL_PAM2	0.776	**0.913**	0.048	0.013	-0.054	0.002
CTL_PAM3	0.697	**0.833**	0.068	0.047	0.035	0.050
CTL_FAG1	0.000	0.062	**0.810**	-0.060	-0.004	0.053
CTL_FAG2	0.063	0.098	**0.737**	-0.075	-0.042	0.084
CTL_FAG3	-0.005	0.015	**0.764**	-0.043	0.247	0.096
CTL_FAG4	0.029	0.040	**0.798**	-0.047	0.071	0.043
CTL_HPE1	0.078	0.098	-0.054	**0.980**	0.004	0.009
CTL_HPE2	-0.006	-0.005	-0.096	**0.931**	0.025	0.025
CTL_HPE3	0.064	0.073	-0.060	**0.970**	0.004	0.018
CTL_PIS1	-0.113	-0.023	0.027	0.049	**0.736**	0.247
CTL_PIS2	-0.078	0.012	0.041	0.031	**0.755**	0.170
CTL_PIS3	-0.162	-0.022	0.070	0.001	**0.836**	0.155
CTL_PIS4	-0.134	0.011	0.131	-0.038	**0.840**	0.180
CTL_IntS1	0.045	0.007	0.106	-0.027	0.119	**0.841**
CTL_IntS2	0.050	0.035	0.012	0.054	0.225	**0.819**
CTL_IntS3	-0.010	0.000	0.099	0.017	0.235	**0.794**

Construct Reliability - TLI

Construct	Dijkstra-Henseler's rho (ρ_A)	Jöreskog's rho (ρ_c)	Cronbach's alpha(α)
CTL_PIS	0.8068	0.8709	0.8017
CTL_HPE	0.9591	0.9729	0.9580
CTL_FAG	0.7838	0.8595	0.7817
CTL_PAM	0.8672	0.9169	0.8633
CTL_IntS	0.7541	0.8587	0.7529
CTL_IAV	0.9032	0.9258	0.8991

Convergent Validity - TLI

Construct	Average variance extracted (AVE)
CTL_PIS	0.6287
CTL_HPE	0.9229
CTL_FAG	0.6050
CTL_PAM	0.7864
CTL_IntS	0.6696
CTL_IAV	0.7146

Discriminant Validity: Fornell-Larcker Criterion - TLI

Construct	CTL_PIS	CTL_HPE	CTL_FAG	CTL_PAM	CTL_IntS	CTL_IAV
CTL_PIS	0.6287					
CTL_HPE	0.0001	0.9229				
CTL_FAG	0.0076	0.0052	0.6050			
CTL_PAM	0.0000	0.0034	0.0047	0.7864		
CTL_IntS	0.0551	0.0003	0.0077	0.0003	0.6696	
CTL_IAV	0.0241	0.0023	0.0007	0.7128	0.0012	0.7146

Squared correlations; AVE in the diagonal.

Students Emotional Learning Competence (SELC)

Construct Operationalization – SELC

Construct	Type of measurement model	Number of indicators	Predefined reliability
SELC_SA	factor (Mode A)	5	1.0000
SELC_SoA	factor (Mode A)	5	1.0000
SELC_SM	factor (Mode A)	5	1.0000
SELC_RM	factor (Mode A)	5	1.0000

Construct	Type of measurement model	Number of indicators	Predefined reliability
SELC_RDM	factor (Mode A)	5	1.0000

Loadings - SELC

Indicator	SELC_SA	SELC_SoA	SELC_SM	SELC_RM	SELC_RDM
SELC_SA1	**0.8996**	0.5323	0.0300	-0.0279	0.1002
SELC_SA2	**0.8910**	0.5477	0.0338	-0.0624	0.0830
SELC_SA3	**0.8755**	0.5254	0.0634	-0.0078	0.1025
SELC_SA4	**0.7074**	0.6112	-0.0037	-0.0914	0.0853
SELC_SA5	**0.7882**	0.6686	0.0330	-0.0562	0.0709
SELC_SoA1	0.6073	**0.7672**	-0.0120	-0.1078	0.0601
SELC_SoA2	0.5429	**0.8378**	0.0151	-0.0796	0.1209
SELC_SoA3	0.5827	**0.8590**	0.0666	-0.0159	0.1723
SELC_SoA4	0.5250	**0.8576**	0.0293	0.0465	0.1717
SELC_SoA5	0.4872	**0.6749**	0.0298	0.0094	0.1741
SELC_SM1	0.0272	0.0317	**0.6145**	0.2630	0.0722
SELC_SM2	0.0587	0.0068	**0.8155**	0.6000	0.0688
SELC_SM3	0.0256	0.0397	**0.8626**	0.5748	0.0458
SELC_SM4	0.0671	0.0391	**0.8547**	0.6007	0.0299
SELC_SM5	-0.0386	0.0087	**0.6974**	0.5836	0.0301
SELC_RM1	-0.0448	-0.0500	0.6036	**0.8214**	-0.0855
SELC_RM2	-0.0354	-0.0003	0.5710	**0.8447**	-0.0418
SELC_RM3	-0.0576	-0.0198	0.5166	**0.7603**	-0.0117
SELC_RM4	-0.0596	-0.0146	0.5253	**0.7736**	0.0059
SELC_RM5	-0.0307	-0.0607	0.5445	**0.8127**	0.0205
SELC_RDM1	0.1332	0.1612	0.0759	0.0112	**0.8484**
SELC_RDM2	0.1174	0.1445	0.0826	0.0273	**0.8871**
SELC_RDM3	0.0852	0.1429	0.0325	-0.0408	**0.8529**
SELC_RDM4	0.0508	0.1208	0.0128	-0.0567	**0.7322**

