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Emotional intelligence and self-efficacy among the prime stakeholders in special education: a case of Saudi Arabia

Mona Saleh Alanazi*

College of Arts & Science, Northern Border University, Arar, Saudi Arabia

Abstract

Teachers, students, and parents of special children from selected schools in Saudi Arabia's Northern Border region took part in the study to provide data on their levels of emotional intelligence and self-efficacy beliefs in order to demonstrate their readiness to perform as per the set standards for their roles in the teaching and learning process of special/gifted learners. A sample of students (n=50) and teachers (n=24) from primary, middle and high schools responded to the study instruments on emotional intelligence and self-efficacy; parents (n=30) also participated in the study. Gender and educational status are the variables considered for parents, teachers and students. The results indicate a significant relation between the EI and SE among all the study groups in terms of gender and their educational status. Male teachers and parents have higher EI and SE than their female counterparts; higher EI has also been linked to higher SE. Uneducated parents register lower EI and SE than the educated ones. Similarly, male teachers have higher EI and SE than female teachers; high school teachers have higher EI and SE than primary and middle school teachers. Similarly, students too have reflected similar patterns.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence; self-efficacy; special education; stakeholders; Saudi Arabia

1. Introduction

The last decade has witnessed the growing interest in Emotional Intelligence (EI, hereafter) in the field of educational psychology (Dewaele, 2017; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008; Petrides et al., 2016; Moira et al. 2020). EI is people's ability to deal with their emotions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). This definition suggests that EI is the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action (as cited in Ream, 2010). Developing an individual's self-efficacy (SE, hereafter) creates a regulation of self-awareness, which is essential in developing emotions. According to Bandura (1997), self-awareness creates a strong connection to SE, as SE emphasizes self-awareness and self-regulation as factors influencing the development of self-efficacy beliefs. EI and SE merge as an individual interprets organizational realities by the ability to recognize thoughts, feelings and behaviors through self-awareness, regulation and control (Bandura, 1997; Alenizi, 2018). In order to enable teachers to cope effectively with these demands, this study aimed to determine the relationship between EI and SE teachers. According to Gundlach, Marinko and Douglas (2003), the mental processes of self-efficacy can be impacted by emotions as "emotions left uncontrolled can interfere with the cognitive processing of information that can be vital to task performance" (p. 234). It can be deduced that a person with low EI and low self-efficacy will likely struggle to maintain order in his/her daily tasks (Adeyemo et al. 2019). Ream (2010) states that when individuals are able to control their emotions, make accurate attributions with

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +966-531244544
E-mail address: mona70546@gmail.com

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regard to past workplace events and objectively understand how their emotions and attributions influence their thoughts, feelings and expectancies about future workplace events, they are better able to enhance their self-efficacy beliefs.

Recent research shows that not only do teachers have the potential to effect learners' learning outcomes (Anderson, 2004; Matthews, 2012), but parents too. There is no dearth of literature showing teachers as a significant factor in achieving the desirable outcomes of students, both in regular and special schools (Darling-Hammond, 2000). In other words, teacher-effectiveness enhances the learning experience of the students; and research on teacher-effectiveness has given insight into the characteristics of effective teachers (Hughes, Abbott-Campbell & Williamson, 2001; Gibbs, 2002). And the teachers' effectiveness is governed by their self-efficacy, i.e. their belief about their teaching abilities (Gibbs, 2002). It is also observed by government agencies that teachers' self-efficacy has four times the impact on students' learning than school effectiveness in general. The variation in teachers' self-efficacy is substantially related to the variance in teachers' emotional intelligence (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Matthews, 2012).

Like other learning disabilities (e.g. Downs syndrome, Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)), Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) and William syndrome (WS) are related to sensory processing and repetitive behaviors, and eventually to anxiety and intolerance of uncertainty (Glod et al. 2019; Uljarevic et al. 2018; Wigham et al. 2018; Rodgers et al., 2012; APA, 2013). Furthermore, all developmental disorders involve spatial processing, behavioral issues, and intellectual difficulties that must be addressed with patience, a personalized, and compassionate attitude, with persistence and competence required of teachers (Kubier, 2019). For this, significantly higher EI ensures better self-efficacy among the teachers, educators or the facilitators. The present study aims to explore the relationship between these two factors by the prime stakeholders like instructors, parents and students.

Studies focused on the parents' perception of their children's disability have varied across cultures (Hanson, et al. 2013; Davis & Manago, 2016). Mothers in some cultures hold biomedical and traditional beliefs both concerning the nature and treatment of disabilities (Daudji et al., 2011; Raman et al., 2010), while in some cultures, mothers believe biomedical interventions are completely unnecessary (Santos & Mccollum, 2007). In Saudi Arabia, disability is more a family responsibility than an institution's. Disability is often marginalized for various reasons, such as lack of awareness and shame associated with it (Al-Jahid, 2014, 2013). However, perceptions about disabilities and teachers or parents' preparedness related to the same have not been explored well, and very little is known, especially in the Middle Eastern context; in the context of Saudi Arabia it has been very discouraging (Madi, 2019). Families' role in dealing with developmental disorders is of utmost importance, and therefore the importance of EI and self-efficacy of the family members, especially the parents, become necessary to be addressed well for proper counselling as well as to ensure their effective participation in the intervention services. The present study aims to bridge this gap by exploring the teachers and parents' readiness and the students' needs.

