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COMPONENTS AND PROCESS OF IDENTITY FORMATION IN MODEL OF THE AUTHORSHIP OF OWN LIVES IN PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

Abstract: The subject of this article consistently develops the authorship of own lives in people with disabilities concept. With reference to the strategic framework (contextualism and systemness in particular), it constructs an AOL-PwD model. The model presents identity as a constitutive area in understanding the authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities. The AOL-PwD model is composed of three interrelated elements: (1) authorship aspects, (2) identity components, and (3) process links. The article proposes important theses that chart direction for research. It suggests that identity is a fundamental category in exploring the AOL-PwD. The authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities is a dynamic category. As a result of AOL-PwD formation, the individual achieves a given authorship status: achieved, foreclosed, diffused, or moratorium status. The identity status achieved determines the way people with disabilities perceive their authorship life aspects. Developmental dynamics and specific identity and life authorship statuses being acquired suggest that it is necessary to redefine these areas of people's functioning on a regular basis. We believe that a consistent implementation of the concept will provide an inspiring theoretical and empirical space for multidimensional explorations of the phenomenon of disability in light of normalization, humanities, and affirmation. The article also charts direction for further research, which will include, among others, qualitative research to verify the AOL-PwD model, then measurement tools will be developed, and a comprehensive assessment of people with different disabilities identifying AOL-PwD determinants will be conducted.

Keywords: authorship of own lives in people with disabilities, personal identity, social identity, normalization, social belonging, integration

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IDENTITY AT THE ROOTS OF THE CONTEXTS OF THE MEANING OF THE AUTHORSHIP OF OWN LIVES IN PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES AND ITS ASPECTS

The *life authorship* concept penetrates into these areas that form the mental resources of people with disabilities, at the same time becoming an important condition for their empowerment in the process of life normalization. Normalization is a set of principles based on a fundamental value, namely: all human beings are special and precious, each person constantly changes and develops (Bronston, 1976, 465). Normalization emphasizes the value of integrating people with disabilities into society, supporting their development from birth through late adulthood, and providing conditions that enable them to perform social roles as well as appropriate quality of their lives that leads to life satisfaction. It could be said that normalization is an objective and a process in which people with disabilities exercise their right to create their own fate - to author their own lives within their abilities (Głodkowska 2014a). This thesis gave rise to the development of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* concept (AOL-PwD). So far, it has been conceptualized: a theoretical construct was developed, contexts of meaning were identified, a definition was formulated, research procedures were designed, and a strategic framework for research on the AOL-PwD was established (Głodkowska, 2015; Głodkowska and Gosk 2018; Głodkowska, Gosk and Pałowska 2018).

To start with, we will briefly outline selected findings made so far. The *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* concept results from the merging of various ideas and theories in psychology, pedagogy, sociology, and philosophy. The AOL-PwD is described with five aspects: eudaimonistic, personalistic, functional, temporal, and aid. Each aspect can be interpreted with reference to relevant theories. Preliminary exemplifications proved it was reasonable to present these aspects in light of the following theories: wellbeing, personalism, optimal functioning, developmental tasks, and social support (Głodkowska 2015). The *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* concept was defined as a multidimensional construct that identifies: (1) subjective experiences, (2) personal resources/wellbeing, (3) independence/autonomy,

(4) satisfactory performance of developmental tasks, and (5) effective use of social support (Głodkowska and Gosk 2018).

The previous papers emphasized that the AOL-PwD concept forms part of a trend that creates a positive and agentic image of people with disabilities in society. In view of further studies, the need to operationalize the concept, design measurement tools, and conduct extensive surveys and comparative research was indicated (Głodkowska and Gosk 2018). This idea gave direction to establishing a strategic framework for research on the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* (Głodkowska, Gosk and Pałowska 2018). The framework stresses that the AOL-PwD concept corresponds to the humanistic approach to the exploration of the phenomenon of disability, which emphasizes human subjectivity, agency, wellbeing, independence, and developmental satisfaction. The strategic framework for AOL-PwD research points to: (1) universalism, (2) affirmation, (3) interdisciplinarity, (4) comprehensiveness, (5) adaptation, (6) subjectivism, (7) objectivism, (8) participation, (9) individualism, (10) pragmatism, (11) contextuality, and (12) systemness. The authors assumed that a consistent implementation of the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* concept would create an inspiring theoretical and empirical space and foster valuable dialogue between various fields and theories, and also between assessment and rehabilitation theory and practice.

The subject of this article consistently develops the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities* concept. It refers to the AOL-PwD research strategy framework mentioned above - to the systemic and contextual approaches in particular (Głodkowska, Gosk, and Pałowska 2018). The systemic assumption emphasizes that the AOL-PwD areas form a peculiar unique and individual system of inner properties and personal connections as well as external social relationships. This system testifies to the unique and dynamic way a specific person and the environment perceive his or her life in answers to the following questions: (1) How does the person experience subjectivity?, (2) What is the person's sense of his or her own personal resources?, (3) To what degree is the person

independent and can make decisions about his or her life?, (4) Does the person perform developmental tasks with satisfaction?, (5) To what degree can the person use social support efficiently (Głodkowska and Gosk 2018)? It should be pointed out that each of these questions refers directly to the person's sense of self, and thus - to his or her identity. This awareness of self and one's life, abilities, and limitations is determined by both each person's individual uniqueness and by his or her sense of separateness from holding a specific place in the social world. This statement leads to the other strategic assumption for AOL-PwD research mentioned above, that is, contextuality. This assumption points to the multiple connections between various determinants of the person's life that occur in his or her environment. They can strengthen, but also weaken, a sense of subjectivity, agency, independence, or a sense of having personal resources. Shogren (2013) points out that the research perspective - and the social perspective as well - require that the interrelated contextual factors be taken into account in the conceptualization of disability, diagnosis, and classification. As an integrative construct, context constitutes a certain framework for describing, analysing, and interpreting various aspects of human functioning - both personal and environmental ones. Consequently, it allows giving recommendations for planning, implementing, and improving aid programs and social policy oriented at people with disabilities. Also, the contextual exploration of *life authorship* determinants corresponds to the principles of *Disability Studies*, in which researchers clearly stress the diagnostic and rehabilitative value of social, cultural, political, and economic living conditions of people with disabilities (e.g.: Campbell and Oliver, 2013; Swain, French, Barnes, and Thomas 2013).

Citing the arguments given above in this article, we want to emphasize that each of the AOL-PwD aspects is built into the person's psychological foundation, that is, into human identity. Identity is expressed in self-awareness, in being aware of one's resources, independence, and subjectivity, in the feeling that one develops and receives support as well as in being aware of one's place in the social world. It can, therefore, be assumed that human identity is a fundamental

category in interpreting *life authorship* as a general category and its individual aspects (eudaimonistic, functional, personalistic, temporal, and aid).

DEFINITION, IDENTITY FORMATION COMPONENTS AND PROCESS IN SELECTED CONCEPTS

Identity is a theoretical construct determined by a person's sense of personal uniqueness, separateness, and individuality in the social environment. Identity characteristics make it possible to distinguish, recognize, and identify a person, who can answer at least basic questions: Who am I?, What am I like?, What is my place and possibilities of life in the social environment? Psychologists study personal sources of identity formation, sociologists search for determinants in the social environment, and educators focus on methods for shaping identity. Research describes and defines identity, distinguishes its dimensions, creates models, and investigates the identity formation process. Researchers look for answers to the identity question: "Who am I?" (identity contents), probe into psychological and social processes related to the interpretation of these answers (identity processes), and explore connections between personal and social consequences of the contents and processes found. Authors point out that identity is defined with different terms - often with divergent meanings. They mention unitary identity and multiple identities, discovered and constructed identity, stable and fluid identity, and also personal and social identity (Vignoles, Schwartz, and Luyckx 2011).