SELC_RDM5	0.0224	0.1279	0.0382	-0.0749	**0.6768**

Construct Reliability - SELC

Construct	Dijkstra-Henseler's rho (ρA)	Jöreskog's rho (ρc)	Cronbach's alpha(α)
SELC_SA	0.899	0.920	0.890
SELC_SoA	0.868	0.900	0.859
SELC_SM	0.846	0.881	0.828
SELC_RM	0.864	0.901	0.862
SELC_RDM	0.871	0.900	0.860

Convergent Validity - SELC

Construct	Average variance extracted (AVE)
SELC_SA	0.6982
SELC_SoA	0.6439
SELC_SM	0.6007
SELC_RM	0.6450
SELC_RDM	0.6457

Discriminant Validity: Fornell-Larcker Criterion - SELC

Construct	SELC_SA	SELC_SoA	SELC_SM	SELC_RM	SELC_RDM
SELC_SA	0.6982				
SELC_SoA	0.4672	0.6439			
SELC_SM	0.0015	0.0011	0.6007		
SELC_RM	0.0032	0.0013	0.4737	0.6450	
SELC_RDM	0.0112	0.0303	0.0039	0.0008	0.6457

Squared correlations; AVE in the diagonal.

ANNEXURE 5: CONSENT FORM/AGREEMENT

CONSENT LETTER/FORM

Consent to Participate in a Research Study

Title of Study: MODEL OF COUNSELLORS' LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS PREDICTORS OF STUDENTS' SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL LEARNING OUTCOMES

Investigator:

Name: **Juliet Edwina Yayra Tengey** **Dept:** Psychology department **Phone:**

Introduction

- You are being asked to be in a research study intended to build a model of counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence as predictor of students' social and emotional learning outcomes.
- You were selected as a possible participant because you are in senior high school in the greater Accra region now and 18 years old or above.
- I ask that you read this form and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Purpose of Study

- The purpose of the study is to assess your social and emotional learning competencies and the emotional intelligence and leadership skills of your school counsellors.
- It will provide knowledge that may help other counselling professionals and educators and help develop students in senior high schools' social and emotional learning competencies.
- Ultimately, this research may be published in a journal as an article.

Description of the Study Procedures

- If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that will take approximately 30 minutes of your time.

Risks/Discomforts of Being in this Study

- There are no reasonably foreseeable risks apart from taking a bit of your time to complete a questionnaire.

Benefits of Being in the Study

- You will not benefit from your participation as an individual, however, it is envisioned that the findings of this study will benefit school counsellors and students in general.
- It may also inform policy formulation and benefit other researchers seeking information in the domains of leadership, emotional intelligence and social and emotional learning.

Confidentiality

- This study is anonymous. We will not be collecting or retaining any information about your identity.
- The records of this study will be kept strictly confidential. Research records will be kept in an electronic information will be coded and secured for 5 years using a password protected file after which it will be discarded.
- We will not include any information in any report we may publish that would make it possible to identify you.

Payments

- There will be no payments made to You.

Right to decline or Withdraw

- The decision to participate in this study is entirely up to you. You may decline to take part in the study *at any given time* without affecting your relationship with the researcher of this study. Your decision will not result in any loss or benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You have the right not to answer any single question, as well as to withdraw completely from the research at any point during the process.

Right to Ask Questions and Report Worries

- You have the right to ask questions about this research study and to have those questions answered by me before, during or after the research. If you have any further questions about the study, at any time feel free to contact me.

Consent

- Your signature below indicates that you have decided to volunteer as a research participant for this study, and that you have read and understood the information provided above. You will be given a signed and dated copy of this form to keep by the researcher.
- ***N.B. Please mark this box (below) with an 'X' to indicate that you accept the terms and conditions****.*

- **I accept the terms and conditions to voluntary participate in this Research**

☐

Participant's Name (print): _____

Participant's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher's Signature: _____ Date: _____

NB: Researcher's signature was appended to the questionnaire given out to respondents. It was deleted in the annexure.