Emotional Intelligence: Emotional intelligence is an ability to monitor one's own emotions and others' feelings, and to discriminate and use such ability to manage one well and one's relationships with others (Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Disabled children with lower emotional intelligence display a high level of anxiety, and very less effective conversational behaviors (Wojnilower & Gross, 1998). Therefore, children in inclusive classrooms exhibit fewer behavioral problems than the students in exclusive special education classes (Wiener & Tardif, 2004). Studies have also indicated that adolescents with learning disabilities lack emotional development which causes increased risk of severe depression and suicide, which subsequently recommended thorough diagnosis and corrective services for them (Cheri, 1997; William & Bender, 1993; Obiakor, 2000, 2001; Lovitt, 2000). Another study suggested the effect of EI on procrastination, which resulted in stronger GPA in learners with LD than in non LD learners (Hen & Goroshit, 2014). Studies such as Kumar's (2014) that indicate how LD learners' EI impacts the learning experience,

Ghani & Zain (2014) have indicated that the EI of Malaysian special educators varies depending on their gender, but age, academic qualification and teaching experience have proved to be non-significant for the primary and secondary school teachers. It has been well acknowledged in various socio-educational set ups that teachers are required to have high EI, which the organizations aspire to strongly consider while hiring their teaching staff.

Self-efficacy: The social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) set the ground for research into teachers' self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is explained as "people's belief about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives", because these beliefs "regulate how people think and motivate themselves to behave in a certain way". People with stronger self-efficacy set goals for themselves and maintain a commitment to achieve those goals than people with poorer self-efficacy (Bandura, 1995). The talents that teachers are expected to have to create a conducive learning environment to create an enriching learning experience for the learners, are determined by a high sense of efficacy. These capabilities help in motivating the students toward their cognitive development.

Teachers' self-efficacy is related to the various aspects of teaching and learning outcomes (Tschannen-Moran et al. 1998). These outcomes include teachers' readiness to follow new ideas and to try new teaching methods, behavior inside and outside the classrooms, effort in goal-setting and to achieve those, commitment towards the profession and persistent interest in their preferred career. Teachers' self-efficacy has been observed to influence learners' emotional development, attitude toward learning and eventually to their academic achievement, which is supposed to be a pertinent factor in determining the health of an academic institution as well as the learning environment for the learners (Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990; Tschannen-Moran et al. 1998; Kogan & Yacha-Haasem 2001). Studies do suggest a positive correlation between teachers' years of experience and their self-efficacy (Coladarci & Breton, 1997; Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993).

1.1 Research Questions:

What is the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Self-efficacy (SE) of teachers or special educators in terms of their gender, age, years of experience, educational qualification?

What is the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Self-efficacy (SE) of the parents in terms of their gender, age, years of experience, educational qualification?

What is the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Self-efficacy (SE) of students in terms of their gender and academic level?

1.2 Hypotheses:

H01: There is a significant difference between EI and SE of the students of primary, middle and high schools.

H02: There is a significant difference between the teachers in terms of their gender and years of teaching experience?

H03: There is a significant difference between parents in terms of their gender and educational background.

2. Methodology

2.1 Objective

The present study aims to fulfil the following objectives:

a. To assess the nature of EI and SE of the teachers and parents.
b. To explore what EI and SE of the special educators and parents in Saudi Arabia exhibit preparedness to deal effectively with disabilities.

2.2 Participants

To study the responses of student, a sample of 50 students was selected. Along with the students, the following table 1 shows the number of teachers (n=24) and parents (n=30) who participated in the study as representatives of the prime stakeholders of the special educational process.

Table 1. Distribution of students' sample for the study

Students Participants	Total	Primary School	Middle School	High School
No. of Boys	25	8	8	9
No. of Girls	25	8	8	9
Total	50	16	16	18
Teachers				
Sl No.	Descriptions			Figures (in Nos.)
1	Number of Primary school teachers			8
2	Number of Middle school teachers			8
3	Number of High school teachers			8
4	Teachers with less than 5 yrs. experience			12
5	Teachers with 5 or more years of experience			12
Total Number of Teachers				24
Parents				
Sl No.	Descriptions			Figure (in Nos.)
1	Number of Males			15
2	Number of Females			15
3	Number of Educated Parents			15
4	Number of Uneducated Parents			15
Total Number of Parents				30