Many contemporary human identity theories originate from Erik Erikson's concept (1950, 1980, 2002). He was the first to use the term *ego identity*, thus giving identity a kind of subjective sense of self. The researcher suggested that a successfully formed identity is linked to the person's psychological wellbeing. He presented identity as a set of beliefs about oneself and the world around that is characterized by perceiving oneself in terms of sameness, separateness, integrity, and continuity despite the passage of time. Erikson (1997, 257) emphasized the special role of the first stage of the child's life in identity formation. Then "consistency, continuity, and sameness of experience provide a rudimentary sense of ego identity (...)." He also pointed out that the peak of

identity development is during adolescence, when, by successfully resolving identity crisis, teenagers gain a new virtue, that is, fidelity as stable identity, bonds, and relationships. Fidelity enables adolescents to behave coherently in various situations and take up age-appropriate tasks, following a certain consistent lifestyle. At the same time, Erikson did not consider identity to be a closed inner system resistant to changes but rather a psychosocial process that retains certain important personal and social characteristics (Erikson, 1964). The author shows this process of identity development in three stages: an unclear sense of self (*diffusion*), identification with role models (*totality*), and an integrated self-determination (*wholeness*).

Research results from the beginning of the 21st century that refer to Erikson's findings concerning identity development during adolescence suggest there exists a phenomenon of delayed adulthood. The phenomenon is connected with approval for taking up various activities without any commitments (without integrated self-determination) or the need to make choices typical of adulthood. As a result of intense sociocultural changes and the multitude of offers and information, young people prolong their transition to adulthood and postpone taking on adult roles (Fadjukoff, 2007; Fadjukoff, Kokko, and Pulkkinen, 2007; Fadjukoff, Pulkkinen, and Kokko, 2016). Research findings also show that identity formation in adolescents is linked to changes taking place in coping with commitments and not to changes in commitments themselves (Klimstra, Hale, Raaijmakers, Branje, and Meeus, 2010). These changes in the ways adolescents cope with their commitments relate to the intensive development during adolescence, which is promoted by an increasing sense of agency in young people. Also, the range of their practical skills expands and the following properties occur: pride in their abilities, ambition, motivation for achievements, striving for a favourable status in their peer group, comparing themselves with others increasingly, and competition.

Brzezińska (2006, 7) demonstrates, at each stage of our lives, our identity develops and so does our awareness that we are distinct individuals, that we are different from other people despite all similarities, that we are ourselves regardless of circumstances, that the passage of time does not

efface the things in us thanks to which we recognize ourselves. It is human identity that determines the person's place in the social world, among other people, and on the other hand - gives him or her a sense of personal uniqueness and specialness (Brzezińska 2006, 8). The person's identity from his or her personal perspective can be described by pointing out four concepts: a sense of separateness, a sense of sameness, a sense of continuity, and a sense of integrity (Brzezińska 2006). It is examined within three areas: personal identity, social identity, and cultural identity. Identity develops throughout the lifespan, but childhood and adolescence are the most important stages. All experiences collected in childhood are resources that provide the basis for identity formation. In adolescence, identity formation is a fundamental developmental task (Brzezińska, 2006, 16). From the beginning of the person's life, identity development proceeds simultaneously in a specific temporal context (past, presence, and future) and in a sociocultural context (relationships and interactions, groups, organizations, and communities in which the individual participates at a given time of life).

Meeus and colleagues (2010) point to the concept of identity statuses developed by Marcia (1966, 1980) as one of the most important concepts - analysed in depth theoretically and used in empirical studies. It is worth stressing that the author significantly specified the concept, operationalized important aspects of identity, and thus showed research opportunities. Marcia (1966) developed the theory of identity statuses in the 1960s and 1970s. He distinguished two stages in the identity formation process: (1) exploration and (2) commitment. This way he ascribed an important characteristic to understanding identity, that is, developmental dynamics. The first stage refers mainly to early adolescence (10/12 - 15/16 years of age). In the second developmental phase (16/17-18/20), young people take on commitments.

At the exploration stage, young people experiment with various roles, get involved in different activities, and participate in various social groups. This is a way to define oneself, build knowledge of oneself, of one's abilities and limitations. Exploration is an orienting and cognitive activity which focuses on investigating, or learning about the environment and its

properties as well as experimenting in and with it, taking on various social roles, and getting to know new ways of thinking and lifestyles. These activities consist in actively testing, assessing, searching, making decisions, and changing them. During childhood, children learn about their reality with all their senses - they explore physical space, the world of objects and people. In adolescence, it is not the world of objects that is the main area of exploration any longer but the person himself or herself and the people around the person. These are mainly significant others the person has close emotional relationships with, who meet his or her security needs, consent to/accept the person's sometimes risky (exploratory) activities, and are an authority for the person, that is, parents, teachers, and peers (Brzezińska 2006). The developmental effect of exploration oriented at physical objects, people, and oneself consists in gaining knowledge that serves to expand and modify the image of the world and the self-formed earlier in life and in transforming the I-others relationship from "child dependence" to "adult interdependence" (Brzezińska 2006, 18). It is worth noting, which Brzezińska (2006) emphasizes, that limited exploration results in a small store of individual experiences. On the other hand, excessively extensive exploration may provoke chaos and confusion.

At the next stage of identity formation, young people take on commitments, including, among others, making choices according to their needs and aspirations in life - guided by their preferred values. A sense of continuity, purpose, cohesion, and agency are expressed in commitments. It is a time when young people need to cope with significant others' expectations and accept responsibility for their behaviours and decisions. As long as they have engaged in exploratory behaviours before, adolescents make choices following their needs, aspirations, and plans, they shape their world views. Commitments give a sense of continuity, build life goals, and what is most important - develop the ability to remain faithful to choices made (Marcia, 1966).

Marcia (1966, 551-558) pondered on "individual styles of coping" with identity formation tasks. He thus distinguished four identity statuses: (1) *identity achievement* - when the person has successfully gone through the exploration and commitment stages, (2) *identity*

diffusion - when the person has not gone through the two stages of identity formation successfully, (3) *foreclosure* - when the person experiences significantly limited opportunities to explore the environment (e.g., due to parents' excessive control and directiveness) and at the same time is under strong pressure related to making commitments and decisions important for the future, and (4) *moratorium* - when the person has had opportunity for excessive exploration in the environment (parents, teachers, peers) and at the same time making commitments and decisions has not been stressed enough. As a result of his empirical analyses, Marcia (1966, 558) defined the identity statuses as "individual styles of coping with the psychosocial task of forming an ego identity".

The division of the identity formation stages into exploration and commitment is not so clear-cut today as research - by Luyckx et al. (2006) among others - shows that both exploration and commitment are present not only in early and late adolescence but also in adulthood. It is difficult to set normative age ranges for each of the identity development cycles. That is why Luyckx and colleagues proposed a *dual-cycle model of identity formation* (Luyckx, Goossens, and Soenens 2006; Luyckx, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Goossens, and Berzonsky 2007; Luyckx, Teppers, Klimstra, and Rassart 2014). According to this complex model, identity is a construction composed of five dimensions: (1) *exploration in breadth*, or looking for alternatives with reference to one's values, goals, and beliefs before making a choice; (2) *commitment making*, or making choices and commitments that are important for identity development; (3) *exploration in depth*, or evaluating current choices in detail; (4) *identification with commitment*, or identifying oneself with those choices with a feeling of certainty that they are good for the person; and (5) *ruminative exploration*, which relates to fears, anxieties, and doubts and to reflecting on negative experiences (Crocetti, Rubini, Luyckx, and Meeus, 2008; Meeus, Iedema, Helsen, and Vollebergh 1999; Meeus, Iedema, and Maassen, 2002; Crocetti, Rubini, and Meeus 2008; Luyckx, Goossens, Soenens, and Beyers 2006). Each of these dimensions is composed of two cycles: a commitment formation cycle and a commitment evaluation cycle. The dynamic interaction between

the two cycles stimulates the identity formation process and thus defines six identity statuses: achievement, foreclosure, moratorium, carefree diffusion, diffused diffusion, and undifferentiated cluster (Klimstra, Hale, Raaijmakers, Branje and Meeus 2010). The concept by Luyckx and colleagues (2006) significantly extends the classical theory by Marcia, making identity more complex and dynamic.

