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**LOCUS OF CONTROL, SELF-CONCEPT AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS
PREDICTORS OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT AMONG SENIOR SECONDARY
SCHOOL STUDENTS IN ANAMBRA STATE, NIGERIA**

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Abstract:

The study investigated locus of control, self-concept and emotional intelligence as predictors of academic achievement among senior secondary school students in Anambra State. Participants consisted of 240 students (130 boys and 110 girls) from six senior secondary schools in six educational zones of Anambra state. The participants who were SS 2 students with age ranging between 14 and 20years with a calculated mean age of 16.7years and standard deviation of 1.3 were randomly selected. The students responded to valid and reliable instruments, namely: locus of control scale (Rotter, 1966); academic self-concept scale (Reynolds, 1998); emotional intelligence scale (Shuttle, 1998) and academic achievement test. Data analysis involved pearson moment correlation and multiple regression, to examine the predictive effect of locus of control, self concept and emotional intelligence on the students' academic achievement. Results showed that the variables when taken jointly and relatively, predicted academic achievement of students. Implications for the findings were discussed and the need for guidance services in Nigerian secondary schools was also stressed.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Nations, especially the developing ones, use education to build the capacity of their people to meet the challenges of accelerated development, therefore, one needs the power of reasoning and its right use to have knowledge, truth, happiness and be able to face life with confidence. Nothing does this more to humanity in magnitude than education (Uwadiae, 1997).

Education leads to the integral development of the whole person, thus there is emphasis on the development of cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects of a learner to make him develop fully (Emeke, 2001; Labo-Popoola, 2003). This made Obemeata (2003) to affirm that education is the only means by which the individual can acquire specialized knowledge and skills, and this is even regarded as a prerequisite for economic development.

Education is more than reading, writing, and arithmetic. It is one of the most important investments a country can make in its people and its future. It is generally argued that any country that toys with the education of its citizens is toying with the future of the country as a whole. In Nigeria, the government expends a proportion of her resources on education. In the 1950s and 1960s, the regional governments of Nigeria spent between 40% and 45% of their recurrent expenditure on education. In 1993, 1994 and 1995 consecutively, education had the lion share of government's annual budget of N7.9 billion in 1993, N7.8 billion in 1994, 12.7 billion in 1995, 369.6 billion in 2016 and 398.01 billion in 2017.

Education is also critical to reducing poverty and inequality by equipping students with critical skills and tools to help them better provide for themselves. According to the Value of Education report (2014): a new global consumer research study commissioned by HSBC, more than half (58%) of parents say that paying for a child's education is the best investment anyone can make and that a good education should help their children to become independent and build a worthwhile career. In other words, education is an important enabler in a competitive and increasingly globalized employment marketplace.

Education is the most important instrument for affecting social change and mobility. It is therefore understandable why most governments all over the world attach great importance to education.

In Nigeria, evidence shows that education is Nigeria's largest industry considering the huge amount of money, which the government invested on it annually (Obemeata, 2003). However, in putting so much money into education in Nigeria, the government expects to use education as an instrument for the achievement of the country's national objectives. An important aim of the educational policy of Nigeria is the development of the country. For this purpose, manpower is required. The development of manpower will ensure the availability of adequate personnel that will generate ideas, formulate policies and implement them for the purpose of national development.

Academic achievement or academic performance is the outcome of education, that is, the extent to which a student has achieved their educational goals. Academic achievement is commonly measured by examinations or continuous assessment. Attaining a high level of academic performance is what every parent or guardian as well as teacher wishes for their children, wards and students respectively. Schools and teachers are generally graded qualitatively based on the academic performance of their students.

Few problems in Nigerian education today rival that of bridging the gap between students who are academically successful and students who are falling behind. Many theories exist on how to effectively educate all our students and to bridge the gap between those who are flourishing and those who are failing.

At the centre of this problem is the persistent academic underachievement of students especially at the West African Senior Secondary School Examination (WASSCE) and the National Examination Council (NECO) Examinations.

Academic achievement has very often been a strong determining factor of one's success, providing access to further studies to higher education and secures a stable job later in life. Students need to pass several levels of standardized national level examinations that function as a yardstick to indicate the students' academic performance and achievement.

Academic success at school obviously requires students to meet a certain minimum standard of academic performance with the focus being on standardized measures of academic or cognitive abilities. However, there has been a recent movement to evaluate the non-cognitive factors specific to achievement (Sellers, Chavous & Cooke, 1998). The 21st century has brought a new view of the more diverse reality of human functioning and we are slowly but surely becoming aware of the need for schools and the society to address the emotional and social aspects of education. Increasingly, researchers' attention has turned towards the complex role that non-cognitive skills play in facilitating educational achievement (Cunha & Heckman, 2007; Borghans & Weel, 2008; Kalil & Leinage, 2008).

We educate students with one main objective in mind: their success. What then is the measure of success? Is it only a strong scientific mind and nothing else? A century of research on general intelligence and cognitive performance has overshadowed the role that other non-cognitive factors may play in academic achievement. There is a consensus among educators that cognitive factors, like grades or scores on intelligence tests, predict student performance. However, many students still fail to live up to their true potential despite their IQ or previous academic performance. Conversely, some students with mediocre grades have managed to complete a college or university education.

Both of these examples suggest that other factors may be at work. One of Psychology's open secrets is the relative inability of grades, IQ or examination scores, despite their popular mystique, to predict unerringly who will succeed in life (Goleman, 1996).

With the gathering interest in the non-cognitive (affective) aspects of students' learning arose the need to study the varied psychological constructs that underpin students learning. Each student presents to the classroom with a unique personality and set of capabilities otherwise known as individual differences; this is because no child has been raised in a vacuum. Students are a product of the primary environment in which they grow and live in, which is chiefly the home. Children's semi-structured home learning environment transitions into a more structured learning environment when children start school. An awareness of how these psychological constructs impact students' participation in the learning process and how these constructs help students if at all, achieve their educational

goals is pertinent if educators keen about helping students improve academic performance and ultimately attain educational objectives.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, not much attempt has been made to explore psychological constructs or factors especially within Nigerian context; hence the present study is an attempt to unearth psychological factors like Locus of Control, Self-Concept and Emotional Intelligence as correlates of Academic Achievement among Adolescents in Senior Secondary Schools in Anambra State. Locus of control is one of the personality constructs that has attracted many researchers because this construct, particularly among students, is an important element in determining future behaviour (in the case of the present study, academic achievement).

Locus of Control is meaningfully related to several variables associated with academic achievement (Bernstein, Stephan, & Davis, 1979; Dollinger, 2000). Locus of control typically refers to how students perceive the causes of their academic success or failures in school. If someone believes that his or her successes and failures are due to factors within their control, such as effort or ability, then that person is said to have an internal locus of control. On the other hand, if someone believes that his or her successes and failures are due to factors outside of their control, such as fate or luck, then that person is said to have an external locus of control. Students with an "internal locus of control" generally believe that their success or failures is a result of the effort and hard work they invest in their education. Students with an "external locus of control" generally believe that their successes or failures result from external factors beyond their control, such as luck, fate, circumstance, injustice, bias, or teachers who are unfair, prejudiced, or unskilled.

Whether a student has an internal or external locus of control is thought to have a powerful effect on academic motivation, persistence, and achievement in school. In education, "internals" are considered more likely to work hard in order to learn, progress, and succeed, while "externals" are more likely to believe that working hard is "pointless" because someone or something else is treating them unfairly or holding them back. Students with an external locus of control may also believe that their accomplishments will not be acknowledged or their effort will not result in success. Internals have been found to not only regulate themselves (Self-regulation): they can also reinforce themselves (Self-reinforcement) and motivate

themselves (Self-motivation). A student's internality or externality therefore has a profound impact on his/her academic achievement.

Another variable that is considered to predict Academic Achievement is Self Concept. The term Self Concept refers to the sum total of beliefs that people have about themselves. Encyclopedia of Psychology (1972) defines Self Concept as the totality of attitudes, judgements and values of an individual rating to his behaviour, abilities, and qualities.

International dictionary of education (1977) defines Self Concept as the term used in studies of personality to describe in simplified terms, the picture or image a person has of him/herself.

Rogers (1961) defined Self Concept as the individual's overall perceptions of their abilities, behaviours and personality. According to him, somebody is likely to be maladjusted if he has an inaccurate self-concept.

At the beginning of their lives, children, according to Rogers (1961) cannot distinguish between self and the environment. However, as they interact with their world, they learn to make the distinction. The self-concept so formed continues to develop in response to their life experiences. Nevertheless, over time, many aspects of the self-concept remain quite stable.

“Self-Concept as a construct has had a long history within psychology and education because it provides a gauge to determine the effects of academic and social functioning on the emotional well-being of the individual” (Vaughn et al., 2001). Self-concept is generally viewed as a valued educational outcome. Self-concept is typically defined as a person's general composite or collective view of themselves across multidimensional sets of domain specific- perceptions, based on self-knowledge and evaluation of value or worth of one's own capabilities formed through experiences with and interpretations of the environment (Byrnes, 2003; Eccles, 2005; Snow et al., 1996).

The construct of Self Concept is grounded primarily in self-worth theory (Covington, 1992; Covington, 1998; Covington, 2000; Covington & Dray, 2002; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Briefly, self-worth theory suggests that all individuals have a motivational “tendency to establish and maintain a positive self-image, or

sense of self-worth" (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Since children spend a significant portion of their lives being evaluated in school classrooms, self-worth theory postulates that a key to developing and maintaining self-worth is to develop and maintain a positive academic self-concept.

Historically, Self Concept research has emphasized a general omnibus Self-Concept, while contemporary research focuses on a multidimensional construct with distinct facets or domains. Although the consensus is not unanimous (Harter, 1990), in general, it is believed that domain-specific self-concept perceptions (e.g., academic, physical, social) are organized in a hierarchical structure with the general omnibus self-concept at the apex of the hierarchy (Bong & Skaalvik, 2003; Bornholt & Goodnow, 1999a; Byrne, 2002; Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2002). The Shavelson hierarchical model (Shavelson et al., 1976), a model that splits global self-concept into academic and non-academic branches, has received the greatest empirical scrutiny (Byrne, 2002). Eccles (2005) highlights seven primary features of self-concept--it is organized, multifaceted, hierarchical, stable, developmental, evaluative and differentiable.

Self Concept is being used to encompass various terms. Jegede (1983) rightly pointed out that various authors have tended to use different terminologies such as self-esteem (Coopersmith 1959, Franken 1975) Self-Image (Hausa 1971) Identity (Erikson, 1963 -1968) Self Perception (Akinboye, 1982). Accordingly, Self-Concept is the reflection of an individual's behaviour. Self-concept also comprises among others like; self-image, self-acceptance, self-perception, self-identity and self-worth. An individual's behaviour whether positive or negative is determined by self-concept.

Self-Concept needs to be maintained (Self consistency). Congruence between self and its perception by the individual (consistency between-self-perceptions and experience) is therefore needed. Threat or anxiety is evoked when experience or perception of one's behaviour is incongruent with self-concept. Individuals that are well adjusted are able to respond to threats adaptively by modifying their self-concept that their experiences may be congruent with the self. Some other people may decide to deny or distort their experiences so as to remove the incongruence. This rather leads to what Rogers (1959) called "problems in living".

Self-Concept as one of the most enduring construct in psychology and education has been shown to predict academic achievement. Fayombo (2001) viewed Self-Concept as a complex system of conscious and unconscious belief, which an individual holds about himself in terms of success and failures in academic endeavour. Adesemowo (1992) on his own considered Self-Concept as an individual's view of himself, as it subsumes self-image, which is the individual's description of himself, and self-evaluation in relation to academic achievement. It is an individual's reflection of himself as well as reflection on other people.