2.3 Study tools

Emotional Intelligence Scale: For this study, Wang and law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Wang and Lee, 2002) was used as several studies have supported the reliability and discriminant validity of the scale (Law et al., 2004; Law, Wong, Huang, & Li, 2008; Shi & Wang, 2007; Wong & Law, 2002). WLEIS has also been found to study academic and job performance, and job satisfaction as well (Song et al. 2010; Law et al. 2008). The present study aims to assess the emotional intelligence of the participants who are all considered as the prime stakeholders in an educational setting. It is evident that special educators are to be assessed here regarding their performance to deal effectively with the teaching situations encountered during their regular classes. Likewise, the students are expected to perform well in achieving their academic goals and the desired course objectives to be fulfilled, as the parents indirectly or directly participate in the academic activity of their children; WLEIS satisfies the needs and addresses the objectives of the present study. This questionnaire has been used exhaustively in studies not only related to students without any disabilities, but also with disabilities. It has been validated and tested in a variety of socio-cultural contexts. The scale was translated and was verified for its authenticity and language clarity; both the scales were verified by the three bilingual experts from the field of educational psychology and special education. A collection of 16 items measures emotional intelligence, based on the ability model, covers four dimensions: self-emotional appraisal (SEA, items 1-4), other emotional appraisal (OEA, items 13-14), use of emotions (UOE, items 9-12), and regulation of emotions (ROE, items 5-8). It is brief and is simple to administer, which makes it popular; therefore, it has been cited over 1300 times in various studies (May, 2015). As support of the construct validity of the WLEIS, it has shown criterion-related validity to job satisfaction (r = .40), job performance (r = .21), and peer-rated task

performance (r = .27; Hui-Hua & Schutte, 2015; Wong & Law, 2002), discriminant validity from personality (Wong & Law, 2002), and corresponding measurement across peer and self-reports (Joseph & Newman, 2010a, b). Students from Hong Kong and factory workers from China showed very encouraging results and thus validated the efficiency of the scale to measure emotional intelligence across the areas of study (Law, et al. 2004).

Self –efficacy scale: Perceived self-efficacy is people's belief in their abilities to perform the desired tasks as per the specified norms (Bandura, 1995). There is no all-purpose scale to measure self-efficacy, as a 'one measure fits all' approach would limit the predictive value of the study. Moreover, the domains of functioning vary as per the needs and socio-cultural contexts. Bandura's (2005) scale on self-efficacy was used for this study. For the children, the students were asked to rate their degree of confidence on numbers ranging from 10-100; the numbers were broadly categorized as three levels of responses, cannot do at all (0), moderately can do (50) and highly certain can do (100). The scale of 45 questions was divided into nine sections (enlisting social resources (4 questions), academic achievement (9 questions), self-regulated learning (10 questions), leisure time skills and extracurricular activities (8 questions), meeting others' expectations (4 questions), social self-efficacy (4 questions), self-assertive efficacy (4 questions), enlisting parental and community support (4 questions)). The original scale was modified considering the social context of Saudi Arabia; for this, many questions related to self-regulatory efficacy were removed from the scale in consultation with the subject experts because the questions related to drug addictions, sexual intercourse, and drinks are considered offensive to be asked, and which might have affected the data collections process. For the teachers, participants were asked to rate their level of confidence on a scale ranging from 10-100; the numbers were broadly classified as three levels of responses, can't do at all (0), moderately can do (50), and highly certain can do (100).The 28-question scale was divided into six sections based on self-efficacy (influence decision (3 questions), instructional (8 questions), disciplinary (3 questions), enlist parental involvement (3 questions), enlist community involvement (3 questions), and create positive school environment (8 questions). Similarly, the parents' scale included 48 questions about self-efficacy (to influence school-related performance (6 questions); to influence leisure-time activities (3 questions); to set limits, monitor activities, and influence peer affiliations (9 questions); to control high-risk behavior (5 questions); to influence the school system (9 questions); to enlist community resources for help (9 questions).scale has been observed and prescribed to be avoided because the respondents do avoid the extreme positions on a scale with 0-100 points considered as a stronger predictor of performance (Pajares et al. 2001; Bandura, 2005).

2.4 Procedure

Necessary ethical approval was taken for the study by the university's ethics committee and the school administrations where the teachers worked. Three primary, middle and high school students, including blind schools, were identified from the northern border region of Saudi Arabia. The minimum eligibility criterion for the teachers hired in special schools is that they are bachelors in special education; the teachers contacted for the study have more than five years of teaching experience and with less than five years' experience. Trainees or the newly appointed teachers with not even one year in their profession were not considered for the study. The three cities or towns identified to locate the schools and the parents were Arar, Rafha and Hafr Al-Batin. To maintain the authenticity of the study in terms of gender, age and educational level, all these three cities were chosen because of the similarity to the access of uniform teachers' training, resources, socio-cultural set up and exposure to a variety of resources and latest developments. The Ministry of Education maintains the quality check on special schools to provide standard professional practices to students across the kingdom, and also to manage uniform the teachers' training programs. To facilitate the data collection process, the researcher sought help from volunteers recruited from each school. First, the researcher briefly outlined the scope and nature

of the study. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study during their staff meetings and were briefed about the procedure for collecting data from the parents, ensuring their privacy and willingness to participate in such a study. The volunteers were asked to handover the questionnaire kit to each parent and teacher. A paid postal-envelope option was also provided in case parents or teachers required it due to privacy concerns. Proper monetary remuneration was offered to the volunteers for the support.