Approaching identity from a developmental point of view, researchers noticed that the personal identity formation process does not end in adolescence but can last as long as until 30 years of age. Following this trend, Stephen, Fraser, and Marcia (1992) proposed modification to the classical model of identity formation and distinguished repeated *MAMA cycles: Moratorium – Achievement – Moratorium – Achievement*. Research showed that identity status in adulthood can change in response to changes in the external environment (Marcia 2002). Kroger (2015) takes a similar position and stresses that identity is not a static property as the individual's life circumstances and changes in his or her biological and psychological needs become a spur for changes in the person's identification and separateness. At the same time, a developed human identity needs to be plastic and open as initial identity commitments change with time and the person experiences the need to manage new and changing tasks in life (Côté and Levine 2015; Schwartz, Côté and Arnett 2005; Côté 2006; das Dores Guerreiro and Abrantes 2004).

It should also be noted that numerous researchers clearly perceive two types of identity: personal identity and social identity (among others: Albarello, Crocetti and Rubini 2018; Vignoles 2017; Turner and Onorato 1999). Personal identity (also called individual identity) relates to the formation of the self and is expressed in perceiving and experiencing oneself as a unique individual and in identifying oneself with one's personal goals, aspirations, and values. Social identity relates to the formation of the “we” category and is expressed in identifying oneself with the social environment and adopting collective goals, values, and conduct as one's own. Researchers note that conflict and balance between these types of identity become an important basis for human identity development processes. Interesting conclusions were reached by Albarello, Crocetti,

and Rubini (2018), who analyzed personal and social identity in adolescents in a longitudinal study. The authors found, among others, that personal and social identity processes are interrelated and most cross-lagged effects show that young people's social identity significantly influences personal identity formation. Giddens's (1991, 53) words can be a valuable summary of deliberations on identity: “Self-identity is not a set of traits or observable characteristics. It is a person's own reflexive understanding of their biography.” The theories presented above focus on and analyse the categories of processes important for human identity formation. At the same time, they provide valuable inspirations for examining the issue of identity in people with disabilities.

IDENTITY AND ITS DEVELOPMENT WITH DISABILITY

Since the 1990s, there has been extensive research on identity among people with disabilities (among others: Gill 1997; Hahn and Belt 2004; Darling 2003; Putnam 2005; Whitney 2006; Valeras 2010; Shakespeare 1996; Watson 2002; Hughes, Russel and Paterson 2005; Murugami 2009; Galvin 2003; Galvin 2005). Murugami (2006) presented a few conclusions based on those studies. The author pointed out that (1) identity in people with disabilities is structured on social experience shared with nondisabled people; (2) it is possible to distinguish and define specific identities of people with disabilities; and (3) the self as awareness of one's existence and oneself plays an important role in identity formation. She emphasized that to free people with disabilities from fixed, frequently stereotypical identities, their life realities - when they experience cultural and social prejudices - need to be understood.

It should be pointed out that in the current approaches to disability, the issue of identity becomes a distinct strand undertaken by psychologists, sociologists, philosophers, and educators. The social model of disability, which stresses the equal rights of all people, their right to make decisions, their agency, and full participation in social life, is the main reference. This model's principles clearly specify conditions for identity formation in people with disabilities (Oliver 2013; Degener 2016; Beckett and Campbell 2015). Also the affirmation model, which reveals the positive aspects of disability, should be mentioned. The

authors show that the affirmation of differences creates opportunities for good life for all - nondisabled and disabled people. They argue that people with disabilities not only need confirmation how they are different from nondisabled people, but they also expect recognition of their personal nature, acceptance of their lifestyle and quality of life, and respect for their identity (Swain and French 2000, 577). The affirmative model opposes the tragic model of disability, in which the person's limitations hinder autonomy and full participation in social life, thus disturbing the identity formation process (Swain and French 2000; French and Swain 2004).

The title of Watson's (2002, 519) article: "Well, I Know This Is Going to Sound Very Strange to You, but I Don't See Myself as a Disabled Person" sounds very evocative in the context of identity in people with disabilities. The author argues that the identity of people with disabilities can be achieved not by denying or putting disability aside but by reconstructing what is normal. People with disabilities have the right not to accept the social definition of normal and also have the right to perceive differences resulting from their disabilities as something normal for them. Such mental work on the social construction of disability takes places when the person acts consciously and questions the identity attributed to him or her by society. Watson adds that identity does not have to be defined in terms of differences, celebrating diversity or pride in identity labelled disability, but the point is to define disability in one's own individual terms - according to how one perceives oneself and his or her place in the world (Watson 2002, 521). Kidd and Teagle's (2001) position could be cited here; they argue that identity is both the condition of being a person and the process thanks to which we become a person and are formed as subjects. When a person negates perceiving himself or herself as disabled, the person has grounds to think of himself or herself as a person free from oppression and to build self-awareness as a free subject. As Murugami (2006) argues, people with disabilities are capable of forming a sense of self, or self-identity, instead of constructing it on disability while at the same time accepting their condition.

Worthy of note is the interesting concept by Gill (1997), who examines identity formation in people with disabilities from the point of view of

four types of integration. The author delineates them, capturing their essence with their names. She distinguishes the following types of integration: (1) *coming to feel we belong*, that is, integrating into society, (2) *coming home*, that is, integrating with the disability community, (3) *coming together*, that is, internal integration of the person with disability, and (4) *coming out*, that is, integrating our feelings with how we present ourselves in a given environment and circumstances. Gill (1997) points out that these types of integration are very important for the personal empowerment process in people with disabilities and their identity development. The *coming out* integration type, as Gill (1997, 45) argues, is often the last stage to achieving identity by people with disabilities. Everything starts with a desire to find one's place in society, among nondisabled peers, and at the same time - to emphasize oneself as a person with disability. There also exists a different way to develop a sense of identity - one that is determined by a desire to belong to the disability community, thanks to which efforts to respect the rights of people with disabilities can be reinforced. Unfortunately, all too frequently, the social environment poses obstacles to people with disabilities striving for an independent life and aims to fit them into social structures and requirements.

Foucault's (2000, 78) position could be cited here. He argues that for some time now, sociology - and ethnology to an even greater degree - have been turning toward an opposite phenomenon, toward what could be termed a negative structure of society: Who does society reject? What does the game of impossibilities consist in? What is the system of bans? This view clearly emphasizes the position of researchers who focus on showing the lives of people that are relegated to the margins, stigmatized, isolated, or excluded. None of these terms is fully clear-cut, but each points to the negative social status of the person who experiences this state. According to Foucault, disability becomes equivalent to social oppression, where governmental policy, state authorities, and institutions (including educational systems) are key factors in creating structures that oppress people with disabilities. This marginalization and social oppression are directly and, at the same time, negatively related to the process of identity formation in people with disabilities.

Foucault's (2000) views can also serve as a background for exploring sociological theories of belonging. These concepts show that distance leads to treating people with disabilities as strange, unknown, totally different others who are socially inefficient and whose functional impairments cause the fundamental existential conflict each person with disability is in (Speck 2005, 229). Numerous researchers underline that disability can be a factor that determines the development of identity and also a sense of social belonging (among others: Watson 2002; Riddell and Watson 2014; Forber-Pratt, Lyew, Mueller and Samples 2017; Gilson and DePoy 2015).

Theories of belonging explain that taking care of its stability, the social system is not interested in accepting people with disabilities but only in adapting them to existing conditions. In such circumstances, the subjectivity, autonomy, independence or self-determination of people with disabilities are not worth considering or are even contrary to the social interest (Speck 2005). Distance, rejection, isolation, or stigmatization are the actual social response. People with disabilities experience humiliation and disrespect from "normals." Describing this often drastic state, Goffman (2005, 41) talks about the formation of "spoiled identity" in people with disabilities and their stigma of embarrassing otherness. Stigmatization makes the person different, dissimilar as stigma management is a general feature of society, a process occurring wherever there are identity norms.