Emotional Intelligence as a probable predictor of Academic Achievement refers to a person's ability to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions and manage them. Emotional Intelligence (EI) as a construct is relatively new (Mayer & Salovey, 1990).

Statement of the Problem

The achievement of students has been a source of great concern for many educators, parents, guardians, curriculum planners and researchers. This general concern stems from the prevailing poor achievement recorded by students almost each succeeding year at the end of their secondary school course (Emeke, 2001; Ezeazor, 2003). Akinsola (1994, 2000) lamented that the level of performance in mathematics at the secondary school level has remained poor and that there are no signs of improvement in the near future. The same poor performance is also recorded in English language according to the data obtained in 2014 from WAEC by the researcher, hence the need for this study.

Research Questions

1. Is there any significant relationship between locus of control and academic achievement of secondary school students?
2. Is there any significant relationship between self-concept and academic achievement of students?
3. Is there any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement of senior secondary school students?

Purpose of the Study

The general purpose of the study is to investigate the predictive effects of locus of control, self-concept and emotional intelligence on the academic achievement of senior secondary school adolescents. Specifically, this study intends to find out:

- i. If Locus of Control will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State.
- ii. If Self Concept will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State.
- iii. If Emotional Intelligence will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State.

Relevance of the Study

Emotional Intelligence of children starts developing long before they ever enter a classroom even though each child's level will vary widely, depending on the home environment from which he or she comes from.

First and foremost, this study is an attempt to draw attention to the fact that the affective aspects of education are just as important as the cognitive features.

This study is of great potential value to educators, this is because it is possible for teachers to modify students' personalities through educational practices in order to affect motivational development positively. According to Stipek & Weisz (1981), students' personalities are more adaptable to change than their educational abilities through educational practice. Thus teachers must be able to recognize those children whose emotional literacy needs a boost and be ready to talk about feelings in the classroom.

Furthermore, this study seeks to help teachers and counsellors reach a better understanding of their students, and help the teachers determine how to treat students to attain educational objectives.

Operational Definition of Key Study Variables

Academic Achievement

Academic achievement is the outcome of education, that is, the extent to which a student has achieved his/her educational goals as measured by students' second term (2016/2017 Session) results in English language and Mathematics.

Locus of Control

Locus of control refers to how students perceive the causes of their academic success or failures in school as measured by Locus of Control Scale (LCS) by Olayinka (1997).

Self Concept

Self Concept refers to the sum total of beliefs that people have about themselves as measured by Academic Self Concept Scale (ASCS), Reynolds (1998)

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence refers to a person's ability to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions and manage them as measured by Emotional Intelligence Scale by Shuttle (1998).

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents theoretical and empirical examination of the study variables which are deemed necessary in understanding the correlation between the criterion variable (Academic Achievement) and predictor variables (Locus of Control, Self Concept and Emotional Intelligence).

Theory and Empirical Literature of Locus of Control

Social Learning theory

Social learning theory was primarily founded by Rotter, 1966 and emphasizes the role of reinforcement, reward or gratification as an important event in the acquisition and performance of skills and knowledge.

An event may be perceived by some individuals as reinforcement, while others may regard it differently and because of this variation in the perception of the individuals, creation of various reactions by them to an event is inevitable (Rotter, 1966). One of the determinants of the reactions of an individual is whether or not he or she perceives the reinforcement to be contingent upon his or her own behaviour.

Social learning theory tries to develop a framework for human behaviour in complex social situations and in some ways may be considered as an attempt to integrate two different kinds of learning theories: reinforcement or 'S-R' theories and cognitive or 'field' theories (Chance, Phares & Rotter, 1972; Bandura, 1977). In other words, social learning theory attempts to provide a general theoretical background for the concept of reinforcement and its effects on behaviour in social situations.

Internal Versus External

As mentioned above, in social learning theory, the role of reinforcement and reinforcement value is very important. In this regard, any event that can change the potentiality of occurrence of a specific behaviour is called reinforcement and on the basis of this definition, prediction of behaviour can be made. However, one of the determinants in predicting behaviour is whether or not the individual perceives that the reinforcement is contingent upon his own behaviour or is controlled by other forces outside of himself; in other words whether the individual perceives a causal relationship between his action and the reinforcement. (Rotter, 1966)

An individual may perceive that the reinforcement that follows his behaviour is not related completely to his behaviour or he perceives it as a result of luck, fate or chance or he perceives his behaviour is under the control of other powerful sources. If the individual interpreted his behaviour in this way, his belief is called external control by social learning theory.

On the other hand, if the individual perceives that there is a relationship between reinforcement and his behaviour or perceives that the reinforcement is contingent upon his action; the individual is considered to manifest internal control (Rotter, 1966).

It is observed that good education is the key to being a successful person in life. One of the variables determining this in an individual is Locus of Control which affects different individuals differently. The concept of locus of control stemmed from the social learning theory introduced by Rotter in 1966, which refers to the disposition to perceive one's reinforcement as contingent on one's own efforts or

on factors beyond one's control. This theory provides a useful means of measuring individual differences in the extent to which reinforcement is viewed as a consequence of one's own behaviour or otherwise. The theory has proved to be a highly useful personality dimension for understanding the role of reinforcement in a variety of behavioural situation (Abe, 1995).

Weiner (1979) presented a systematic achievement motivation theory which begins with the assumption that students attribute their success or failures to internal and external causes. Those who attribute their success to internal causes have a greater degree of achievement motivation than those who attribute their success to external causes. In fact, the locus of control in people affects their perception of rewards they receive as controlled by external factors such as chance, luck or other people.

When an individual believes that he can exert control over success in school, he performs better on cognitive tasks and when individuals succeed in school, they are more likely to view school performance as a controllable outcome (Skinner, Wellborn & Connel, 1990). This implies that an individual who perceives himself as having no control over academic successes and failures subsequently generate performance that serve to confirm their beliefs. It is also predicted that individuals who believe that academic outcomes are under their sole personal control would be more engaged in school and earn better grades and achievement scores. This is consistent with the findings of (Nichollis, 1984).

The Attribution Theory of Locus of Control

One version of attribution theory that received a lot of research attention is Rotter's *locus of control* theory. Julian Rotter (1966) agreed with Heider that the difference between internal attribution and external attribution was important to humans. He pointed out that we also make attributions about our *own* behaviors. Some people consistently explain the events of their lives as involving powers beyond their control, like God or fate. Others consistently explain the events of their lives as flowing from their own decisions.

Rotter proposed the concept of *locus of control* to capture the distinction between psychologically localizing control of one's actions within oneself or in the environment. People who consistently believe that events are caused by factors

beyond their personal control are called *externalizers*. They are said to have an *external* locus of control. People who consistently take responsibility for their own actions, or who feel they have the power to do something about a situation, are said to have an *internal* locus of control.

Rotter developed a paper-and-pencil test for determining locus of control. It involved 29 forced-choice items and was easy to administer. After the test was published, hundreds of locus-of-control experiments were performed in the 1970s and 1980s. The typical experiment correlated scores on the Rotter Scale with some other personality variable such as prejudice, intensity of religious belief, or motivation to advance in a job.

What is a case in which internal locus of control is beneficial?

An early study showed (for example) that the reactions of people to tornado warnings depended upon their locus of control. People with an internal locus of control (internalizers) would take action to minimize their chances of injury, such as taking refuge in a bathroom (which is more likely to survive intact than other areas of a house). By contrast, people with external locus of control (externalizers) were likely to adopt a fatalistic attitude. Such people might say, "If it's time for me to die, it's time for me to die; there's nothing I can do about it." They often took no protective action. In this case, being an externalizer was harmful.

What is a case in which external locus of control, encouraged by "therapy," was helpful?

On other occasions, an external locus of control may be beneficial. An internalizer may blame himself or herself for negative events and grow discouraged. An externalizer may stay hopeful that circumstances will change. For example, Wilson and Linville (1982, 1985) conducted several studies using first year college students who were at risk academically, suffering from poor academic performance and worrying a great deal about their ability to cope with college. Half the group was given "attribution therapy," informed that such problems were common during the first year, and that grades typically went up in the second year. The other group was provided with emotional support, but their attributions were left unchanged. The results were clear. The first group—encouraged to make

an external attribution instead of blaming themselves for failure—performed better on tests after the therapy, and they earned better grades the following year. Locus of Control, for many people, their only exposure to the ideas of Julian B. Rotter is his concept of generalized expectancies for control of reinforcement, more commonly known as locus of control. Locus of control refers to people's very general, cross-situational beliefs about what determines whether or not they get reinforced in life. People can be classified along a continuum from very internal to very external.

People with a strong internal locus of control believe that the responsibility for whether or not they get reinforced ultimately lies with themselves. Internals believe that success or failure is due to their own efforts. In contrast, externals believe that the reinforcers in life are controlled by luck, chance, or powerful others. Therefore, they see little impact of their own efforts on the amount of reinforcement they receive.

Rotter has written extensively on problems with people's interpretations of the locus of control concept. First, he has warned people that locus of control is not a typology. It represents a continuum, not an either/or proposition. Second, because locus of control is a generalized expectancy it will predict people's behavior across situations. However, there may be some specific situations in which people who, for example, are generally external behave like internals. That is because their learning history has shown them that they have control over the reinforcement they receive in certain situations, although overall they perceive little control over what happens to them. Again, one can see the importance of conceiving of personality as the interaction of the person and the environment.

Psychopathology and Treatment. Rotter is very opposed to the medical model conception of mental disorders as being diseases or illnesses. Rather, he conceives of psychological problems as maladaptive behavior brought about by faulty or inadequate learning experiences. Rotter (1969) wrote that pathology might develop when a "person anticipating punishment or failure may avoid situations physically, avoid by repression or may attempt to reach [his or her] goals through rationalization, fantasy or symbolic means".

For Rotter, the symptoms of pathology, like all behavior, are learned. Therefore, treatment should be considered a learning situation in which adaptive behaviors

and cognitions are taught. The therapist-client relationship is viewed as being similar to a teacher-student relationship. Having a warm relationship between client and therapist gives the therapist more reinforcement value for the client. This allows the therapist to influence the client's behavior more through praise and encouragement. Much of current cognitive-behavioral treatment has its roots in Rotter's social learning theory, although these debts often go unacknowledged. According to Rotter, pathology can develop due to difficulties at any point in his predictive formula. Behavior can be maladaptive, because the individual never learned more healthy behaviors. In this case, the therapist would make direct suggestions about new behaviors to try and would use techniques such as role-playing to develop more effective coping skills.

Expectancies can lead to pathology when they are irrationally low. If people have low expectancies, they do not believe their behaviors will be reinforced. Consequently, they put little effort into their behaviors. If they don't try to succeed, they are likely to fail. And, when they fail, it confirms their low expectancies. This process of decreasing expectancies is a common occurrence in pathology known as a *vicious cycle*. When clients have low expectancies, therapists attempt to increase clients' confidence by using their therapeutic influence to help clients (a) gain insight into the irrationality of their expectancies and (b) attempt behaviors they have been avoiding out of fear of failure. In general, social learning therapists always attempt to raise their clients' expectancies for reinforcement.