ANNEXURE 6: STUDY CONSTRUCTS AND ITEMS MATRIX

STUDY CONSTRUCTS AND ITEMS MATRIX

CONSTRUCT	SUB-CONSTRUCT	MEANING	ALLOTTED (QUESTIONNAIRE)
CEI	CEI_OEA/UOE	Counsellors' emotional appraisal and use of emotions	1-12
	CEI_ROE	Counsellors' regulation of emotions	13,15, 16
CTL	CTL_FAG/HPE	Behaviour of the counsellor intended at promoting cooperation among students and getting them to work together toward a common goal and behaviour that demonstrates a counsellor's expectation for excellence, quality, and/or high performance expectations	9-16
	CTL_IAV/PAM	Behaviour on the part of the counsellor aimed at identifying new opportunities for his/her unit/division /company and developing, articulating and inspiring others with his or her vision of the future and behaviour on the part of the leader that sets an example students to follow that is consistent with the values the counsellor's advocates	1-8
	CTL_PIS/InTS	Behaviour on the part of the counsellor That indicates that he/she respects students and is concerned about their personal feelings and needs and	17-22

		behaviour on the part of the counsellor that challenges students to review some of their assumptions about their work and rethink how it can be performed	
SELC	SELC_SA	Self-awareness is the skill to specifically identify one's emotions and thoughts and their impact on behaviour.	1-5
	SELC_SoA	Social awareness is the ability to take the perspective of others and empathize with them, especially those from different upbringings and societies. Social awareness is also to understand social and ethical norms for behaviour and to recognise family, school and community resources	6-10
	SELC_SM	Self-management is the ability to control one's emotions, thoughts and behaviours positively in different situations	11-15
	SELC_RM	Relationship skills is the ability to initiate and withstand strong and rewarding relationships with different individuals and groups.	16-20
	SELC_RDM	Responsible decision making is the ability of making positive and reverential choices about personal behaviour and social interactions based on consideration of ethical standards and other various activities of one's self and that of others	20-25

ANNEXURE 7: CONFIDENTIALITY LETTER

CONFIDENTIALITY LETTER

Dear respondent, I am a PhD Candidate at the University of South Africa, UNISA. As part of the requirements for the award of a PhD degree in Industrial and Organisational Psychology, I am conducting research on *'Model of Counsellors Leadership and Emotional Intelligence as Predictors of Students' Social and Emotional Learning Outcomes*'. I will therefore need your help to make this possible. Your role is to complete this questionnaire as honestly as possible. For the response to be meaningful and useful, all questions must be answered. Feel free to answer all the questions as sincerely as you can. Be assured of utmost confidentiality that, your responses will be used exclusively and strictly for academic purposes only. In view of this, do not write your name anywhere or provide any identity on the questionnaire. Participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any given time and stage from the process. Your participation however will provide knowledge that may help other counselling professionals and educators. Your participation is very important and greatly appreciated. There is no anticipated risk involved. Should you have any questions about this research and its conduct, please ask me now.

Thank you.

Juliet Edwina Yayra Tengey

(Researcher)

UNISA

ANNEXURE 8: ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNISA university of south africa

UNISA CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

14 November 2018

NHREC Registration # : (if applicable)
ERC Reference # : 2018_CEMS/IOP_ 033
Name : Ms Juliet Edwina Yayra-Tengey
Student #: 60901578
Staff #: N/A

Dear Ms Juliet Edwina Yayra-Tengey,

Decision: Ethics Approval from 14 November 2018 to 14 November 2021

Researcher(s): Name: Ms Juliet Edwina Yayra-Tengey
Address: P O Box TN 194, Teshie Mungua Estates, Accra-Ghana
E-mail address, telephone: julietedwinatengey@gmail.com, 233-244383800

Supervisor (s): Prof N Martins
E-mail address, telephone: martinsn@mweb.co.za, 083 266 6372
Prof OM Ledimo
Email address, telephone: manetom@unisa.ac.za, (012) 429-8219

Model of counsellor's leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of students social and emotional learning outcomes.

Qualification: Post graduate degree

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for **Three** years.

*The **low risk application** was **reviewed** by the CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee on the 16th October 2018 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The decision was approved on 16th October 2018.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data require additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date (14th November 2021). Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:
*The reference number **2018_CEMS/IOP_033** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,

Signature
Chair of IOP ERC
E-mail: vnieka2@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429-8231

Signature
Executive Dean : CEMS
E-mail: mogalmt@unisa.ac.za
Tel: (012) 429-4805

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ANNEXURE 9: LANGUAGE EDITTED CERTIFICATE

Alexa Barnby

Language Specialist

Editing, copywriting, indexing, formatting, translation

BA Hons Translation Studies; APEd (SATI) Accredited Professional Text Editor, SATI

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To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I, Alexa Kirsten Barnby, an English editor accredited by the South African Translators' Institute, have edited the doctoral thesis titled "Model of counsellors' leadership and emotional intelligence as predictors of students' social and emotional learning outcomes" by Juliet Edwina Yayra Tengey.

The onus is on the author, however, to make the changes and address the comments made.

ANNEXURE 10: TURNITIN REPORT

complete thesis model of counselors' turnit

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