3. Results & Data Analyses

3.1 Emotional Intelligence – students, Gender-wise

The results show that the emotional intelligence shown by girls is higher than boys, as girls have shown more positive responses and less negative responses as compared to boys. It is also evident that the positive responses shown by middle and high school students are higher than primary school students. Further, the emotional intelligence level of primary, middle and high school students is 'Low Level' and 'Moderate Level' respectively. The 'p-Value' i.e. 0.00 is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 480.83) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 4.17). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean positive responses of the male and female students are significantly different from each other i.e. the emotional intelligence level is significantly different.

At the school level too, the 'p-Value' i.e. 0.00 is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 411.38) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.2043). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean positive responses of primary, middle and high school students are significantly different (the emotional intelligence level is significantly different among primary, middle and high school students). The data also suggest that the mean positive responses of primary and middle school students are significantly different from each other, i.e. the emotional intelligence level is significantly different among the primary and middle school students. Similarly, the positive responses of primary and high school students are significantly different from each other. Moreover, the positive responses of middle and high school students are significantly different from each other. Thus, the results show that the emotional intelligence level is higher in girls than in boys. The emotional intelligence level also varies as per the schooling level of students. The emotional intelligence level is low among primary school students and is moderate among middle and high school students.

Teachers: The results attest a relatively higher level of EI among the middle and high school teachers than the primary ones. In terms of gender, female teachers registered higher EI than male teachers.

Parents: A similar trend was observed among parents, with males scoring higher EI than their female counterparts; educated parents outperformed uneducated parents.

3.2 Self-Efficacy:

3.2.1 Generalizations of the results (Students)

The tabular summarization (table 2) and graphical representation (fig. 1) of confidence level shown by students are as under.

Table 2. Mean confidence level shown by students

Description	Primary School	Middle School	High School	Overall Mean
Boys	30	50	50	40
Girls	40	60	70	60

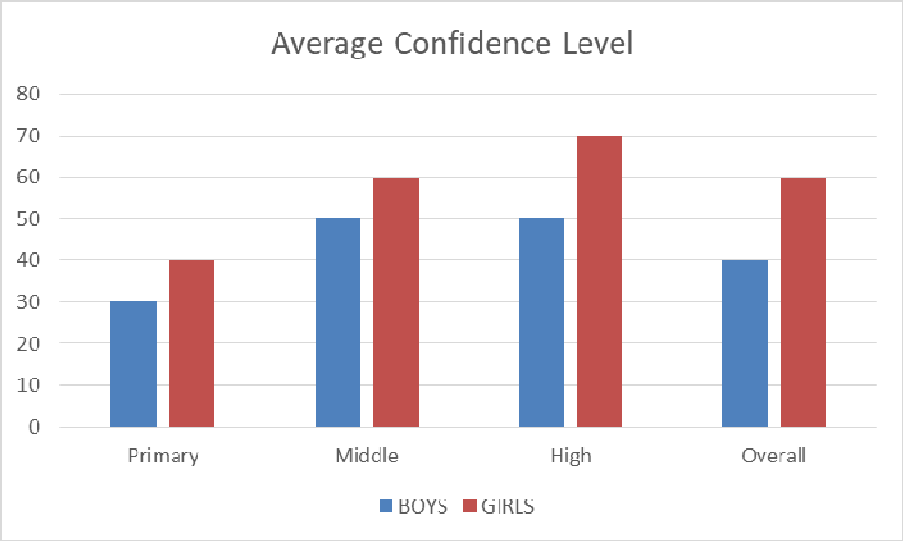

Fig. 1. Graphical representation of mean confidence level shown by students

From the above table and graph, it is clearly evident that the mean confidence level shown by girls is higher than boys. It is also evident that the mean confidence level shown by middle and high school students is higher than primary school students. Further, the mean confidence level of boys and girls are 'Low Level' and 'Moderate Level' respectively.

Table 3. Standard Deviation in the confidence level shown by students

Description	**Primary School**	**Middle School**	**High School**	**Overall Mean**
Boys	9.88	18.92	18.58	19.14
Girls	19.02	11.94	14.44	18.90

The above table 3 shows that the overall deviation in the mean response of boys and girls is the same. There is higher dispersion in the mean responses of primary school girls as compared to primary school boys.

Table 4. Skewness in the confidence level shown by students

Description	Primary School	Middle School	High School	Overall Mean
Boys	0.04	0.55	0.65	0.74
Girls	0.15	1.15	0.85	0.37

The above table 4 shows that the distribution of responses given by boys and girls students is asymmetrical and negatively skewed. Middle and high school girls' responses are positively skewed, which means that the majority of the individual responses given by middle and high school girls is above the overall mean response given by girls, i.e. above 'Low Level'.

Table 5. Kurtosis in the confidence level shown by students

Description	Primary School	Middle School	High School	Overall Mean
Boys	1.03	1.03	0.84	0.74
Girls	1.25	1.19	0.21	0.59

The above table shows that the distribution of responses of both boys and girls are Platykurtic distribution.