Lastly, reinforcement value problems can lead to pathology. Reinforcers are the goals we seek in life. If people set unrealistically high and unobtainable goals for themselves (i.e., have too high minimal goals), they are likely to experience frequent failure. This failure can lead to the development of the vicious cycle described above. In this situation, therapists would help clients to lower their minimal goals, developing reasonable, achievable standards for themselves. Flexibility in setting minimal goals is one sign of good mental health. It is better to strive, step by step, to achieve a series of goals than it is to set one distant, lofty goal for oneself. A Rotter therapist also wants clients to consider the long-term consequences of behavior, rather than just short-term consequences.

Locus of Control and Academic Achievement

The literature available on Locus of Control and academic achievement was reviewed by Findley and Cooper. They compiled 98 studies (consisting of 275 testable hypotheses) where a Locus of Control and academic achievement measure was compared. A statistically significant positive correlation was found for 193 of the 275 hypotheses. In other words, 70% of these hypotheses found internals to have significantly higher academic achievement than externals. Bar-Tal and Bar-Zohar reviewed 36 studies that examined the relationship between Locus of Control and academic achievement among children, adolescents and adults. They also found a positive correlation relationship between the two variables, regardless of population being examined.

Wang et al., (1999) conclude that an internal locus of control is associated with superior academic performance. A sense of personal control is thought to increase effort, motivation, and persistence in problem solving all of which are expected to improve educational outcomes (Ross and Broh, 2000).

A study on locus of control among Iranian students by Barzegar (2001) using the Internal-External locus of control Scale by Rotter indicates that locus of control was a factor predicting students' academic performance. Anakwe (2003) examined the relationship between locus of control and secondary school students' academic performance. The findings showed a significant positive relationship between academic performance and locus of control. Shepherd, Owen, Fitch and Marshall (2006) found that students with higher GPA reported higher score in internal locus of control.

Knowles and Kerman (2007) found that students with internal locus of control tend to perform better in academic courses compared to those with external locus of control. Nejati, Abedi, Agbaci & Mohammadi (2012) investigated the relationship between locus of control and the academic performance of students by considering the role of life quality and satisfaction with life. The outcome of the study revealed that locus of control significantly correlated with the academic performance of the students.

The relationship between LOC and academic achievement is convoluted. Intuitively, students who attribute success to internal factors are likely to expect future successes; students who attribute failure to internal factors may expect future failure unless they consider themselves capable of and actively address those factors. Conversely, attributing success to external factors would make future successes unpredictable and deem the student powerless to address what

they perceive to be uncontrollable factors. Within the domain of education, internal LOC has been found to be a positive predictor of academic achievement and external LOC to be a negative predictor of academic achievement.

Major literature reviews showed that internals and externals differed in numerous ways, particularly in terms of their cognitive activity and environmental mastery. Because they are more perceptive of their situations, internals seem to exert more control over their lives in part by their knowledge of their environments. That is, internals more readily acquire and utilize information that is relevant to their goal situation even when it seemingly is not relevant.

Rotter had two explanations for this phenomenon. Firstly, as stated before, Locus of Control measures have greatest predictability with novel achievement situations. Secondly, there is the "defensive external" or individuals that adopt an external locus of control.

Theory and Empirical Literature of Self Concept

Self-concept can be defined as the totality of our beliefs, preferences, opinions and attitudes organized in a systematic manner, towards our personal existence. Simply put, it is how we think of ourselves and how we should think, behave and act out our various life roles.

Baumeister (1999) provides the following *self concept* definition:

"The individual's belief about himself or herself, including the person's attributes and who and what the self is".

Self Concept is an important term for both Social Psychology and Humanism. The self is perhaps the most complex unit to study in psychology. Each of us have different personality, traits, abilities and preferences that sometimes we cannot understand what is really going on inside of us. While we may not be able to exactly explain why we think this way, or why do we behave in that manner, the self-concept theory is a good foundational knowledge on the importance of our perceptions towards our personal existence.

In order for us to study this theory, we need to know first the history of the development of self-concept theory. The earliest milestone in the self-concept theory is that of Rene Descartes, who proposed that a person's existence depended

on how he perceives so. Sigmund Freud, one of the most prominent psychologists, proposed many theories that talk about our internal mental processes. His theory holds that we have 3 main aspects within us, the id (pleasure-oriented), ego (balance between id and superego) and the superego (conscience-driven) which may influence the way we think of ourselves.

Self Concept Theory by Carl Rogers

By far the most influential and eloquent voice in self-concept theory was that of Carl Rogers (1947) who introduced an entire system of helping built around the importance of the self. In Rogers' view, the self is the central ingredient in human personality and personal adjustment. Rogers described the self as a social product, developing out of interpersonal relationships and striving for consistency. He maintained that there is a basic human need for positive regard both from others and from oneself. He also believed that in every person there is a tendency towards self-actualization and development so long as this is permitted and encouraged by an inviting environment (Purkey & Schmidt, 1987).

Carl Rogers believes that the self concept has three different components:

- The view you have of yourself (**self image**)
- How much value you place on yourself (**self esteem** or self-worth)
- What you wish you were really like (**ideal self**)

Self Image (What you see in yourself)

This does not necessarily have to reflect reality. Indeed a person with anorexia who is thin may have a self image in which the person believes they are fat. A person's self image is affected by many factors, such as parental influences, friends, the media etc.

Kuhn (1960) investigated the self-image by using *The Twenty Statements Test*.

He asked people to answer the question 'Who am I?' in 20 different ways. He found that the responses could be divided into two major groups. These were *social roles* (external or objective aspects of oneself such as son, teacher, friend) and *personality traits* (internal or affective aspects of oneself such as gregarious, impatient, humorous).

The list of answers to the question "Who Am I?" probably include examples of each of the following four types of responses:

- 1) Physical Description:** I'm tall, have blue eyes...etc.
- 2) Social Roles:** We are all social beings whose behavior is shaped to some extent by the roles we play. Such roles as student, housewife, or member of the football team not only help others to recognize us but also help us to know what is expected of us in various situations.
- 3) Personal Traits:** These are a third dimension of our self-descriptions. "I'm impulsive...I'm generous...I tend to worry a lot"...etc.
- 4) Existential Statements** (abstract ones): These can range from "I'm a child of the universe" to "I'm a human being" to "I'm a spiritual being"...etc.
Typically young people describe themselves more in terms of personal traits, whereas older people feel defined to a greater extent by their social roles.

Self Esteem and Self Worth (The extent to which you value yourself)

Self esteem refers to the extent to which we like accept or approve of ourselves or how much we value ourselves. Self esteem always involves a degree of evaluation and we may have either a positive or a negative view of ourselves.

High Self Esteem i.e. we have a positive view of ourselves. This tends to lead to

- Confidence in our own abilities
- Self acceptance
- Not worrying about what others think
- Optimism

Low Self Esteem i.e. we have a negative view of ourselves. This tends to lead to

- Lack of confidence
- Want to be/look like someone else
- Always worrying what others might think
- Pessimism

There are several ways of measuring self-esteem. For example, Harrill Self Esteem Inventory is a questionnaire comprising 15 statements about a range of interest. Another example is the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), which is a neutral cartoon given to the participant who then has to devise a story about what's going on.

Morse and Gergen (1970) showed that in uncertain or anxiety arousing situations our self-esteem may change rapidly. Participants were waiting for a job interview

in a waiting room. They were sat with another candidate (a confederate of the experimenter) in one of two conditions:

A) Mr. Clean - dressed in smart suit, carrying a briefcase opened to reveal a slide rule and books.

B) Mr. Dirty - dressed in an old T-shirt and jeans, slouched over a cheap sex novel.

Self-esteem of participants with Mr. Dirty increased whilst those with Mr. Clean decreased! No mention made of how this affected subjects' performance in interview. Level of self-esteem affects performance at numerous tasks though (Coopersmith, 1967) so could expect Mr. Dirty subjects to perform better than Mr. Clean.

Even though self-esteem might fluctuate, there are times when we continue to believe good things about ourselves even when evidence to the contrary exists. This is known as the perseverance effect.

Miller and Ross (1975) showed that people who believed they had socially desirable characteristics continued in this belief even when the experimenters tried to get them to believe the opposite. Does the same thing happen with bad things if we have low self-esteem? Maybe not, perhaps with very low self-esteem all we believe about ourselves might be bad.

Argyle (2008) believes there are 4 major factors that influence self esteem.

1) The reaction of others: If people admire us, flatter us, seek out our company, listen attentively and agree with us we tend to develop a positive self-image. If they avoid us, neglect us, tell us things about ourselves that we don't want to hear we develop a negative self-image.

2) Comparison with others: If the people we compare ourselves with (our reference group) appear to be more successful, happier, richer, better looking than ourselves we tend to develop a negative self image BUT if they are less successful than us our image will be positive.

3) Social Roles: Some social roles carry prestige e.g. doctor, airline pilot, TV presenter, premiership footballer and this promotes self-esteem. Other roles carry stigma. E.g. prisoner, mental hospital patient, refuse collector or unemployed person.

4) Identification: Roles aren't just "out there." They also become part of our personality i.e. we identify with the positions we occupy, the roles we play and the groups we belong to.

The Need for Self-Esteem

Everyone on the planet seems to have a need for self-esteem, as we all want to see ourselves in a positive light. This observation about human motivation is beyond dispute. But let's step back for a moment and ask, why? Why do we have this need for self-esteem?

At present, there are two social psychological answers to this question. One theory, proposed by **Leary and Baumeister (2000)**, is that people are inherently social animals and that the desire for self-esteem is driven by this more primitive need to connect with others and gain their approval. In this way, our sense of self-esteem serves as a “sociometer,” a rough indicator of how we’re doing in the eyes of others. The threat of social rejection thus lowers self-esteem, which activates the need to regain approval and acceptance.

Alternatively, Greenberg, Sheldon, and Pyszczynski (1997) have proposed Terror Management Theory to help explain our need for self-esteem. According to this theory, we humans are biologically programmed for self-preservation. Yet we are conscious of-and terrified by- the inevitability of our own death. We cope with this deeply rooted fear by constructing and accepting cultural worldviews about how, why, and by whom the earth was created; explanations of the purpose of our existence; and a sense of history filled with heroes, villains, and momentous events. These worldviews provide meaning and purpose and a buffer against anxiety. In a series of experiments, these investigators found that people react to graphic scenes of death, or to the thought of their own death, with intense defensiveness and anxiety. When given positive feedback on a test, however, which boosts their self-esteem, that reaction is muted.