Hughes and colleagues (2005) argue that identity formation in people with disabilities is consistently activated as a result of social stigmatization of these people as strangers. Excluding processes limit opportunities for participation in various areas of social life and are also factors destructive to personal life. Research shows that young people with disabilities in particular are aware of identity changes that are frequently related to social exclusion and stereotypical image of people with disabilities as tragic figures (Murray 2002). Unfortunately, various limitations and determinants make it very difficult for people with disabilities to assume an identity other than that assigned to them because of their disabilities, impairments, or disorders.

It can be noted that there are few theoretical analyses or empirical reports looking at the issue

of personal identity formation in people with disabilities. Most frequently, analyses explore social identity and social phenomena relating to stigmatization and marginalization. And thus sociological studies investigate social consequences of being disabled and explain the mechanisms of self-determination and identity formation in people with disabilities in social situations (among others: Ostrowska, Sikorska, and Gąciarz 2001; Wiszejko-Wierzbicka 2008; Sikorska 2002; Gustavsson and Zakrzewska-Manterys 1997). Shakespeare (1996) believes that disability identity is an extremely complex phenomenon and the process of its formation is determined by at least three main aspects: a political aspect (disability activism), a cultural aspect (disability arts), and a personal aspect (self-understanding). The author emphasizes that people with disabilities go through a process during which they try to organize their lives in such a way as to be as ordinary as possible, that is, to retain everything that will let them function relatively normally in various areas of social life.

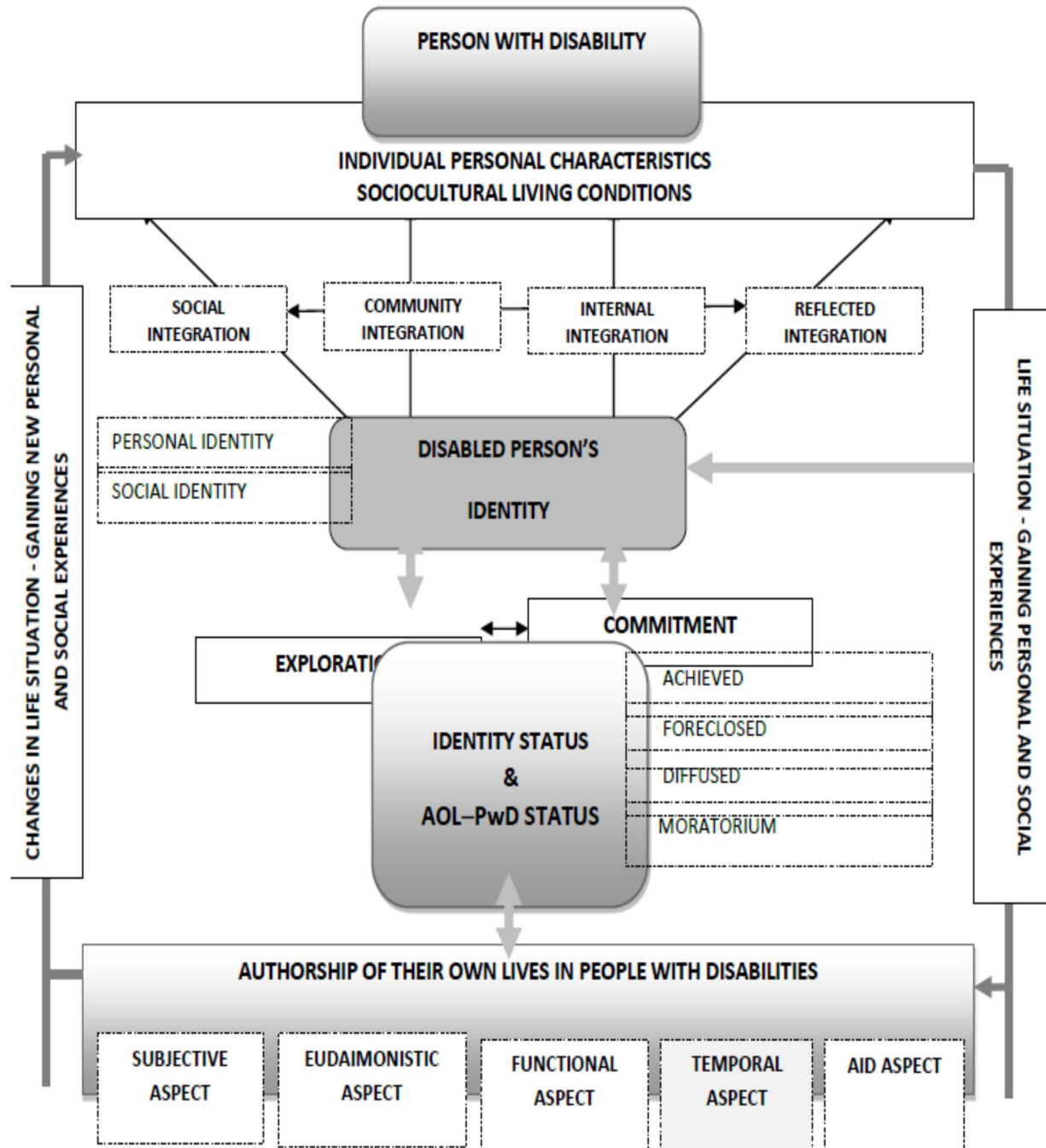
Putnam (2005) developed a framework for *political disability identity*, taking into account six aspects: (1) *self-worth*, (2) *pride*, (3) *discrimination*, (4) *common cause*, (5) *policy alternatives*, and (6) *engagement in political action*. Putnam expanded on these domains of political disability identity. For example, she defined "pride" as demanding that society perceive people with disabilities as individuals with physical or mental impairments who experience disability; accepting that disability is nothing unusual but rather a common human trait; recognizing that impairment is not inherently negative but can become negative in certain cultural, social, and physical environments; and recognizing these traits as promoting participation in cultural minority groups (Putnam 2005, 195). The author concludes that a sense of identity that reinforces people with disabilities results from their conscious actions in which they sometimes need to question their socially assigned identity. The analyses that have been made to date show that the authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities forms a special construct that delineates an individual and unique system of inner properties and personal connections as well as sociocultural contexts.

AUTHORSHIP OF OWN LIVES IN PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES: A MODEL DETERMINED BY IDENTITY

Identity appears as a fundamental category of the AOL-PwD and a central point of reference that points to individuality and uniqueness. Graphic presentation of this construct as a model outlines and specifies the comprehensive and systemic approach to this conceptual category (Diagram 1).

With reference to previous findings, we expect that the AOL-PwD model will delineate research activities. Three elements constitute the structural origins of the AOL-PwD model: (1) authorship aspects, (2) identity components, and (3) process links.

Diagram 1. Model of the authorship of own lives in people with disabilities



The identity of the person with disability, which is explained with identity components and process links, is a central category in the model presented. The AOL–PwD identity components are examined in two categories: personal (individual) identity and social identity. The personal identity component relates to the formation of the self, while the sociocultural one relates to the formation of the “we” category. The identity process links - in line with Gill's (1997) concept - relate to the different types of integration: social integration, community integration, internal integration, and reflected integration. According to this concept, they form the basis for identity formation in people with disabilities. At the same time, they are linked to the individual's personal characteristics and the sociocultural context of the individual's life situation.

With reference to Marcia's (1966, 1980, 2002) identity concept, we find it reasonable to take into consideration two identity formation processes - exploration and commitment. The course of these processes makes it possible to identify the identity status achieved by an individual (achieved, foreclosed, diffused, or moratorium) and the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* status as well.