3.2.2 Generalizations of the results (Teachers)

The tabular summarization (table 6) and graphical representation (fig. 7) of confidence level shown by teachers are as under:

Table 6. Descriptive statistics of responses given by teachers

Description	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Primary School teacher	50	20	-0.93248	-0.22
Middle School teacher	70	10	0.729018	-0.54
High School teacher	70	20	0.420274	-1.09
Less than 5yrs experience	70	10	0.989863	0.53
5yrs or more experience	90	10	-1.05651	0.55

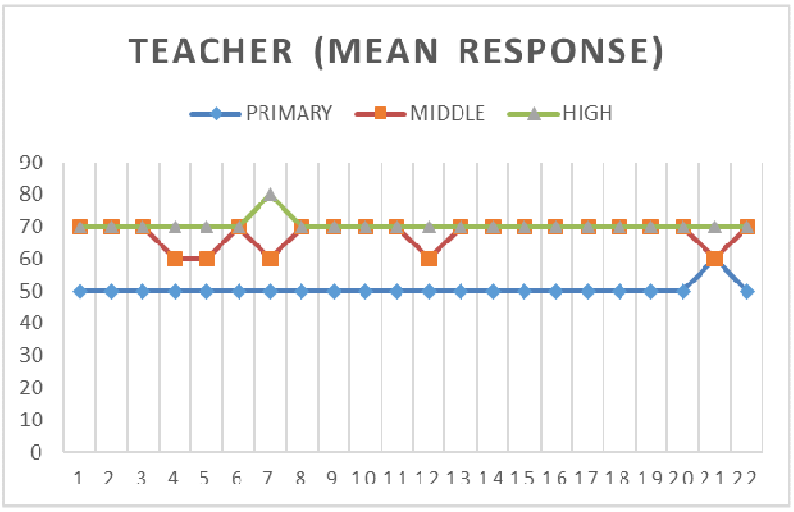

Fig. 2. Graphical representation of mean confidence shown by teachers (level-wise)

From the table 6 and fig. 2 it is clearly evident that the mean confidence level shown by middle &high school teachers is higher than primary school teachers.

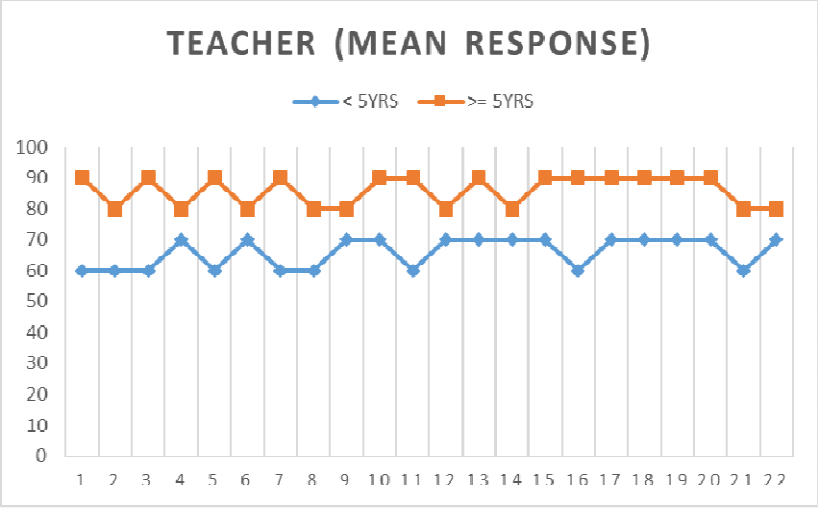

Fig. 3. Mean confidence level of teachers (teaching experience-wise)

It is also evident from the above graph that the mean confidence level shown by more experienced teachers (>=5yrs experience) is higher than lower experienced teachers (< 5yrs). Further, the mean confidence level of more experienced and less experienced teachers are 'Moderate Level' and 'High Level' respectively.

The distribution of responses given by teachers is moderately negatively Skewed and Platykurtic.

3.2.3 Generalization of results (Parents)

The tabular summarization (table 7) and graphical representation (fig. 4) of confidence level shown by parents are as under:

Table 7. Descriptive statistics of responses given by parents

Description	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Males	80	10	-1.001	0.12
Females	50	20	-0.187	-0.3
Educated Parents	80	10	-0.953	0.07
Uneducated Parents	50	20	-0.156	-0.4

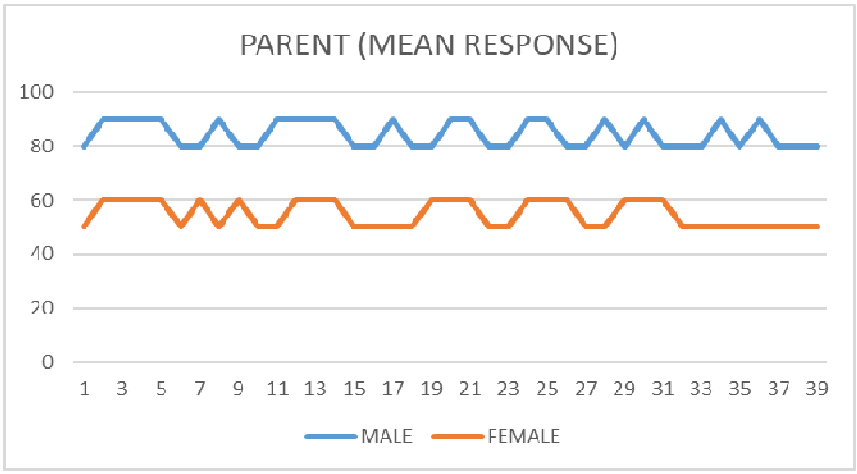

Fig. 4. Graphical representation of mean confidence level shown by parents

Table 7 and Figure 4 show that males have a higher mean confidence level than females.