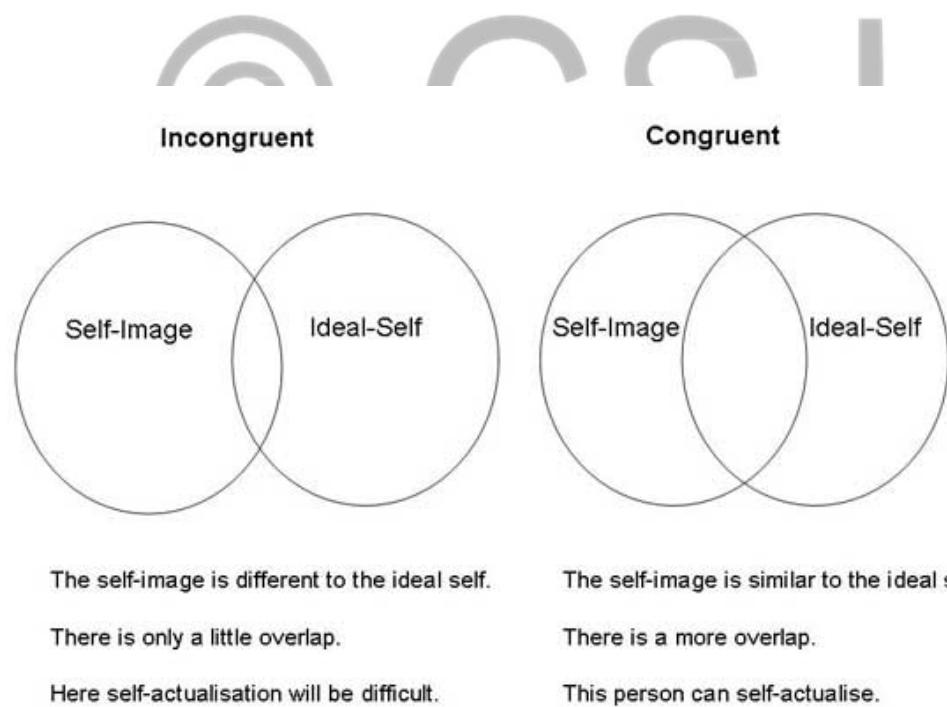
In many ways satisfying the need for self-esteem is critical to our entire outlook on life. People with positive self-images tend to be happy, healthy, productive, and successful. They are confident, bringing to new challenges a winning and motivating attitude which leads them to persist longer at difficult tasks, sleep better at night, maintain their independence in the face of peer pressure, and suffer fewer ulcers. In contrast, people with negative self-images tend to be more depressed, pessimistic about the future, and prone to failure. Lacking confidence, they bring to new tasks a losing attitude that traps them in a vicious, self-defeating

cycle. Expecting to fail, and fearing the worst, they become anxious, exert less effort, and “tune out” on important challenges. People with low self-esteem don’t trust their own positive self-appraisals (Josephs et al., 2003). And when they fail, they tend to blame themselves, which makes them feel less competent (Brown & Dutton, 1995). Low self-esteem may even be hazardous to your health. Some research suggests that becoming aware of one’s own negative attributes adversely affects the activity of certain white blood cells in the immune system, thus compromising the body’s capacity to ward off diseases (Stauman et al., 1993).

Ideal Self (What you'd like to be)

If there is a mismatch between how you see yourself (e.g. your self image) and what you’d like to be (e.g. your ideal self) then this is likely to affect how much you value yourself.

Therefore, there is an intimate relationship between self-image, ego-ideal and self-esteem. Humanistic psychologists study this using the Q-Sort Method.



A person’s ideal self may not be consistent with what actually happens in life and experiences of the person. Hence, a difference may exist between a person’s ideal self and actual experience. This is called incongruence.

Where a person's ideal self and actual experience are consistent or very similar, a state of congruence exists. Rarely, if ever does a total state of congruence exist; all people experience a certain amount of incongruence. The development of congruence is dependent on unconditional positive regard. Roger's believed that for a person to achieve self-actualization they must be in a state of congruence.

Lewis (1990) suggests that development of a concept of self has two aspects:

(1) The Existential Self

This is 'the most basic part of the self-scheme or self-concept; the sense of being separate and distinct from others and the awareness of the constancy of the self' (Bee, 1992).

The child realizes that they exist as a separate entity from others and that they continue to exist over time and space.

According to Lewis awareness of the existential self begins as young as two to three months old and arises in part due to the relation the child has with the world. For example, the child smiles and someone smiles back, or the child touches a mobile and sees it move.

(2) The Categorical Self

Having realized that he or she exists as a separate experiencing being, the child next becomes aware that he or she is also an object in the world.

Just as other objects including people have properties that can be experienced (big, small, red, smooth and so on) so the child is becoming aware of him or her self as an object which can be experienced and which has properties.

The self too can be put into categories such as age, gender, size or skill. Two of the first categories to be applied are age ("I am 3") and gender ("I am a girl").

In early childhood, the categories children apply to themselves are very concrete (e.g. hair color, height and favorite things). Later, self-description also begins to include reference to internal psychological traits, comparative evaluations and to how others see them.

Aspects of Self-Concept Theory

The self-concept theory holds many assumptions about our personal judgment towards our selves. Here are some of them:

1. Self-concept is learned.

One of the very basic assumptions of this theory is that no person is born with a self-concept. Self-concept is believed to develop as a person grows old. This means that our perceptions towards ourselves can be shaped and can be altered, and can also be affected by environmental factors. In this sense, self-concept is actually a product of socialization and development. A person may have a perception of himself different from what other people think of him. For example, an individual feels that he is generous while others see him as a selfish person.

2. Self-Concept is organized.

A person may have numerous views of himself. He may think that he is kind, patient, loving and caring, or selfish, cruel, rude and stubborn. No matter how many different perceptions you have on yourself, still, there is one perception that facilitates all of these insights, causing one organized self-concept. When a person believes something that is congruent to his self-concept, it is more likely that he would resist changing that belief. He tends to stick to his present view of himself for quite a long time, and changing this perception of his self may take too long, but change is feasible.

3. Lastly, self-concept is dynamic.

As a person faces different situations and new challenges in his life, his insight towards himself may constantly change depending on the way he responds to such life changes. We see things depending on our self-concept. We behave according to how we see ourselves in a situation. Therefore, self-concept is a continuous development wherein we tend to let go of the things and ideas that are not congruent to our self-concept, and we hold on to those that we think are helpful in building a more favorable perception of our personal existence.

Self Concept and Academic Achievement

Self-concept as one of the most enduring construct in psychology and education has been shown to predict academic achievement. Fayombo (2001) viewed self-concept as a complex system of conscious and unconscious belief, which an individual holds about himself in terms of success and failures in academic endeavour. Adesemowo (1992) on his own considered self-concept as an individual's view of himself, as it subsumes self-image, which is the individual's description of himself, and self-evaluation in relation to academic achievement. It is an individual's reflection of himself as well as reflection on other people.

Animashaun (2000) opines that positive self-concept is valued as a goal of education and socialization and a potential facilitator of motivation and the need for achievement. Bakare (1983) in a study found out that self-concept and the need for achievement are related. An adolescent failed in academic achievement because of damaged self-concept and that damaged self-concept lead to successive failure in the school. To corroborate the above, Okoye (1988) postulates that self-concept affects learning as a result of attitude or frame of mind. In the classroom situation for instance Okoye (1988) argues that candidate pass or fail examination even before entering the examination hall. The way an individual perceives or conceives his abilities, capabilities and potentialities often affect him in class. To some youth, success is an illusion; they think that it is impossible for them to succeed academically because they have damaged self-concept (Akinboye, 1982, Fayombo, 1998).

Bryne (1984), Helmke (1992), Marsh (1990) maintained that there can be no doubt that academic self-concept is formed at least in part prior to achievement. Achievement related successes and failures influence self-concept through various means in particular, through the evaluation of significant others (Teachers and Parents). A high self-concept of ability may be a favourable precondition for the initiation and persistence of efforts in learning and achievement situation (Helmke, 1991, 1992). Also students with low self-concept might avoid critical learning situations that could threaten their self-concept and thus might show less effort in school. Schewer and Kraut (1979) assumed that an improvement in self-concept would lead to gain in academic achievement.

House (1997) in a study of academic achievement of adolescents in America found out that academic achievement and self-concept are related. The result indicated that self-achievement expectancies significantly correlated with higher academic performance. Vispoel (1995) maintained that positive self-concept is a mediatory variable that facilitates the attainment of desired learning outcomes. The existence of a direct influence of self-concept on academic achievement also agreed with Bryne's (1984) self-achievement model which shows that a learner's self-concept in a school subject primarily determined academic achievement in the subject and that academic self-concept has motivated properties which could improve other variables responsible for academic achievement. In a meta-analysis carried out by Hansford and Hattie (1982), it was found out that the average

correlation between general self-concept and achievement was 0.21 and that academic self-concept is closely related to academic achievement. Self-enhancement theory also suggests that self-concept determines achievement. A favourable self-concept may be an important precondition for coping with difficult learning situation, which in turn facilitates academic (Chapman, Cullen, Boersma & Raguirre, 1981; marsh, 1987).

Theory and Empirical Literature of Emotional Intelligence

In the 1900s, even though traditional definitions of intelligence emphasized cognitive aspects such as memory and problem-solving, several influential researchers in the intelligence field of study had begun to recognize the importance of going beyond traditional types of intelligence (IQ). As early as 1920, for instance, E.L. Thorndike described “social intelligence” as the skill of understanding and managing others. Howard Gardner in 1983 described the idea of multiple intelligences, in which interpersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand the intentions, motivations and desires of other people) and intrapersonal intelligence (the capacity to understand oneself, to appreciate one’s feelings, fears and motivations) helped explain performance outcomes.

The first use of the term “emotional intelligence” is often attributed to *A Study of Emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence* from 1985, by Wayne Payne. However, prior to this, the term “emotional intelligence” had appeared in Leuner (1966). Stanley Greenspan (1989) also put forward an EI model, followed by Salovey and Mayer (1990), and Daniel Goleman (1995). A distinction between emotional intelligence as a trait and emotional intelligence as an ability was introduced in 2000.

Models of Emotional Intelligence

Since the time of Thorndike, a number of different conceptualizations of emotional intelligence have appeared, creating an interesting mixture of confusion, controversy and opportunity regarding the best approach to defining and measuring this construct. The Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology (Spielberger, 2004) recently suggested that there are currently three major conceptual models:

- The Salovey-Mayer model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) which defines this construct as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions

to facilitate thinking, measured by an ability-based measure (Mayer et al., 2002)

- The Goleman model (1998) which views this construct as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive managerial performance, measured by multi-rater assessment (Boyatzis et al., 2001)
- The Bar-On model (1997b, 2000) which describes a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behavior, measured by self-report (1997a, 1997b) within a potentially expandable multi-modal approach including interview and multi-rater assessment (Bar-On & Handley, 2003a, 2003b).

The Salovey and Mayer model

The Salovey and Mayer model views emotions as useful sources of information that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment. The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviors. Salovey and Mayer originally outlined three mental processes involving emotional information:

1. The appraisal and expression of emotions in self and others
2. The regulation of emotions in self and others
3. The use of emotions adaptively to achieve one's goals.

Mayer et al (2000) proposed a four-branch model of emotional capacities which are hierarchically arranged from lower, more molecular skills to higher, more molar skills. In each of these branches, skills range from those more basic to the more complex depending on the stage of development.

Emotional Perception: Emotion perception involves the ability to recognize emotion in body language and facial expressions. It involves the ability to perceive emotions verbally and nonverbally through facial expression, voice intonation and postural expression.

Integration of Emotion in thought: This branch involves the ability to use emotional information in guiding cognitive activities, for example, by using emotions to direct attention, reason, plan, and problem-solve.

Understanding Emotion: The ability to understand emotions involves the capacity to reason about emotions and where they stem from. It includes the capacity to understand how emotions evolve. For instance, some people realize that fear often turns into relief, sadness segregates us from others, and anger arises from perceived injustice. Branch three also involves a developmental aspect as it corresponds to language development and propositional thought. Thus, an adolescent would be able to label and discriminate feelings better than a 5-year-old, and a 30-year-old would perform even better.

Managing emotions: The fourth ability and highest level of emotional skills requires the regulation and management of emotions in both self and others. This ability would include knowing how to relax after feeling angry or being able to alleviate the anxiety of another person (Mayer et al., 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004).

The Daniel Goleman Model

Daniel Goleman's model (1998) focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance, and consists of five areas:

Self-awareness

This entails having a deep understanding of one's own emotions, as well as its strengths, weaknesses, drives, values and goals and recognizes their impact on others while using gut feelings to guide decisions.