We assume that the person's stage in the process of identity formation and his or her identity status determine the way the person defines his or her life authorship and perceives its authorship aspects. The model includes the five aspects of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities*: the personalistic aspect refers to subjectivity (authorship of one's life enables the person to say: *I know who I am*), the eudaimonistic aspect refers to personal resources (*I have potential*), the functional aspect refers to autonomy (*I am independent and self-reliant*), the temporal aspect - to developmental satisfaction (*I perform important tasks in various periods of my life*), and the aid aspect - to support (*I have a place in the social environment*) (Głodkowska 2015). The authorship aspects, identity components, and process links are interrelated. For example, developmental satisfaction as the AOL–PwD temporal aspect defines developmental task performance and identification with goals, aspirations, and age-specific personal values (personal component) as well as the performance of developmental tasks that are connected with

participation in various social groups and adopting collective goals, values, and conduct as one's own (sociocultural component). These facts reveal the course of exploration and commitment processes, which lead to achieving specific identity statuses (achieved, foreclosed, diffused, or moratorium). At the same time, developmental satisfaction (AOL–PwD aspect) manifests itself in the description of the identity process links (social, community, internal, and reflected integration).

We assume that personal factors and a broad sociocultural context of the lives of people with disabilities determine the course of their personal and social identity formation process, and in consequence, they also condition the way people perceive themselves as the authors of their lives and the individual life authorship aspects. The AOL–PwD model assumes these processes are dynamic. Thus, all changes in the person's life situation and each new personal or social experience can frame a different perception of oneself as the author of one's life and its individual aspects - also such that is contrary to the previous one.

The analyses presented in this article are systematized from the point of view of the following theses:

- (1) The fundamental category to explore the AOL–PwD is identity understood both as a construct of attributes that are assigned to the individual by the social environment and the effect of the work of the subjective aspect of identity, that is a sense of identity.

Also, such an approach to the key concept of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* provides grounds for presenting the AOL–PwD in both subjective terms (a sense of authorship in people with disabilities) and in objective terms (recognition of a given person's life authorship by the social environment). The consistent understanding of identity and authorship also emphasizes the assumptions presented in previous publications concerning AOL–PwD research procedures and strategies.

- (2) The *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* is a dynamic category that develops and changes throughout the lifespan.

Change dynamics is determined, among others, by the identity processes of exploration and commitment, which penetrate into the individual aspects of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* (subjectivity, personal resources, autonomy, developmental satisfaction, and support), making them a special orienting and cognitive activity in the form of activating the process links, i.e. exploration (experimenting, involvement, participation, searching, testing, evaluating) and commitment (making choices and being faithful to them in line with one's needs, plans, aspirations in life, and preferred values). Also stability, that is, the sameness of oneself despite the passage of time and changes in living conditions and in relationships with the social environment, needs to be taken into account in perceiving changes in both identity and authorship.

- (3) As a result of AOL–PwD formation, the individual achieves a given authorship status: achieved, foreclosed, diffused, or moratorium status.

The identification of the AOL–PwD statuses allows operationalization of the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* in identity terms. The systemness and contextuality of the AOL–PwD show that the identity formation process and the way of perceiving (defining) life authorship and its aspects are determined by numerous personal and social factors and thus take place in the specific living conditions of each person. Creating a network, the determinants overlap in interrelationships, which produces both identity statuses and *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* statuses.

- (4) The identity status achieved determines the way people with disabilities perceive their authorship life aspects.

Differences in perceiving one's authorship and identity may result, among others, from the status achieved in these two categories. For it can be assumed that the person defines his or her life authorship and perceives its authorship aspects (subjectivity, personal resources, autonomy, developmental satisfaction, and support) in a unique, individual way depending on the person's stage of identity formation and the (personal and social) determinants of this process.

- (5) Developmental dynamics and specific identity and life authorship statuses being acquired suggest that it is necessary to redefine these areas of people's functioning on a regular basis.

It should be emphasized that the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* is a conceptual category that shows a distinct dynamic reference to a process that can be given the characteristic of being permanent. Continuity of this process occurs in time and in various circumstances. That is why each new life experience (even one that seems unimportant) can frame a different perception of oneself as the author of one's life and its individual aspects: subjectivity, personal resources, autonomy, developmental satisfaction, and support - also perceptions that are contrary to previous ones. We assume that the *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* construct is holistic, comprehensive, contextual, and systemic.

CONCLUSION

The *authorship of own lives in people with disabilities* is a concept of assessment and rehabilitation. It corresponds to the positive, affirmative approach to the exploration of the phenomenon of disability. The idea of perceiving disability from the point of view of life authorship enables people with disabilities to look at themselves and their lives in a different way: not only from the angle of limitations, disorders, or deficits but through the lens of subjectivity, agency, personal resources, independence, and satisfaction with fulfilling developmental tasks – which are essential aspects of authoring oneself and one's life. The person's identity - as a source category for understanding the AOL–PwD - makes the person unique, individual and at the same time separate, which allows the person, despite all similarities, to differ from other people and to recognize himself or herself and his or her place in the social environment.

The theoretical analyses performed to date substantiate the AOL–PwD concept, develop the construct, show the contexts of the meaning of the AOL–PwD aspects, and announce research stages and procedures. This article shows this concept with reference to identity, which is considered to

be constitutive for understanding the *authorship of their own lives in people with disabilities*. A model was built whose three interrelated elements (authorship aspects, identity components, and process links) are the source to understand the AOL–PwD.

Further extensive investigations in this area will be determined by research tasks, including, among others: verification of the AOL–PwD model with the use of qualitative research, development of measurement tools, and assessment of people with different disabilities identifying AOL–PwD determinants. We hope that the results of analyses will reinforce the belief that despite their disabilities, these people can build and do build their lives as their authors and have something important to offer to the world.

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CHANGE IN APPROACH TO PROBLEM OF AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDERS: TOWARDS THE HUMANISTIC AND PERSONALISTIC PERSPECTIVE OF UNDERSTANDING THE PERSON

Abstract: Understanding a whole person is said to be the most difficult challenge of social, humanistic, medical and other sciences. It especially concerns the issue of understanding unique individuals, those perceived as different, non-standard (in any meaning of this word), uncommunicative or strange way by the majority of people. To understand these individuals, one can describe them, define them or penetrate their problems which could be effective only via inclusion. In case of individuals with ASD, due to remarkable progress in recent research, which evolved from exclusion, determining patterns and labelling towards an approach of finding common features and approaching individuals with ASD in a holistic way. A number of notable people with ASD are known in history. They fought for their rights and dignity. These people highlighted how important social development is and proved the working power of inclusion. Nowadays, we should listen to this group of citizens and research subjects so commonly excluded from society. There is a plethora of opportunities to learn about autism and try to understand ASD individuals who can teach researchers about their problems.

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INTRODUCTION

Understanding a whole person is said to be the most difficult challenge of social, humanistic, medical and other sciences. It especially concerns the issue of understanding unique individuals, those perceived as different, non-standard (in any meaning of this word), uncommunicative or strange way by the majority of people. To understand these individuals, one can describe them, define them or penetrate their problems which could be effective only via inclusion. In case of individuals with ASD, due to remarkable progress in recent research, which evolved from exclusion, determining patterns and labelling towards an approach of finding common features and approaching individuals with ASD in a holistic way.

A number of notable people with ASD are known in history. They fought for their rights and dignity. These people highlighted how important social development is and proved the working power of inclusion. Nowadays, we should listen to this group of citizens and research subjects so commonly excluded from society. There is a plethora of opportunities to learn about autism and try to understand ASD individuals who can teach researchers about their problems. The author would like to express his gratitude for Professor J. Kossewska from Pedagogical University of Cracow for organizing an excellent conference „Focus on Autism” (27-29.0.2018) during which, the author could present the results of his research on autistic subjects and share their outlook for the world.

GETTING TO KNOW ANOTHER PERSON

How to understand the other person? This is a basic question that the humanity has been struggling with from the very beginning. In the biological approach, scientists can sum up the whole process as perception or noticing. It is the activity of systems that have the task of receiving, processing and storing information from the environment - they reproduce and use it according to the needs and capabilities of an individual. The basis of perception are senses, on which humans create their reference to the surrounding world, including other human beings.