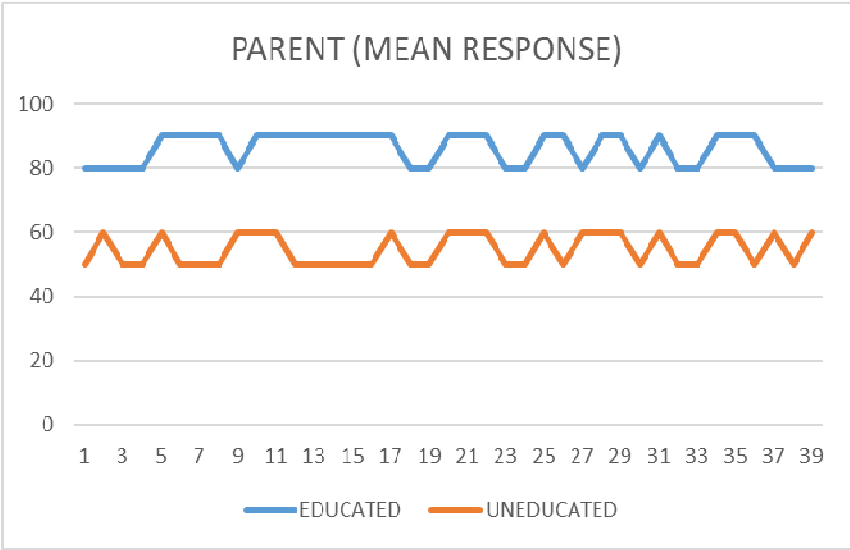

Fig. 5. Mean confidence level shown by parents (Education-wise)

It is also evident from fig. 5 that the mean confidence level shown by educated parents is higher than uneducated parents. Further, the mean confidence levels of educated and uneducated parents are 'High level' and 'Low level' respectively.

The distribution of responses given by parents is moderately negatively Skewed and Platykurtic.

3.3 Statistical analysis of the data

a. Student responses on the basis of gender

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence level of male and female students is same

Alternate hypothesis: The mean positive response of male and female students is significantly different from each other

Test Results: The test results of 'ANOVA' are as under:

Table 8. Mean confidence level of male and female students

ANOVA: Single Factor						
Groups	**Count**	**Sum**	**Average**	**Variance**		
Male	46	1840	40	0		
Female	46	2750	59.782	2.173		
ANOVA						
Source of variation	***SS***	***df***	***MS***	***F***	***P-value***	***F-crit.***
Between groups	9001.087	1	9001.087	8281	2.20E-90	3.946
Within group	97.826	90	1.086			
Total	9098.913	91				

Because the 'p-Value', 2.20E-90 (0), is less than 0.05 and the F Value (i.e. 8281) is greater than the F Crit. (i.e. 3.94), it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of male and female students is significantly different from each other, i.e. the confidence level is significantly different among male and female students.

b. On the basis of schooling

Male students

Test no. 1

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary, middle and high school male students is same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary, middle and high school boys is significantly different from each other

Test Results: The test results of 'ANOVA' are as under:

Table 9. Mean confidence level of primary, middle and high school male students

ANOVA: Single Factor						
Groups	**Count**	**Sum**	**Average**	**Variance**		
Primary	46	1200	26.086	24.347		
Middle	46	2240	48.695	11.594		
High	46	2280	49.565	8.695		
ANOVA						
Source of variation	***SS***	***df***	***MS***	***F***	***P-value***	***F-crit.***
Between groups	16301.45	2	8150.725	547.7922	1.64062E-65	3.063
Within group	2008.696	135	14.879			
Total	18310.14	137				

The 'p-Value' i.e. 1.64062E-65 (~ 0) is less than 0.05 and the F Value (i.e. 547.79) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.063). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of primary, middle and high school boys are significantly different from each other. It means the confidence level is significantly different among primary, middle and high school boys. Similarly, the other test results are shown below.

Test no. 2

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary and middle school male students is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary and middle school boys is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 4.6345E-43 (~ 0) is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 654.19) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.946). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence levels of primary and middle school boys are significantly different from each other.

Test no. 3

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary and high school boys is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary and high school boys is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 786174E-46 (~ 0) is less than 0.05 and the F Value (i.e. 767.36) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.946). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence levels of primary and high school boys are significantly different from each other.

Test no. 4

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence level of middle and high school boys is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence level of middle and high school boys is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 0.193 is more than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 1.71) is less than F crit. (i.e. 3.946). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of middle and high school boys are not significantly different from each other.