Self-management

This represents how well we control or redirect our internal states, impulses, and resources. It includes keeping disruptive impulses in check. Relating this to the management of sexual harassment and bullying, individuals high in emotional intelligence could substitute or replace unapproved or unacceptable impulses or feelings with those that are approved and accepted. Thus, a desire to give vent to aggressive feelings or impulses through overt aggressive acts (sexual harassment and for bullying) could be channeled into displayed honest and friendly relationship devoid of any ulterior motive.

Social-awareness

The third is social awareness which is mainly about empathy; i.e. having understanding and being sensitive to the feelings, thoughts and situations of

others. Empathizing reinforces the perceptual process because it improves our sensitivity to external causes of another person's feelings and behavior. For example, a manager or supervisor who imagines what it is like to be a single mother would become more sensitive to the external cause of lateness and other events among the employees. Lacking such sensitivity, people are emotionally deaf which leads to social awkwardness whether from misconstruing feelings or through a mechanical out-of-tune bluntness or individual that destroys rapport (Carneil, 2003). A salient dimension this lack of empathy can take is responding and perceiving individuals stereotypically; in this case, regarding and treating women only as "sex object" which should be harassed, rather than unique individuals and co-workers; that should be valued and accorded respect.

Relationship management

Relationship management includes among others resolving conflicts, cultivating healthy relationship, and supporting teamwork and collaboration.

Motivation

Motivate oneself to achieve for the sake of achievement.

To Golman, emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman believes that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

The Bar-On model

After 17 years of research, BarOn developed the Bar-On EQi that is a scientifically developed and validated measure of emotional intelligence. This inventory consists of five major components and 15 subscales of these components. The five composite scales include: Intrapersonal Component, Interpersonal Component, Stress Management, Adaptability and General Mood. A brief description of these scales is given below:

1. **Intrapersonal Component:** The intrapersonal component of emotional intelligence emphasizes self-awareness and self-expression. It includes the following five subscales:
 - Emotional Self Awareness involves the awareness and understanding of one's own emotions.

- Self-Regard involves the understanding, acceptance and respect of the self.
 - Self-Actualization refers to the ability to strive for personal goals and actualize one's potentials.
 - Assertiveness is the ability to effectively express and defend one's beliefs and thoughts.
 - Independence is the ability of being self-directed and self-controlled.
2. **Interpersonal Component:** The interpersonal component of emotional intelligence model is concerned with social awareness and interpersonal interactions. It includes following subscales:
- Empathy is the ability to be aware of and understand how others feel.
 - Social Responsibility is the ability of being a cooperative, constructive and responsible member of the society.
 - Interpersonal Relationships refer to the ability to establish pleasant relationships and healthy interaction with others.
3. **Stress Management:** This component of EI involves managing and regulating emotions and includes two sub-scales:
- Stress Tolerance is the ability to withstand the difficult conditions and unpleasant events by constructively managing emotions.
 - Impulse Control is the ability to resist or delay a desire, a drive or a temptation by controlling one's emotions.
4. **Adaptability:** This component of EI model is concerned with the ability to adjust with change and cope with the problems that come with the change. It includes following sub-scales:
- Reality testing which basically means the ability to objectively judge the external reality and the internal feelings.
 - Flexibility is the ability to adapt one's thoughts and emotions according to the changing situations and adjust in new situations.
 - Problem Solving refers to the ability to identify the problem and to put forward an effective solution.
5. **General Mood:** This component of emotional intelligence includes the competencies related to self-motivation. It includes two sub-scales:

- Happiness refers to the satisfaction with one's life, and the ability to express positive feelings and enjoy life.
- Optimism is the ability to think positively, to keep in view the bright side of the life and remain hopeful in the face of difficulties and negative feelings.

Theory of Multiple Intelligences

Howard Gardner, an American developmental psychologist questioned the idea that intelligence is a single entity, that it results from a single factor and that it can be measured simply via IQ tests. According to him, traditional types of intelligence, such as IQ, fail to fully explain cognitive ability. Bringing forward evidence to show that at any one time a child may be at very different stages for example, in number development and spatial/visual maturation respectively, Howard Gardner has successfully undermined the idea that knowledge at any one particular developmental stage hangs together in a structured whole.

The theory of multiple intelligences states that we are able to know the world through language, logical-mathematical analysis, spatial representation, musical thinking, the use of the body to solve problems or to make things, an understanding of other individuals, and an understanding of ourselves. Where individuals differ is in the strength of these intelligences; the so-called profile of intelligences and in the ways in which such intelligences are invoked and combined to carry out different tasks, solve diverse problems and progress in various domains. (Gardner, 1983)

To provide a sound theoretical foundation for his claims, Gardner set up certain basic "tests" that each intelligence had to meet to be considered a full-fledged intelligence and not simply a talent, skill, or aptitude. The criteria he used include the following eight factors:

- Potential isolation by brain damage
- The existence of savants, prodigies, and other exceptional individuals
- A distinctive developmental history and a definable set of expert "end-state" performances
- An evolutionary history and evolutionary plausibility
- Support from psychometric findings
- Support from experimental psychological tasks

- An identifiable core operation or set of operations
- Susceptibility to encoding in a symbol system

Based on the above criteria, Gardner came up with the following seven intelligence modalities which he later revised to nine with the inclusion of naturalistic and existential intelligence.

- Verbal-linguistic intelligence (well-developed verbal skills and sensitivity to the sounds, meanings and rhythms of words)
- Logical-mathematical intelligence (ability to think conceptually and abstractly, and capacity to discern logical and numerical patterns)
- Spatial-visual intelligence (capacity to think in images and pictures, to visualize accurately and abstractly)
- Bodily-kinesthetic intelligence (ability to control one's body movements and to handle objects skillfully)
- Musical intelligences (ability to produce and appreciate rhythm, pitch and timber)
- Interpersonal intelligence (capacity to detect and respond appropriately to the moods, motivations and desires of others)
- Intrapersonal (capacity to be self-aware and in tune with inner feelings, values, beliefs and thinking processes)
- Naturalist intelligence (ability to recognize and categorize plants, animals and other objects in nature)
- Existential intelligence (sensitivity and capacity to tackle deep questions about human existence such as, what is the meaning of life? Why do we die? How did we get here?)

Although the distinction between intelligences has been set out in great detail, Gardner opposes the idea of labeling learners to a specific intelligence. Each individual possesses a unique blend of all the intelligences.

Key Points in Multiple Intelligences Theory

Beyond the descriptions of the eight intelligences and their theoretical underpinnings, certain points of the Multiple Intelligences model are important to remember:

- **Each person possesses all eight intelligences:** Multiple Intelligences theory is not a "type theory" for determining the one intelligence that fits. It is a theory of cognitive functioning, and it proposes that each person has capacities in all eight intelligences with the eight intelligences functioning together in ways unique to each person. Some people appear to possess extremely high levels of functioning in all or most of the eight intelligences. For example, German poet-statesman-scientist-naturalist-philosopher Johann Wolfgang von Goethe. Other people, such as certain severely impaired individuals in institutions for the developmentally disabled, appear to lack all but the most rudimentary aspects of the intelligences. Most of us fall somewhere in between these two extremes—being highly developed in some intelligences, modestly developed in others, and relatively underdeveloped in the rest.
- **Most people can develop each intelligence to an adequate level of competency:** Although individuals may bewail their deficiencies in a given area and consider their problems innate and intractable, Howard Gardner suggests that virtually everyone has the capacity to develop all eight intelligences to a reasonably high level of performance if given the appropriate encouragement, enrichment, and instruction.
- **Intelligences usually work together in complex ways:** Gardner points out that each intelligence as described above is actually a "fiction"; that is, no intelligence exists by itself in life (except perhaps in very rare instances in savants and brain-injured individuals). Intelligences are always interacting with each other. For example, when a child plays a game of football, he needs bodily-kinesthetic intelligence (to run, kick, and catch), spatial intelligence (to orient himself to the playing field and to anticipate the trajectories of flying balls), and linguistic and interpersonal intelligences (to successfully argue a point during a dispute in the game)
- **There are many ways to be intelligent within each category:** There is no standard set of attributes that one must have to be considered intelligent in a specific area. Consequently, a person may not be able to read, yet be highly linguistic because he can tell a terrific story or has a large oral vocabulary. Similarly, a child may be quite awkward on the playing field, yet possess superior bodily-kinesthetic intelligence when she weaves a carpet. Multiple Intelligences theory emphasizes the rich diversity of ways

in which people show their gifts within intelligences as well as between intelligences.

Multiple Intelligences: Precursor of Emotional Intelligence

The fundamental propositions of multiple intelligences theory are shared by many researchers who have long concluded that academic intelligence (IQ), more fluid intelligences (emotional intelligence) and non-intelligence factors (e.g. interests, personality) are all relevant to both academic and work performance. Very often, an IQ score tells us very little about an individual's personality hence the need to assess other areas of intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence as a concept builds on Howard Gardner's theory of Multiple Intelligences. Emotional intelligence develops and advances what Gardner calls the intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences. Under emotional intelligence, self-awareness and self-regulation are related to intrapersonal intelligence while empathy and social skill are related to interpersonal intelligence.

It is well known that effective learning depends on the interaction between cognitive and emotional process. This is why schools are considered as organic wholes that grow and develop and within which all actors, their actions and knowledge are interrelated as well as interact with the surrounding environment (Allan McCluskey, 1997). In fact, emotional intelligence has been found to create higher educational achievement and behaviour as well as reduce discipline problems. Emotions are more important and powerful to the brain than higher order thinking skills. It has been observed that people who have poor abilities at reading body languages are less academically successful.

Moreover, emotional intelligence matter most in times of change. It is an ability to recognise one's own feelings and those of others, for motivating self as well as in relationship that make the difference. This assertion lay credence to Aristotle's saying in the Nicomachean Ethics that anyone can become angry, that is easy; but to become angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose and in the right way, that is not easy. This made Salovey and Mayer (1990) describe emotional intelligence as a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's feeling and emotions and

handle stress as well as knowing when and how to express emotion as it does with controlling it.

Emotional intelligence has implications for the way problems are tackled for prevention activities in physical and mental health care, for effective intervention in schools and communities, business and organizations (Seligman & Csikzentmihaly, 2000). Our increasing understanding of emotion suggests academic achievement. This is corroborated in Lees and Barnard (1999) study of the climate of individual teacher's classroom and conclude that teachers who are more aware of how students feel in the classroom are better able to guide them towards success. Teachers who have a leader, who has created a positive school climate, will be better equipped to do the same in their own classroom. Further, Salovey and Mayer (1993) believed that an emotionally intelligent person is skilled in four areas:

- (i) Identifying
- (ii) Understanding
- (iii) Using and
- (iv) Regulating emotions. This was later confirmed by Goleman (1995) when he emphasized that emotional intelligence consists of five components:
 - (i) Self-awareness
 - (ii) Self-management
 - (iii) Motivation
 - (iv) Recognizing emotions in others (empathy)
 - (v) Handling relationships.

How skilled an individual is in any of these five components determines an individual's competence. All emotional intelligence abilities are involved in some degree of skill in the affective domain along with skills in whatever cognitive elements are at play with each ability.

From the foregoing, emotions and values are vital for a person's well-being and achievement in life. Quality emotions and feelings help students give their best potential in the classroom. The students who are aversive and think negatively cannot concentrate for a long time and have more difficulty in reaching their potential than others (Ediger, 1997). Pools (1997) also stated that emotional well-being is a predictor of success, academic achievement, job success among others.