In psychology attention is paid to perception as a cognitive ability that is significantly determined by our psychophysical abilities. However, the essence of cognition is the search for the possibility of crossing the boundaries of the psycho-physical reflection of the image in philosophy. Edmund Husserl believes that the ultimate phenomenological subject, who is not subject to any exclusion, is the subject of all intellectual and phenomenological research, a pure self (Husserl 1974, 247). It is only the cognition of the other person that can be based on empathy (*Einfühlung*) as indirect presence (Husserl 1974, 281).

Stein (1917) introduced the humanistic aspect of the discussion, noting the position of the human in community, not only treating it as a separate individual. Thus, empathy, it becomes a kind of experience of being in space and time with material processes and mental experiences (Stein 1917, 68). Expanding the field of experience, deepening the element of understanding, experiencing same motion allow one to penetrate into the acts of another human being, his realm of being, his personal spirituality. Scheler (1972; 1980), created a theory of cognition, which is now the basis for cognition in the humanities. Man, as a social being, perceives another man as belonging to a specific sphere of being defined as "the world of You" (*Duwelt*). Węgrzecki notes that in a living community the other person is thoroughly analyzed through direct observation and co-experience. In contrast, for society, the separation of the "survival" and "bodily word movement" is a variable in other people (Węgrzecki 1992, 50).

According to Węgrzecki, whose theory is the basis for researchers seeking the optimal possibilities of knowing the other person, being becomes a being that continues to define and self-determine, but is also cognitively defined also by sources that are outside it. The results of determining the existence of a human being by someone else can coincide with the results of self-determination (Węgrzecki 1972, 127). This self-knowledge is connected with the cognition of another human being, it becomes a kind of background that marks and cuts the existence of a man from the environment. It can be stated that it is in other people's manifestations that a man finds the reflection of himself (Węgrzecki, 1972, 129). It is thanks to contact with another person that the whole process of self-discovery takes place. So a

man being a scientist, interested in learning about others, shapes himself. This openness to others becomes an important element of self-creation. It is the dimension of co-existence and co-participation that becomes important and irreplaceable in this cognitive dimension. As A. Węgrzecki wrote, thanks to such experience, it is possible to gain an insight into the specific dimension of human existence, which makes the other human something unique (Węgrzecki 1972, 132).

The transition from empathy, social influence factor, cognition based on our own experience, to the forming of another human being becomes an important model of looking at research that gives the second person not only the character or subject of the subject, but also affects a different view of understanding - as an auto - empathy, in the eidetic¹ and phenomenological view of Husserl's cognition of man. This approach should characterize the new view of autism / autism spectrum disorders that deviate from assessment, classification or labelling.

This approach should take into account:

1. opportunities to conduct research among people who can present their experiences in a partner way;
2. deviating from classifying and grading for placement, which is undoubtedly enabled by the new DSM 5 classification (introducing descriptive characteristics of CTS grades);
3. developing at the appropriate level of social awareness and inclusion culture;
4. the use of individualized forms and methods (without direct contact) of obtaining information/ research material.

METHODOLOGICAL ASSUMPTIONS

An important element of conducting research is establishing cooperation (or, as M. Hessen mentions, the relationship he calls 'love'). In connection with the above, the author decided to use modern techniques of communication, which allow indirect engagement in the research cycle, and in the case of people with autism spectrum

¹ Eidetics [Greek eidētikós 'ideal', 'formal' < eídos 'picture', 'character', 'pattern'], in phenomenology it means knowledge about the important, introduced by E. Husserl: phenomenology according to him has eidetic character i.e. in the process of constant changes of content of some performance searches for constant elements. It does not focus

disorders, do not cause cognitive and emotional limitations. I have written more about it, in the description of eye contact and compensation mechanisms, conscious, not always understood by the environment, eliminating mechanisms limiting communication. The researcher experiences discomfort when he makes eye contact, the world around is blocked. The author can only process the huge pain and discomfort that comes to his mind. This pain passes when he looks away; he listens and concentrates better when there is no eye contact; np looks at the forehead, between the eyes of the respondent, to hide his confusion (Błęszyński 2018)

To limit direct contact the author decided to use a questionnaire which consisted of 14 points. The document was placed on the Moodle platform, with general access, providing information to centers working with youth and adults with ASD. The interview consisted of introductory questions (without personal data), information about sensory perception and references to the perception of autism by the respondents. Apart from general questions, they were all open, allowing an unlimited form of expression. The research was not aimed at obtaining categorized answers, the aim was to get to know as much as possible about the world as perceived by people with autism. The author made a preliminary analysis in cooperation with Gumińska, MA, PhD candidate, who studies the quality of life of adults with autism (a dissertation being prepared). The Center for Early Intervention in Giżycko and the Foundation Farma Życia - Community of Hope in Więckowice, Poland answered the call for help in conducting the research. It should be noted that the material presented is a part of the research that the author plans to publish as a whole.

FINDINGS

15 individuals (8 females and 7 males), aged from 13 to 45 years (6 people: 10-19 years, 4 persons age 20-29, and 5 over 30 years old) took part in the study. It is a large age range, as well as awareness

on the phenomenon in specific environment but pays attention to its essence. Husserl used to use a triangle symbol, whose geometric definition is independent from the length of its sides. (<https://encyklopedia.pwn.pl/haslo/ejdetyka;3896920.html>; Accessed 7th September 2018).

of different social interactions on the ongoing changes (since 1970, when education was merely a system of segregation).

SELF-AWARENESS OF ASD

After analysing the obtained answers, it can be stated that in the case of self-awareness of the disorder and self-reflection over the role of the disorder in achievements, a very different information has been obtained. Negative connotations attributed to autism prevailed. Most often it is presented as a disease, dysfunction on social functions, interpersonal contacts, difficulty in social functioning. It can also be interpreted that autism is a constraint, essentially permanent and impossible to cross - from the respondent's side, for example, like a cage that is difficult to leave. It is also showing the otherness (as one of respondents states), or as another respondent states - something unusual, deviating from the norm, which does not necessarily have only a negative aspect. There are also statements that show the difficulty in presenting a multidimensional character - the respondent finds it difficult to say whether he or she is a good example for people and for the country and life. This polarization is mainly due to the difference in the age of respondents.

Autism becomes a hindering element that creates a limiting barrier. This barrier delimits autistic world of the respondents, but does not necessarily mean that it delimits the world from them. It is the awareness of the difficulties inherent in them - what has been called by this external world (specialized terms - disease, dysfunctions), which can only give meaning, but not necessarily the essence of the problem - as an element inherent in them, and therefore demanding impact:

- of adaptive, external environment;
- of internal self-reflection, on what is not cooperative;
- as modifications, adaptation, accommodating (more psychological adaptation, as modification and improvement under the influence of acquired experience).

THE INTENTION OF MAKING CHANGES IN YOUR LIFE – WHAT WOULD YOU CHANGE IN YOUR LIFE?

The most significant seem to be proposals, or even a call to make changes in relation to the educational

system in the scope of applied care and educational methods. They mainly result from the imperfections of the education and care system, despite numerous changes and system modifications. This is an indication of difficult-to-accept impacts on bodily harm (e.g., do not beat me) or a sense of security, e.g. by imposing eye contact.

In relation to the respondents themselves, prosocial features would be shaped, but with preservation of their own predispositions and character traits. This may be the result of commonly used behavior modification techniques of a directive nature as well as a school system aimed at compliance. People with ASD are aware of having their own personality, their predispositions, often difficult to modify and causing a lack of social understanding and acceptance. This awareness increases with the acquisition of the ability to distance oneself and the feeling of social aspiration.

Respondents indicate, for example, the use of their strengths, which they themselves see, for example, making a sports carrier in running, winning medals and cups; working and achieving more; going to the Paralympics in the future, that the authors look at someone when they talk to them, because it's unpleasant when you do not look at someone. These indications also refer to changes e.g. in the environment in which I operate; I would change the human mentality. In younger subjects, there are answers: nothing; I do not know; the proposals also apply to themselves, e.g. it would be very nice if I was more confident and able to communicate with other people e.g. in the environment in which I operate; I would change the human mentality.