3.4 Female students

Test no. 5

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary, middle and high school female students is same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary, middle and high school girls is significantly different from each other

Test Results: The test results of 'ANOVA' are as under:

Table 10. Mean confidence level of primary, middle and high school female students

ANOVA: Single Factor						
Groups (Girls)	**Count**	**Sum**	**Average**	**Variance**		
Primary	46	1930	41.956	16.086		
Middle	46	3010	65.434	25.362		
High	46	3090	67.173	20.724		
ANOVA						
Source of variation	***SS***	***df***	***MS***	***F***	***P-value***	***F-crit.***
Between groups	18249.28	2	9124.63	440.279	6.99711E-60	3.063
Within group	2797.826	135	20.724			
Total	21047.1	137				

The 'p-Value' i.e. 6.99711E-60 (~ 0) is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 440.27) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.063). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of primary, middle and high school girls are significantly different from each other.

Test no. 6

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary and middle school girls is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary and middle school girls is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 6.53849E-42 (~ 0) is less than 0.05 and the F Value (i.e. 611.74) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.946). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of primary and middle school female students is significantly different from each other.

Test no. 7

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary and high school girls is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence level of primary and high school girls is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 1.91721E-46 (~ 0) is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 794.64) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.946). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of primary and high school girls is significantly different from each other.

Test no. 8

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence level of middle and high school girls is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence level of middle and high school girls is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 0.085 is more than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 3.01) is less than F crit. (i.e. 3.946). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of middle and high school girls are not significantly different from each other.

3.5 Teachers

Schooling-wise

Test no.1

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by primary, middle and high school teachers is same

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by primary, middle and high school teachers is significantly different from each other.

Test Results: The test results of 'ANOVA' are as under:

Table 11. Mean confidence shown by primary, middle and high school teachers

ANOVA: Single Factor						
Groups	**Count**	**Sum**	**Average**	**Variance**		
Primary	22	1110	50.454	4.545		
Middle	22	1490	67.727	18.398		
High	22	1550	70.454	4.545		
ANOVA						
Source of variation	***SS***	***df***	***MS***	***F***	***P-value***	***F-crit.***
Between groups	5175.758	2	2587.87	282.425	3.52E-32	3.142
Within group	577.272	63	9.163			
Total	5753.03	65				

The 'p-Value' i.e. 3.52E-46 (~ 0) is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 282.42) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.142). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of primary, middle and high school teachers are significantly different from each other.

Test no.2

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by primary and middle school teachers is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by primary and middle school teachers is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 2.34E-46 (~ 0) is less than 0.05 and the F-Value (i.e. 286.07) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 4.072). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of primary and middle school teachers is significantly different from each other.

Test no.3

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by primary and high school teachers is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by primary and high school teachers is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 3.97E-46 (~ 0) is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 124.27) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 4.072). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of primary and high school teachers is significantly different from each other.

Test no.4

The mean level of confidence displayed by middle and high school teachers is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by middle and high school teachers is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 0.010 is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 7.13) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 4.072). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of middle and high school teachers are significantly different from each other.

Experience-wise analysis

Test no.5

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by more and less experienced teachers is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by more and less experienced teachers is significantly different from each other.

Test Results: The test results of 'ANOVA' are as under:

Table 12. Mean confidence shown by more and less experienced teachers

ANOVA: Single Factor						
Groups	**Count**	**Sum**	**Average**	**Variance**		
< 5 Years	22	1450	65.909	25.324		
>= 5 Years	22	1890	85.909	25.324		
ANOVA						
Source of variation	***SS***	***df***	***MS***	***F***	***P-value***	***F-crit.***
Between groups	4400	1	4400	173.74	1.61E-16	4.072
Within group	1063.63	42	25.324			
Total	5463.63	43				

The 'p-Value' i.e. 1.61E-16 (~0) is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 173.74) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 4.072). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level of high and low experienced school teachers is significantly different from each other.

3.6 Analysis of responses given by parents:

Gender-wise

Test no.1

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by male and female parents is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by males and females is significantly different from each other.

Test results: The test results of 'ANOVA' are as under:

Table 13. Mean confidence shown by male and female parents

ANOVA: Single Factor						
Groups	**Count**	**Sum**	**Average**	**Variance**		
Male	38	3210	84.473	25.391		
Female	38	2070	54.473	25.391		
ANOVA						
Source of variation	***SS***	***df***	***MS***	***F***	***P-value***	***F-crit.***
Between groups	17100	1	17100	673.462	6.71E-39	3.970
Within group	1878.94	74	25.3911			
Total	18978.95	75				

The 'p-Value' i.e. 6.71E-16 (~0) is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 673.46) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.970). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level shown by males and females are significantly different from each other.

3.7 Educational status-wise analysis:

Test no. 2

Null hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by educated and uneducated parents is the same.

Alternate hypothesis: The mean confidence shown by educated and uneducated parents is significantly different from each other.