More recently, a small body of empirical research has emerged to suggest that there is merit in the idea that emotional intelligence is associated with academic achievement as long as careful attention is directed at the methodology for assessing emotional intelligence and achievement variables (Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan & Majeski, 2004). Pools (1997) emphasized that emotional well-being is a predictor of success in academic achievement. Finnegan (1998) argues that schools should help students learn abilities underlying emotional intelligence; as this has a long term effect on academic achievement.

Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement

Effective learning takes place when students have an understanding of how to learn and this understanding requires such emotional skills as confidence, self-control, the ability to communicate and the ability to cooperate with others. Many studies have found positive correlation between emotional intelligence and academic achievement.

Goleman (1995) cites a longitudinal study in which the level of impulse control or self-regulatory behavior among 4 year old children correlated to their later academic performance based on standard measures such as grade point average (GPA). There is also evidence that a higher level of emotional intelligence correlates with goal orientation and life satisfaction among adults (Martinez-Pons, 1997). The findings of the study, conducted by Fannin (2000), showed positive correlation between emotional intelligence and achievement scores. There is also some evidence that emotional intelligence affects the way cognitive intelligence is used (Reiff, et al, 2001). Rozell, Pettijohn, and Parker, (2002) found relationship between emotional intelligence and CGPA of undergraduate students of Mid-Western University.

Farooq (2003) examined the effect of emotional intelligence on academic performance of 246 adolescent students and found that students with high emotional intelligence show better academic performance than the students with low emotional intelligence. A study to determine the correlation between the MSCEIT and standard cognitive ability markers has determined that “EQ” is a standard form of intelligence and can be measured if reliable test instruments are developed and validated (Reid, 2003).

The study conducted by Nelson and Low (2004) revealed the importance of emotional intelligence during transition period of high school graduates in the first year of college. They emphasized the importance of emotional intelligence skills as influencing variables in students' achievement and retention. Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan and Majeski (2004) found emotional intelligence a predictor in identifying academically successful and academically unsuccessful students during transition period. Marquez, Martin and Brackett (2006) found relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. Abdullah (2006) also found that some dimensions of emotional intelligence significantly predict academic performance of college students. After reviewing research studies about emotional intelligence in relation to university students, Abraham (2006) concluded that training in appropriate emotional skills is necessary for career success and fulfillment.

A study conducted by Jaeger and Eagan (2007) revealed Interpersonal, Stress Management and adaptability scales of BarOnEQi as significant predictors of academic performance of students in the first year of university.

Emotional Intelligence and the Curriculum

If emotional intelligence is considered nowadays vital for success, then why haven't we started teaching its components to our students at school? If it affects student achievement, then it is imperative for schools to integrate it in their curricula, hence raising the level of student success.

Richardson and Evans (1997) explored some methods for teaching social and emotional competence within a culturally diverse society. Their purpose was to help students connect with each other, in order to assist them in developing interpersonal, intrapersonal, and emotional intelligences, arguing that these intelligences are essential for personal accomplishment. The emotions, feelings, and values are vital for a person's well-being and achievement in life, according to Ediger (1997). He also states that science teachers should stress on the affective domain that cannot be separated from the cognitive domain. Quality emotions and feelings help students give their best potential in the classroom. The students who are aversive and think negatively cannot concentrate for a long time and have more difficulty in reaching their potential than others.

At La Salle Academy, a private school in Providence, Rhode Island, students are given lessons in emotional intelligence across the curriculum. This is part of an exhaustive program in social and emotional education called "Success for Life." The school's academic council voted to approve this program by 20-0 vote. (Pasi, 1997). Carolyn Pool, the senior editor of Educational Leadership magazine, stated in an article she wrote in 1997 that emotional well-being is a predictor of success in academic achievement and job success among others. Finnegan (1998) argues that schools should help students learn the abilities underlying emotional intelligence. According to him, possessing those abilities, or even some of them, can lead to achievement from the formal education years of the child and adolescent to the adult's competency in being effective in the workplace and in society (p. 23). Students often experience failure in school, at home, with friends, and on the job because they have poor communication skills, suggests Cangelosi and Petersen (1998).

In the U.K., the dreadful UNICEF results regarding well-being of their minors generated a great debate about the inability of a wealthy, ultramodern society to make its youth happy. One of the first reactions to this report was the creation of a State Secretariat for "Children, Schools and Families" (<http://www.dfes.gov.uk/>) in June 2007, for the purpose of assuring satisfaction and happiness in children and youth.

One of the strategies of this new department included the active support of a national movement called **Social and Emotional Aspects of Learning** (SEAL) (<http://www.bandapilot.org.uk/>) for Primary and Secondary education. The SEAL movement was directly inspired from proposals originally labeled in the U.S. as Social and Emotional Learning (SEL; www.CASEL.org).

The principles of SEL involve practical development of children's social and emotional skills in a positive, stimulating atmosphere (Greenberg et al., 2003; Weissberg & O'Brien, 2004). The SEL programs are based on the concept of Emotional Intelligence developed by Peter Salovey and John Mayer in 1990 (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and propagated with great commercial success by Daniel Goleman in 1995 (Goleman, 1995). The SEL programs offered training in basic skills directly related to emotional intelligence, such as emotional perception, emotional understanding, emotional regulation, as well as broader,

higher level aspects linked to personality, such as self-esteem, perseverance, assertiveness and optimism (Zins, Weissberg, Wang, & Walberg, 2004).

Over the past few years, children in a growing number of schools throughout the United States have been introduced to the “Self-Science” curriculum that was developed by Karen Stone-McCown and her colleagues 40 years ago.

Walberg's Theory of Educational Productivity

Walberg's (1981) theory of educational productivity, which is one of the few empirically tested theories of school learning based on an extensive review and integration of over 3,000 studies (DiPerna, Volpe & Stephen, 2002). “Wang, Haertel, and Walberg (1997) analyzed the content of 179 handbook chapters and reviews and 91 research syntheses and surveyed educational researchers in an effort to achieve some consensus regarding the most significant influences on learning” (Greenberg et al., 2003). Using a variety of methods, Wang, et al. (1977) identified 28 categories of learning influence. Of the 11 most influential domains of variables, 8 involved social-emotional influences: classroom management, parental support, student- teacher interactions, social- behavioral attributes, motivational- effective attributes, the peer group, school culture, and classroom climate (Greenberg et al., 2003). Distant background influences (e.g., state, district, or school policies, organizational characteristics, curriculum, and instruction) were less influential. Wang et al. (1997) concluded that "the direct intervention in the psychological determinants of learning promise the most effective avenues for reform". Wang et al.'s research review targeted student learning characteristics (i.e., social, behavioral, motivational, affective, cognitive, and metacognitive) as the set of variables with the most potential for modification that could, in turn, significantly and positively affect student outcomes (DiPerna et al., 2002).

More recently, Zins, Weissberg, Wang and Walberg, (2004) demonstrated the importance of the domains of motivational orientations, self-regulated learning strategies, and social/interpersonal abilities in facilitating academic performance. Zins et al. reported, based on the large-scale implementation of a Social-Emotional Learning (SEL) program, that student's who became more self-aware and confident regarding their learning abilities, who were more motivated, who set learning goals, and who were organized in their approach to work (self-

regulated learning) performed better in school. According to Greenberg, Weissberg, O'Brien, Zins, Fredericks, Resnick, & Elias, (2003), Zins et al. (2004) assert that “research linking social, emotional, and academic factors are sufficiently strong to advance the new term social, emotional, and academic learning (SEAL). A central challenge for researchers, educators, and policymakers is to strengthen this connection through coordinated multiyear programming.

Walberg and associates’ conclusions resonate with findings from other fields. For example, the "resilience" literature (Garmezy, 1993) grew from the observation that despite living in disadvantaged and risky environments, certain children overcame and attained high levels of achievement, motivation, and performance (Gutman, Sameroff & Eccles, 2002). Wach’s (2000) review of biological, social, and psychological factors suggested that no single factor could explain “how” and “why” these resilient children had been *inoculated* from the deleterious effects of their day- to-day environments. A variety of promotive (direct) and protective (interactive) variables were suggested, which included, aside from cognitive abilities, such conative characteristics as study habits, social abilities, and the absence of behavior problems (Guttman et al., 2003).

Haertel, Walberg, and Weinstein (1983) identified 8 major models of school learning that are either based on psychological learning theory (Glaser, 1976) or time-based models of learning (Bennett, 1978; Bloom, 1976; Carroll, 1963; Cooley & Leinhardt, 1975; Harnischfeger & Wiley, 1976). Despite variations in names of constructs, Haertel et al. (1983) found that most of the 8 theories included variables representing ability, motivation, quality of instruction, and quantity of instruction. Constructs less represented in the models were social environment of the classroom, home environment, peer influence, and mass media (Watson & Keith, 2002). Haertel et al.’s (1983) review of theories, multiple quantitative syntheses of classroom research, and secondary data analyses of large- scale national surveys (Reynolds & Walberg, 1992), generally support Walberg’s global model of educational productivity. Walberg’s model specifies that:

Classroom learning is a multiplicative, diminishing-returns function of four essential factors student ability and motivation, and quality and quantity of

instruction and possibly four supplementary or supportive factors the social psychological environment of the classroom, education-stimulating conditions in the home and peer group, and exposure to mass media. Each of the essential factors appears to be necessary but insufficient by itself for classroom learning; that is, all four of these factors appear required at least at minimum level. It also appears that the essential factors may substitute, compensate, or trade off for one another in diminishing rates of return: for example, immense quantities of time may be required for a moderate amount of learning to occur if motivation, ability, or quality of instruction is minimal (Haertel et al., 1983).

An important finding of the Walberg et al. large scale causal modeling research was that nine different educational productivity factors were hypothesized to operate vis- à-vis a complex set of interactions to account for school learning. Additionally, some student characteristic variables (motivation, prior achievement, attitudes) had indirect effects (e.g., the influence of the variable “went through” or was mediated via another variable).

The importance of the Walberg et al. group's findings cannot be overstated. Walberg's (1981) theory of educational productivity is one of the few empirically tested theories of school learning and is based on the review and integration of over 3,000 studies (DiPerna et al., 2002). Walberg et al. have identified key variables that effect student outcomes: student ability/prior achievement, motivation, age/developmental level, quantity of instruction, quality of instruction, classroom climate, home environment, peer group, and exposure to mass media outside of school (Walberg, Fraser & Welch, 1986). In the current context, the first three variables (ability, motivation, and age) reflect characteristics of the student. The fourth and fifth variables reflect instruction (quantity and quality), and the final four variables (classroom climate, home environment, peer group, and exposure to media) represent aspects of the psychological environment (DiPerna et al., 2002). Clearly student characteristics are important for school learning, but they only comprise a portion of the learning equation.

More recently, Wang, Haertel, and Walberg (1993) organized the relevant school learning knowledge base into major construct domains (State & District Governance & Organization, Home & Community Contexts, School

Demographics, Culture, Climate, Policies &Practices, Design & Delivery of Curriculum & Instruction, Classroom Practices, Learner Characteristics) and attempted to establish the relative importance of 228 variables in predicting academic domains. Using a variety of methods, the authors concluded that psychological, instructional, and home environment characteristics (“proximal” variables) have a more significant impact on achievement than variables such as state-, district-, or school-level policy and demographics (“distal” variables). More importantly, in the context of the current document, student characteristics (i.e., social, behavioral, motivational, affective, cognitive, metacognitive) were the set of proximal variables with the most significant impact on learner outcomes (DiPerna et al., 2002).