The essence of the above-mentioned behaviours is the striving to be in interaction, social bond. The respondents are aware of the pursuit of the goal as well as the goal itself, but it seems that commonly used methods of stimulation in the education process are not adequate for people with ASD. Difficulties result primarily from the lack of commonly accepted stimulus models, such as declarativeness (Baron-Cohen 1989), initiation of interaction, interaction, cooperation, reinforcement (Swinkels et al. 2006, Mundy, Sullivan and Mastergeorge 2009; Demurie et al. 2011). There was also an aspect of loneliness, isolation coinciding with research on well-functioning

students with ASD compared to properly developing peers, who more often give loneliness in their answers (Bauminger, Kasari 2000, Bauminger et al. 2003, 2004).

AWARENESS OF MODIFYING ONE'S BEHAVIOUR

The preference of states, which are generally considered and perceived as pleasant, ensuring an appropriate level of well-being is an important element of the respondents' statements. Scooping distance, emotionless relation to the reality of the person with ASD function - both with regard to oneself (e.g. Less and less with age, another way of looking at people), as well as the environment should be mentioned at this point. Respondents point to their passions - which are often limited to the field of interest (e.g. a big knowledge about cars and that I have a large collection of brochures / albums related to cars and I love to drive). They also present the form of their behavior, e.g. I read in pictures, I like to count for hours; I have an imagination (I imagine different stories). There are also answers such as, for example, I have no idea.

Self-reflection concerns strengthening the skills of interpersonal contacts as well as building one's own authority and self-awareness. With age, it is possible to find more features that have the character of reliable participation, as a result of the experience of seeking to share social interactions. Attachment styles are an organizational pattern for shaping social interactions at particular stages of development. As shown in the studies, attachment styles are most often safe, but may be deformed under unfavourable conditions (Ainsworth at all, 1978). Awareness of mutual modification - referring to society and respondents - is equally important. It is a necessity to reach a consensus, undoubtedly a socially desirable attitude, but one that can be achieved in pro-social development - this is an important aspect of inclusive education, contrary to the segregation and isolation education system. It should be noted that the acquisition of social skills by persons with ASD is atypical and heterogeneous due to the occurrence of various, different and time-bound disturbances that are significant and often comorbid (Rutgers et al 2004; Pisula Pisula 2000; Naber et al. 2007). These studies also confirm observations made during school activities, especially related to the development of free time. Interactions - students

with ASD, if at all they entered them, were mostly unsuccessful and characterized by the inability of initiating and responding to interactions with peers (Hauck et al 1995; Stone and Caro-Martinez 1990; Travis and Sigman 1998).

DISTINGUISHES YOU FROM THE OTHER PEOPLE?

Older and more experienced respondents point to vanishing differences, as adapting to social requirements, as well as increasing tolerance of society. An important aspect of the respondents' attitude to the surrounding reality is their age. As the oldest respondent notices, with increasing age, there is an increasing assimilation (what distinguishes you from others? - with age? less and less). This is undoubtedly the result of tolerance (each of us is different) and integration into and with society (observing people), as well as the increasing awareness and acceptance of people with ASD. Important becomes scooping distance, emotionless relation to the reality of the person with ASD function - both with regard to oneself (e.g. Less and less with age, another way of looking at people), as well as the environment. Respondents pointed to the different characteristics of each of them in lifestyle, preferred forms of activity, interest (fixation), etc. Younger ones answered about their narrow interests and attempts to channel their experience by people supporting their development.

It should be emphasized that the respondents are aware of their otherness, the requirements relating to the organization of social support, which ultimately lead to improvement in their socialization and functioning in the environment. However, it is not attributed to third parties that discipline and shape their behavior (support assistance). Many of the presented interests, often taking the form of fixation, are transient, evolving and constitute the basis for further exploration of the environment (Prizant, Fields-Meyer 2017). Many autobiographical publications indicate the legitimacy of the emerging narrow interests and the possibilities of developing them (Grandin 2011; Willey 2018).

HOW YOUR ASD IS BOTHERING YOU?

In the responses given, one statement actually appears. The respondents mention difficulties in

social contacts as a problem. Perception of otherness may be an indication of alienation from society. Among the statements dominate those showing awareness of the limitations of interaction (e.g. in easy establishing contacts, it hinders my contacts with people, and making new acquaintances, I practically do not acquire friends), as well as entering social structures (e.g. in developing social interaction) and also defining such problems as a trait (permanently, it in no way bothers me).

This restriction sometimes hinders the creation and maintenance of social contacts. Social contacts are the base on which the social functions of active action and participation are shaped. It can be pointed out here that acting as an activity is an essential element in the proper building of social relations. An action that is often unintelligible is often socially incomprehensible, unacceptable. This awareness, but also the intentionality of looking for friends, interacting are the elements that both parties face. Approaching this interaction in a skillful manner must often facilitate reaching a compromise to find a way to this interaction. The search for this interaction, starting with Grodzka (2010), is shown as taming by watching and imitating Kaufman (1994), or the conditioning strategy of Lovaas (1993).

The problem in social contacts typical of respondents is the difficulty in establishing and maintaining eye contact. The conducted research indicated that there are difficulties in visual contact during direct contact and are characterized by a short period of attention on the face (Klin et al., 2002; Nakano et al. 2010), which may be related to preferred objects - mostly statistical (Sasson et al. 2008; 2011). In dealing with children with autism, the problem of sound perception is often encountered (Klin 1991; Kuhl et al. 2005), which, as mentioned, is of a social nature, which often causes that verbal communication is not used in social communication (often referred to as being used inadequately). Children with ASD respond to non-verbal stimuli, e.g. non-social stimuli (Ceponiene et al. 2003; Gervais et al. 2004). Lack or impediments in the development of social contacts using the sense of sight and hearing may be one of the symptoms of autism, which can also be defined as the risk of autism incidence (Elsabbagh et al. 2012; Pierce et al. 2011, Allison et al. 2008).

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

Preliminary results from the research indicate that consciousness (Lniu et al. 2010), as well as the self-awareness of people with ASD is not only an important element of research, but could also help in the creation of a map of the disorder itself. Recent research shows a broader understanding of perception and specific occurrences may result from many factors. As described by Sivaratnam and others (2015) these factors can be traced to early development of brain structures in prenatal, natal and postnatal periods, or as indicated by the latest classification of DSM 5 in early childhood; they rise from difficulties resulting from the ability to perform executive functioning; they are disturbances of the neuroendocrine process; they can appear as a result of an abnormal perception of additional information. This approach presented by the team of Sivaratnam, Louise, Newman, Tonge, Rinehart (2015) indicates a much wider range of necessary research based on the analysis of neurobiological, neuroendocrine and neurocognitive processes that underlie the processing of information coming from environment. However, it is important not only to analyze the neurofunctional materials, but to research their symbiosis with information obtained directly from the interested persons.

Summing up, the presented material, the author wishes to draw attention to the personalistic review of the collected material, the subjectivity, and thus the necessity to change the options of this ASD study. We encounter several important conditions, and one of the more and more distinctive aspects is the cultural reception and description of autism (e.g. Gumińska and Smiley 2015). It shows a multidimensional context - not only biological, but also social and cultural. In spite of the emerging studies on the perception of autism in different countries and cultures, there is still no uniform presentation of the problem. This is confirmed by the multinational team (Matson et al. 2011, 1601-1603), indicating the validity of further research in this regard, due to the existence of significant differences in the diagnosis and description of ASD.

Social changes, which allow for a faster flow of messages, better contacts between distant places become allies of the unification of societies, but can also improve the research for isolated social

niches. At present, the creation of environments of people with ASD not alienated by society, but now alienating themselves, is observed. It is an expression of obtaining their own identity, the search for support groups and finding their own place in society. It is through adjusting to the changes aimed to respect diversity that ASD is moving away from discrimination and alienation into understanding and social inclusion. It can even be said that openness to learn what has not been considered so far, marginalized, is an opportunity for further development of societies.

Autism, autism spectrum disorders are important terms that should make the public aware of diversity, but also the importance and importance for its overall development. Just as in the knowledge of the other person, one can find oneself; so in the search for understanding what autism is, one can get to know the society better - its structures, functions - and above all, real and not declarative reality. Listening to people recognized as others by the society is therefore a very important task, which should be continued.