ANOVA Results: The 'p-Value' i.e. 6.06E-40 (~0) is less than 0.05 and F Value (i.e. 723.57) is greater than F crit. (i.e. 3.970). Hence, it can be concluded that the mean confidence level shown by educated and uneducated parents are significantly different from each other.

4. Discussion & Conclusion

It is clear from the studies that teachers have the potential to impact students' learning outcomes and bring in significant differences in the students' achievement, provided they have the necessary skills as well as qualities required to be inculcated for their professional needs (Anderson, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 2000). Teachers' effectiveness determines students' involvement, which is considered to be more important than the curriculum and the study materials, and their effectiveness depends on their belief in their self-efficacy to deal effectively with the obvious and unobvious learning situations during the teaching/learning process. Teachers' emotional intelligence and self-efficacy are positively correlated (Penrose et al. 2007). A positive relationship was observed between SE & EI in the context of Australia, but other factors such as age, gender, years of teaching experience and current status did not register any significant impact on the relationship (Penrose et al. 2007). On the contrary, the results of the present study do reflect age, years of experience, and gender of teachers; educational level and gender among the parents; and educational level of schooling and gender among the students play a significant role in determining the relationship between EI & SE.

Male parents reflect higher self-efficacy than female parents on all the dimensions; a similar trend has been observed in the educational qualification of parents. Female uneducated parents indicate a moderate level of self-efficacy which is attributed to the socio-cultural environment of Saudi society as most of the decisions regarding family affairs are taken by the male parents. Self-efficacy to influence the school system and school resources were returned relatively lower than the other dimensions because the school system is moderated by a set principles and framework and the parents have

very little scope of intervention to impact directly on that. In leisure time activities, dance and music and other forms of performing arts are discouraged due to the strict Islamic principles that are followed in all spheres of life. EI, too, has been observed to be higher educated among male parents than female ones, which reflects a direct correlation between EI & SE among the parents.

Among the teachers, primary and middle school teachers do register a lower level of self-efficacy and EI than high school teachers. This is consistent with the finding of other studies, wherein the post graduate teachers do reflect higher self-efficacy than the graduate/trained teachers of the primary and middle schools (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2002; Imants & De Brabander, 1996). Effective and extensive training programs need to be conducted to enhance the skills of teachers who are less experienced, irrespective of the levels they teach; teachers with more than five years' experience reflect better self-efficacy than those with less than five years of teaching experience. This is in line with the findings suggested as a significant factor for normal school teachers (Amirian & Behshad, 2016). It has been well established that self-efficacy can influence learning outcomes significantly, but the factors, except the training programs, that can influence teachers' self-efficacy are yet to be explored in detail (Fives, 2003). Saudi Arabia has witnessed dramatic reforms in recent years (Alnahdi, 2014); initially it was reserved for wealthy families, but it has become available to all in society (Alharbi & Madhesh, 2018). Education for gifted learners was not a part of the main educational system as their educational burden was left to their parents (Alquraini, 2011).

Special Education Policy in Saudi Arabia (2016) has specified the guidelines and the tasks for educators, workers and the instructors involved in special education; it has also specified the interventions and the activities needed to be followed by the teachers. However, the job training programs to be imparted to teachers need regular reforms in the light of the latest research and the skills identified for better learning outcomes. Regarding EI, male teachers and parents are found to have higher than female teachers across the educational levels and female parents as well. This is consistent with the findings of Ghani and Zain (2014), who conducted their research in Malaysia. The findings of this study, however, contradict the findings of previous studies that found female teachers to be more stable than male teachers (Noriah et al., 2000; Noriah & Rahayah, 2005).It is noticeable that most of the studies focus on the teachers and students, but parents have mostly been neglected who play a significant role in the special educational process, especially in Saudi Arabia where special children are mostly treated as family responsibilities, and the schools have very limited roles (Aldabas, 2015). Special training programs specially directed to the parents, especially the female parents, are not very common in the Saudi context. Residents of the relatively bigger and metropolitan cities have awareness and access to proper training, but the small town people still have very limited access due to cultural as well as infrastructural constraints. Teachers in primary, middle and high school show differences in their level of EI, i.e. high school teachers show significantly better EI than primary and middle school teachers; though no significant differences were observed between the primary and middle school teachers. This does not support the findings of Ghani & Zain (2014) which registered no significant differences in EI based on educational qualification and teaching experience.

The ANOVA test (single factor) and graphical representation shows that the confidence level in girls is higher than in boys. The confidence level also varies as per the level of schooling, i.e. middle and high school students show higher confidence level than primary school students. The overall level of confidence among the students is not satisfactory. The average level of confidence among boys is low, and among girls it is moderate. The above ANOVA test (single factor) and graphical representation shows that the confidence level of middle and high school teachers is higher than of primary school teachers. The confidence level also varies as per the level of experience, i.e. teachers with more than 5 years' experience show a higher confidence level than teachers with less than 5 years' experience. The above ANOVA test (single factor) and graphical representation shows that the confidence level in male parents is higher than in female parents. The confidence level also varies as per

the education status of parents, i.e. educated parents showed higher confidence level than uneducated parents.

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