In the literature, there are numerous factors influencing achievement. According to Scholars, these include school quality (Obeamata, 2001; Ogunniyi, 1996), teacher quality (Okpala, 1999; Labo-Popoola, 2003; Awomolo & Adeyegbe, 1995), school environment (Ilori, 1995; Okwilagwe, 1999), poor implementation of policy on education (Salami, 1992) and provision of resources (Farombi, 1998). Also, Keeve (1995) emphasized the use of textbooks as having positive effect on student achievement. Other research findings have shown that individual characteristics such as motivation, orientation, self-esteem and learning approaches are important factors influencing academic achievement (Minneaert & Jasen, 1992; Watkin, 1986). A considerable amount of literature has concerned itself with the unique position of students themselves in their scholastic achievement. A lot of studies have emphasized student’s attitude, socio-economic background, peer group influence and gender as they affect academic achievement of the learners. However, none of these studies also considered the combination of the students’ self-concept, locus of control and emotional intelligence as they relate to the academic achievement of the learners. It is this gap that necessitates this research work.

Summary of Literature Review

This study was conceptualized to explore Locus of Control, Self Concept and Emotional Intelligence as predictors of academic achievement among senior secondary school students in Anambra State.

Locus of Control was reviewed using Social Learning theory by Rotter, 1966 and Attribution theory by the same Rotter. Social learning theory emphasized the role of reinforcement, reward or gratification as important events in the acquisition and performance of skills and knowledge. Attribution theory on the other hand, captures the distinction between psychologically localizing control of one's actions within oneself or in the environment.

Self Concept theory by Carl Rogers (1947) recognised self as the central ingredient in human personality and personal adjustment which always strive for consistency in its actions. He maintained that there is a basic human need for positive regard both from others and from oneself.

Many scholars have acknowledged that the necessary emotional and social competencies for coping adequately with negative, destructive emotions generated in such a competitive context as school have not been explicitly taught in our culture; this is because in our society and specifically at school, only the intellectual and academic aspects of students are given priority while consigning their emotional and social development to the private sphere, where each individual is responsible for his or her own personal development.

In the light of previous studies it can be said that a relationship may exist between Locus of Control, Self Concept and Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement.

Having done with the summary of literature review, as well as with the other related variables, the hypotheses postulated for this study is hereby stated:

Hypotheses

1. Locus of Control will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State.

2. Self Concept will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State.
3. Emotional Intelligence will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

Participants

Two hundred and forty (240) participants were used in this study. The participants were made up of one hundred and thirty (130) males and one hundred and ten (110) females from six public senior secondary schools in six educational zones (Aguata, Awka, Nnewi, Ogidi, Onitsha and Otuocha) in Anambra state. The male constitutes fifty-four percent (54%) of the sample and the remaining forty-six percent (46%) were female. The participants who were SS 2 students with age ranging between 14 and 20years with a calculated mean age of 16.7years and standard deviation of 1.3 were randomly selected using Purposive Sampling Method.

Instruments

Four instruments were used to collect data for the study. The instruments are:

1. Locus of Control Scale (LCS)

The locus of control scale (LCS) is an adoption of Rotter's (1966) locus of control scale. The scale consists of twenty-nine items which are highly forced choices. Six of the items are fillers and the other 23 offer choice between internal and external control statements. A score of 35 and above denote external-control (EC) while a score between 1-34 shows internal control (IC). Apart from the validity and reliability of the scale established by Rotter (1966), Olayinka (1997) and Yoloye (1999) confirmed the reliability of 0.80 for the items and a concurrent validity of 0.76. The indices obtained by these researchers show that the instrument is valid.

2. Academic Self-Concept Scale (ASCS)

This instrument is an adoption of Reynolds (1998) which measures academic self-concept. The scale is a 40 – item self-report measures. The questionnaire used a 4 – Point Likert-type scale to measure an academic aspect of general self-efficacy. The overall ASCS reported alpha coefficient was .91. A test-retest reliability of the scale was determined by Salami (1999) using Nigerian students. Salami reported a reliability coefficient of .75. Academic Self-Concept (ASCS) has been found to have a convergent validity of 0.68 (Abdollahia et al, 2014). This shows that the instrument is suitable for Nigerian respondents.

3. Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS)

This instrument is an adoption of Shuttle, et al (1998) emotional intelligence scale. The scale is designed to measure an individual's emotional intelligence through 33 self-referencing statements tapping the appraisal and expression of emotions in self and others, emotional perception, regulating of self and others and emotional utilization. The subjects are to rate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement on a 5-point likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The instrument has demonstrated high internal consistency with Crombach Alpha of 0.87. Emeke and Adeoye (2010) reported a concurrent validity of 0.78 in their study using a participant sample of 600 students in Oyo State, Nigeria.

4. Academic Achievement Test (AAT)

A total of Two hundred and forty (240) students' results in English Language and Mathematics for second term (2016/2017 Session) were obtained from the School Principals during the distribution of the questionnaires and were used as basis for academic achievements of the students.

Procedure

The instruments were administered on the participants in a very conducive environment. The administration was done by the researcher with the assistance of vice principals and the senior prefects. Participants were informed about the purpose of the study and the researcher explained the instruments to them. The administration lasted about an hour in each of the participating schools. Thereafter the instruments were retrieved using on the spot assessment method and this made possible the retrieval of the whole instruments.

Design and Statistics

The study is a survey research. Pearson Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression Analysis were the appropriate statistical tools used to analyze data obtained from the field.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT

Table I: Summary table of mean and standard deviation of the independent variables with regard to the dependent variable.

Descriptive Statistics

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emo Intelligence	240	33.00	159.00	29130.00	121.3750	18.34334
Self Concept	240	71.00	155.00	26360.00	109.8333	12.71169
Locus of Control	240	36.00	62.00	10635.00	44.3125	3.73470
Academic Achievement	240	65.00	175.00	28327.00	118.0292	21.80196
Valid N (list wise)	240					

Table II: Summary Table of Pearson Moment Correlation Analysis.

		Emo Intelligence	Self Concept	Locus of Control	Academic Achievement
Emo Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	1	.117*	.136*	.180**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.036	.018	.002
	N	240	240	240	240
Self Concept	Pearson Correlation	.117*	1	.121*	.183**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.036		.027	.002
	N	240	240	240	240
Locus of Control	Pearson Correlation	.136*	.121*	1	.123*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.018	.027		.029
	N	240	240	240	240
Academic Achievement	Pearson Correlation	.180**	.183**	.123*	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.002	.029	
	N	240	240	240	240

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

From the above table, significant correlations were observed amongst all the variables.

Table III: Model Summary Table of Regression Analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.236 ^a	.056	.044	21.32125

a. Predictors: (Constant), Locus of Control, Emo Intelligence, Self Concept

Table IV: ANOVA TABLE

ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	6318.227	3	2106.076	4.633	.004 ^b
Residual	107284.568	236	454.596		
Total	113602.796	239			

a. Dependent Variable: Academic Achievement

b. Predictors: (Constant), Locus of Control, Emo Intelligence, Self Concept

Multiple r = .236^a

r² = .056

Adjusted r² = .044

S.E = 21.32125

P (.004) < .05 level of significance.



TABLE V

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients			t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	39.737	22.264		3.285	.026
EmoIntelligence	.206	.095	.089	2.402	.048
Self Concept	.318	.109	.186	2.928	.004
Locus of Control	.389	.169	.192	2.965	.037

a. Dependent Variable: Academic Achievement

The result from the Multiple Regression Analysis in Table V showed that hypothesis one which stated that locus of control will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State was confirmed at $\beta = .192$, $p < .05$ ($n= 240$).

Also hypothesis two which stated that self concept will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State was confirmed at $\beta = .186$, $p < .05$ ($n= 240$).

Furthermore, hypothesis three which stated that emotional intelligence will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State was also confirmed at $\beta = .089$, $p < .05$ ($n= 240$).



CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

This study examined Locus of Control, Self Concept and Emotional Intelligence as predictors of Academic Achievement among adolescents in senior secondary schools in Anambra State. The focus of the study was centred on the fact that there is a consensus among educators that cognitive factors, like grades or scores on intelligence tests, predict student performance. However, many students still fail to live up to their true potential despite their IQ or previous academic performance. Conversely, some students with mediocre grades have managed to complete a college or university education, hence the need to look at non-cognitive (affective) aspects of students' learning or the psychological constructs that underpin students learning.

Consequently, three hypotheses were tested using the Pearson moment correlation and multiple regression and the results indicated that locus of control; self-concept

and emotional intelligence had significant relative and joint interactions with academic achievement.

Hypothesis 1 which stated that locus of control will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra State was confirmed. This finding confirmed an earlier study by Skinner, Wellborn and Connell (1990) when they found out that when an individual believes he can exert control over success in school, he performs better on cognitive tasks.

Wang et al., (1999) conclude that an internal locus of control is associated with superior academic performance. A sense of personal control is thought to increase effort, motivation, and persistence in problem solving all of which are expected to improve educational outcomes (Ross and Broh, 2000).

A study on locus of control among Iranian students by Barzegar (2001) using the Internal-External locus of control Scale by Rotter indicates that locus of control was a factor predicting students' academic performance. Anakwe (2003) examined the relationship between locus of control and secondary school students' academic performance. The findings showed a significant positive relationship between academic performance and locus of control. Shepherd, Owen, Fitch and Marshall (2006) found that students with higher GPA reported higher score in internal locus of control.

Knowles and Kerman (2007) found that students with internal locus of control tend to perform better in academic courses compared to those with external locus of control. Nejati, Abedi, Agbaci & Mohammadi (2012) investigated the relationship between locus of control and the academic performance of students by considering the role of life quality and satisfaction with life. The outcome of the study revealed that locus of control significantly correlated with the academic performance of the students.

Also Odinko and Adeyemo (1999) also discovered in their study that internal locus of control is significant to academic achievement.

Hypothesis 2 which stated that Self Concept will significantly predict academic achievement of senior secondary school students in Anambra state was also confirmed. This was supported in the works of Animashun (2000), who maintained that positive self concept is valued as a goal of education and

socialization and a potential facilitator of motivation and the need for achievement.

Furthermore, hypothesis 3 which stated that emotional intelligence will significantly predict academic achievement was also confirmed.

Many studies have found positive correlation between emotional intelligence and academic achievement.

Goleman (1995) cites a longitudinal study in which the level of impulse control or self-regulatory behavior among 4 year old children correlated to their later academic performance based on standard measures such as grade point average (GPA). There is also evidence that a higher level of emotional intelligence correlates with goal orientation and life satisfaction among adults (Martinez-Pons, 1997). The findings of the study, conducted by Fannin (2000), showed positive correlation between emotional intelligence and achievement scores. There is also some evidence that emotional intelligence affects the way cognitive intelligence is used (Reiff, et al, 2001). Rozell, Pettijohn, and Parker, (2002) found relationship between emotional intelligence and CGPA of undergraduate students of Mid-Western University.

Farooq (2003) examined the effect of emotional intelligence on academic performance of 246 adolescent students and found that students with high emotional intelligence show better academic performance than the students with low emotional intelligence. A study to determine the correlation between the MSCEIT and standard cognitive ability markers has determined that “EQ” is a standard form of intelligence and can be measured if reliable test instruments are developed and validated (Reid, 2003).

The study conducted by Nelson and Low (2004) revealed the importance of emotional intelligence during transition period of high school graduates in the first year of college. They emphasized the importance of emotional intelligence skills as influencing variables in students’ achievement and retention. Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan and Majeski (2004) found emotional intelligence a predictor in identifying academically successful and academically unsuccessful students during transition period. Marquez, Martin and Brackett (2006) found relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. Abdullah (2006) also

found that some dimensions of emotional intelligence significantly predict academic performance of college students. After reviewing research studies about emotional intelligence in relation to university students, Abraham (2006) concluded that training in appropriate emotional skills is necessary for career success and fulfillment.

A study conducted by Jaeger and Eagan (2007) revealed Interpersonal, Stress Management and adaptability scales of BarOnEQi as significant predictors of academic performance of students in the first year of university.

Petrides et al (2004) found out that there is significant relationship between an individual emotional intelligence and academic performance.

Summary

This research was carried out to investigate how well the constructs of Locus of Control, Self Concept and Emotional Intelligence are able to predict Academic Achievement.

A random sample of 240 SS2 students from six secondary schools from six educational zones in Anambra State were utilized for the study. The research instruments used were Locus of Control Scale adopted from Rotter (1966), Academic Self Concept Scale by Reynolds (1998), Emotional Intelligence Scale adopted from Shuttle et al (1998). The data collected were analysed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression Analysis. The research findings were illustrated using tables. At the end of the analysis, the Hypotheses given were confirmed.

Implication of the Study

The implication of the above discussion based on the empirical finding is that counselling psychologists, teachers and parents should continue to encourage students on positive self concept, internal locus of control and sharpen the emotional intelligence skills for peak academic performance.

Recommendations

This study has some implications for policy makers, curriculum developers, teachers/counselors, parents and students alike.

1. The inclusion of a focus on emotional intelligence as part of the standard secondary school curriculum could lead to a variety of positive personal, social and societal outcomes. Increasing emotional intelligence may not only facilitate the learning process and improve career choice and likelihood of success, but could also enhance the probability of better personal and social adaptation in general.
2. Teachers should lay emphasis on hard work as the path to success to enhance students' determination and disabuse their minds of the idea of luck, fate or powerful others as determinants of their success
3. Parents need to encourage self-reliance, self-confidence and independence in their children so as to foster in them (children) an internal belief that they can control their own affairs.
4. The educational experience should adopt a more balanced or holistic approach by focusing on educating the whole person. There could also be beneficial effects for the school, improving the environment in which the educational experience occurs.
5. Cultural views of causality, attributing events to fate, gods, taboo or the power of the unknown, should be discouraged among students and this orientation can be changed through teaching, evaluation and counseling.

Limitations of the Study

As good and challenging as these implications are, the study is not without some limitations for generalization. A sample of six selected schools from six educational zones with a sample size of 240 participants in Anambra state is one of such limitations. It therefore calls for caution in generalizing the findings of the study to other settings. The researcher suggests the replication of the study in another setting with larger sample size. Another limitation of this study is the self-reporting nature of the questionnaires used to collect data. It is well known that self-reporting questionnaires are prone to exaggeration and embellishment especially in the case of secondary school students trying to "look good". These limitations notwithstanding, the study has significantly contributed to the field of knowledge in education.

Suggestions for Further Research

It is recommended that further research should be carried out with a larger sample size. It is also suggested that this study be replicated in other settings.

Conclusion

Based on the above findings, it was concluded that Locus of Control, Self-Concept and Emotional Intelligence significantly predict Academic Achievement of secondary school students in Anambra State.

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APPENDIX I

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: ACADEMIC SELF-CONCEPT SCALE

SEX: AGE: DATE:

Listed below are a number of statements concerning School-related attitude. Rate each item as it pertains to you personally. Base your ratings on how you feel most of the time. Use the following scale to rate each statement:

SD= Strongly Disagree. D= Disagree. A = Agree. SA = Strongly Agree.

INDICATE YOUR RESPONSE BY TICKING THE APPROPRIATE LETTER(S). Be sure to answer all items. Please respond to each item independently, do not be influenced by your previous choices.

S/N	ITEMS	SD	D	A	SA
1.	Being a student is a very rewarding experience				
2.	If I try hard enough, I will be able to get good grades				
3.	Most of the time my efforts in school are rewarded				
4.	No matter how hard I try, I do not do well in school				
5.	I often expect to do poorly on exams				
6.	All in all, I feel I am a capable student				
7.	I do well in my courses given the amount of time I dedicate to studying				
8.	My parents are not satisfied with my grades in college				
9.	Others view me as intelligent				
10.	Most courses are very easy for me				
11.	I sometimes feel like dropping out of school				
12.	Most of my classmates do better in school than I do				
13.	Most of my instructors think that I am a good student				
14.	At times I feel college is too difficult for me				
15.	All in all, I am proud of my grades in college				
16.	Most of the time while taking a test I feel confident				
17.	I feel capable of helping others with their classwork				
18.	I feel teachers' standards are too high for me				
19.	It is hard for me to keep up with my classwork				
20.	I am satisfied with the class assignments that I turn in				
21.	At times I feel like a failure				

22.	I feel I do not study enough before a test			
23.	Most exams are easy for me			
24.	I have doubts that I will do well in my major			
25.	For me, studying hard pays off			
26.	I have a hard time getting through school			
27.	I am good at scheduling my study time			
28.	I have a fairly clear sense of my academic goals			
29.	I'd like to be a much better student than I am now			
30.	I often get discouraged about school			
31.	I enjoy doing my homework			
32.	I consider myself a very good student			
33.	I usually get the grades I deserve in my courses			
34.	I do not study as much as I should			
35.	I Usually feel on top of my work by finals week			
36.	Others consider me a good student			
37.	I feel that I am better than the average college student			
38.	In most of the courses, I feel that my classmates are better prepared than I am			
39.	I feel that I do not have the necessary abilities for certain courses in my major			
40.	I have poor study habits			

SECTION B ROTTER'S LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

This is a questionnaire to find out the way in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives lettered a or b. Please select the one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to

select the one you actually believe to be truer rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: obviously there are no right or wrong answers. Please answer these items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item.

Be sure to find an answer for every choice. In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements and neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Also try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

1. a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
2. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
3. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
4. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world
b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries
5. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
6. a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
7. a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
8. a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality
b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like.
9. a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

10. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
- b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
11. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
- b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
12. a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
- b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
- b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
14. a. There are certain people who are just no good.
- b. There is some good in everybody.
15. a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
- b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
16. a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
- b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability. Luck has little or nothing to do with it.
17. a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
- b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
18. a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
- b. There really is no such thing as "luck."
19. a. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
- b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
20. a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
- b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
21. a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.

- b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
22. a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
23. a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
24. a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
25. a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
26. a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.
27. a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
28. a. What happens to me is my own doing.
b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
29. a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

SECTION C EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE

SEX: **AGE:** **DATE:**

Introduction: I am a researcher from NNAMDI AZIKIWE UNIVERSITY, AWKA, carrying out research on Emotional Intelligence. The research is for academic purposes and it will not reveal any information concerning your personality.

Instruction: Please answer/respond to the following questions as it applies to your opinion. Please do not leave any of the items/questions unanswered as any one unanswered renders the instrument invalid. There is no wrong or right answer/response. Just answer as it applies to you. The options are as follows:

- 1- Strongly Disagree (SD)
- 2- Disagree (D)
- 3- Undecided (UN)
- 4- Agree (A)
- 5- Strongly Agree (SA)

S/N0	ITEMS	1 SD	2 D	3 UD	4 A	5 SA
1	I know when to speak about my personal problems to others					
2	When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them					
3	I expect that I will do well on most things I try					
4	Other people find it easy to confide in me					
5	I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people					
6	Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important					
7	When my mood changes, I see new possibilities					
8	Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living					
9	I am aware of my emotions as I experience them					
10	I expect good things to happen					
11	I like to share my emotions with others					
12	When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last					
13	I arrange events others enjoy					
14	I seek out activities that make me happy					
15	I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others					
16	I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others					
17	When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me					
18	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing					
19	I know why my emotions change					
20	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas					
21	I have control over my emotions					
22	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them					
23	I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on					

24	I compliment others when they have done something well				
25	I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send				
26	When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself				
27	When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas				
28	When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail				
29	I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them				
30	I help other people feel better when they are down				
31	I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles				
32	I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice				
33	It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do				



APPENDIX II
STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Descriptive Statistics

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emo Intelligence	240	33.00	159.00	29130.00	121.3750	18.34334
Self Concept	240	71.00	155.00	26360.00	109.8333	12.71169
Locus of Control	240	36.00	62.00	10635.00	44.3125	3.73470
Academic Achievement	240	65.00	175.00	28327.00	118.0292	21.80196
Valid N (list wise)	240					

Table II: Summary Table of Pearson Moment Correlation Analysis.

		Emo Intelligence	Self Concept	Locus of Control	Academic Achievement
Emo Intelligence	Pearson Correlation Sig. (1-tailed)	1 .036	.117* .018	.136* .002	.180**

	N	240	240	240	240
Self Concept	Pearson Correlation	.117*	1	.121*	.183**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.036		.027	.002
	N	240	240	240	240
Locus of Control	Pearson Correlation	.136*	.121*	1	.123*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.018	.027		.029
	N	240	240	240	240
Academic Achievement	Pearson Correlation	.180**	.183**	.123*	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.002	.002	.029	
	N	240	240	240	240

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table III: Model Summary table of Regression Analysis

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.236 ^a	.056	.044	21.32125

a. Predictors: (Constant), Locus of Control,
Emo Intelligence, Self Concept

Table IV: ANOVA TABLE

ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	6318.227	3	2106.076	4.633	.004 ^b
	107284.568	236	454.596		
	113602.796	239			

a. Dependent Variable: Academic Achievement

b. Predictors: (Constant), Locus of Control, Emo Intelligence, Self Concept

TABLE V

Model	Coefficients ^a				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	39.737	22.264	3.285	.026
	Emo Intelligence	.206	.095	2.402	.048
	Self Concept	.318	.109	.186	.004
	Locus of Control	.389	.169	.192	.037

a. Dependent Variable: Academic Achievement

**LOCUS OF CONTROL, SELF-CONCEPT AND EMOTIONAL
INTELLIGENCE AS PREDICTORS OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT
AMONG ADOLESCENTS IN SENIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN
ANAMBRA STATE**

BY

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NNAMDI AZIKIWE UNIVERSITY, AWKA**

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**A SEMINAR PRESENTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF DOCTORATE DEGREE IN
SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

**DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
NNAMDI AZIKIWE UNIVERSITY, AWKA**

SUPERVISOR: DR C.O AMAZONWU

JUNE, 2017

CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this research work was carried out by ENIKE, TOBIAS CHINEZE with Registration Number NAU/PG/2014147001P, and has been approved as meeting the partial requirements for the award of Doctorate Degree in Social Psychology of the Department of Psychology, Faculty of Social Sciences, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka.

Dr. C.O. Amazonwu
Supervisor

Date

Sir Dr Harry Obi-Nwosu
Head of Department

Date

DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to the Holy Spirit, my great companion.

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated locus of control, self-concept and emotional intelligence as predictors of academic achievement among senior secondary school students in Anambra State. Participants consisted of 240 students (130 boys and 110 girls) from six senior secondary schools in six educational zones of Anambra state. The participants who were SS 2 students with age ranging between 14 and 20 years with a calculated mean age of 16.7 years and standard deviation of 1.3 were randomly selected. The students responded to valid and reliable instruments, namely: locus of control scale, academic self-concept scale, emotional intelligence scale and academic achievement test. Data analysis involved pearson moment correlation and multiple regression, to examine the predictive effect of locus of control, self concept and emotional intelligence on the students' academic achievement. Results showed that the variables when taken jointly and relatively, predicted academic achievement of students. Implications for the findings were discussed and the need for guidance services in Nigerian secondary schools was also stressed.



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