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DISABILITY IN THE ARAB WORLD: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS WITHIN CULTURE

Abstract: The phenomena of disabilities in the Arab world can be viewed from various perspectives, considering historical times, epistemological programmes and theoretical models. This article is a theoretical review and comparative data analysis of the problems regarding the evolution of attitudes and current concept of disability and theoretical assumptions of caring for disabled people in the Arab world. Content of the theoretical part of the paper includes reasons for caring for disabled Arabs, including: analysis of human orientation aspects, social orientation, equality of opportunity and principles of democracy orientation and human development orientation. In the second part of the article the authors discuss empirical comparative data related to disability in the Arab world as: various causes of congenital or acquired disabilities, including culturally bounded causes of disabilities in Arab world, related to marriages in close families and marriages of underage girls. The paper illustrates key aspects of conceptualization of disabilities in the Arab countries and gives comparative analysis of the latest data on the situation of children with disabilities in education sectors and adults in the labor market. This part of comparative analysis broadly refers to the primary data from the Arab countries published as research report in 2018 by the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia. The report is entitled "Disability in the Arab Region".

Keywords: social sciences, culture, Arab world, disabilities, education, comparative analysis

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INTRODUCTION

Disability is a phenomenon that accompanies humanity from the earliest stages of civilization development regardless of the region of the world in which it appeared. There is a current data indicating that Neanderthal living in Cro-Magnon in 28 000 B.C. had type of neurofibromatosis (Charlier et al. 2018) an autosomal, genetic condition resulting in various health problems and disabilities, including cognitive development. On this example of inherited disability we can try to figure out many of our ancestors around the world with disabilities, from ancient times, the Middle Ages, up to the present days, who by being born with signs of congenital disability or acquiring it during life cycle, provoked humanity to respond to these phenomena. According to anthropologist Douglas (2002), there is a universal model of the relationship of any culture to disability or, as the author called it, an *anomaly*. The authors of this article want to highlight that this universal model in cultures is also a model of the process of adapting to disability on macro-cultural and micro-cultural plans, which can be seen as a continuum from mainstream, local communities to families (Borowska-Beszta, 2017; 2018). Douglas (2002) pointed out five universal patterns of the attitude of cultures to *anomalies*:

- The first pattern, indicated assumes *interpretation* of anomaly, from the moment it occurred, e.g. in the birth of a child with deformities. According to Douglas (2002), cultural interpretation is based on the intellectual classification of anomalies as a special phenomenon, followed by various types of cultural activities.
- The second pattern, is *physical control* over the anomaly and determine its' framework, defining the correctness. Douglas (2002) believes that in particular cultures with internalized ontological concepts (regarding the nature of a given phenomenon) all anomalies will generate control activities on the part of culture.
- The universal third pattern of cultural attitude towards anomalies is connected with *avoiding* it.

- In the fourth pattern, cultures treat and perceive anomaly as a form of *danger*
- The fifth pattern is an activity towards acquiring anomalies and *using it for the benefit* of one's own culture (Douglas 2002, Borowska-Beszta 2017; 2018).

Against this background of the universal model of approach to *anomalies*, the authors of the article consider the phenomena of disabilities in the Arab world, trying to analyze the theoretical and comparative empirical data in the context of concept indicated by Douglas (2002).

DEVELOPMENT OF THE VIEW TOWARDS PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES IN ARAB WORLD

From ancient times in various regions of the world people with disabilities have suffered from abuse, negligence and ridicule. Greeks philosophers, among others Plato indicated that the person with disability is considered to be harmful to his ideal state. Moreover, Aristotle advised the parents not to raise a children with disabilities (Borowska-Beszta 2012). Hence, the persons with especially any visually recognizable disabilities were not allowed to learn, develop autonomy or marry, because this would inevitably weaken the state. Other societies in historical perspective and in different ancient cultures have also implemented various ways to interpret the disability phenomena and develop their attitudes to disabilities and to people with disabilities, unfortunately oppressive and humiliating them (Borowska-Beszta 2012; Kulbaka 2012).

Thinking of Arab world, Ibrahim and Ismail (2018) mention after Guvercin (2008) the wrong perceptions of disabled people as a factor influencing societal attitudes, leading to exclusion, mistreated, and deprivation of their rights to equal opportunities in education, employment, and social inclusion. Mourad and Walid (2008) write that currently, regardless of the positive characteristics of those with disabilities, abled-bodied individuals tend to believe that disabled people are not mature ones, and they lack essential things. Under this assumption, abled-bodied people practice different forms of discrimination, intolerance and use stigmatizing labels in their daily communication styles. The authors find that people without any disabilities do not understand or consider the

effects of these negative communication styles and stigmatizing on people with disabilities, but also on their parents, and especially mothers as well. This in turn influences the methods of education, care and protection the parents they use (Mourad and Walid 2008).

The authors continue, that Arab societal view of people with disabilities, without reference to a specific group since the dawn of history, was fraught with confusion, misunderstanding, doubt and despair. The reason for this confusion was the ancient man's misunderstanding of the real causes of disability, as there was doubt because of the ambiguity surrounding the main causes, the inability to deal with disabled people with disabilities their psychological, social, behavioral and emotional disorders. The Arab societies felt despair because disability required special care. The duties of these societies were to provide appropriate conditions for each case. At that time, the ancient man did not have what he could do to keep harm away from himself and others (Mourad and Walid, 2007a).

Accordingly, these societies saw and named the *stigma* of disability. Stigmatization and oppression was marked by inferiority, neglect, contempt, abuse and negligence on the forehead of those with disabilities, as if this society punished them for a sin they did not commit, and besieged them in successive circles of educational, psychological and social hostage, without providing them with demands of liberation from this human oppression and contempt, and their right of self-determination remains suspended until further notice (Mourad and Walid, 2007 b).

The Arab world has begun to change its view towards people with disabilities gradually after 1965 according to the following basic assumptions:

- The need to re-examine the issue of disability, by addressing them from *social defense* point of view of in the face of disability, with a comprehensive view of disability in terms of circumstances and social factors leading to it. The society should confront these circumstances seriously which ends with the rehabilitation of those with difficulties (Mourad and Walid 2006).

- It is necessary to start from the premise that the integrated, capable and effective human being is the *basic model* that we hope to achieve. Any disability reduces this basic human being *model*. Any attempt to integrate those with disabilities with the society again under the principles of social justice and equal opportunities constitutes the essence of fundamental human rights (Mourad and Walid 2007 b).
- The need to pay attention to the *future dimension* of the disabled people's case in terms of potential development in the size of the problem and the social impacts that may result from it (Mourad and Walid 2008).
- The need to adopt and formulate the most *flexible strategies* to cope with the potential social impacts resulting from the size of the problem in the future to fit with the overall national strategy (Mourad and Walid 2007 a).
- From human, social, religious and economic points of view because any failure to care for people with disabilities leads them to become more anxious and frustrated, which is reflected in the negative effects on society and human investment (Mourad and Walid 2010).
- The tremendous progress in concepts and methods of thinking that have led to changing the attitudes of the society towards people with disabilities in a manner that helps the abled-bodied to reconsider them and their sense of humanness, their rights to life hoping to integrate them fully into society. This has been achieved in the era of information technology, which has contributed to the change of society's attitudes towards the adoption of modern scientific techniques, whether in medical, educational or physiological measurements, and the screening of people with disabilities on a sound scientific basis (Mourad and Walid 2010).
- The world has recently turned to disability as a potential energy that seeks to meet its needs and qualifies it for human development to the greatest extent possible (Mourad and Walid, 2007 b).

REASONS FOR CARING OF PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES IN ARAB WORLD

▪ HUMAN ORIENTATION

Attention to persons with disabilities was one of the priorities of the Arab Labor Organization since its establishment in 1965 until the Arab Labor Convention No. (17) of the year 1993. Over the years before 60s, the many negative events that the people of disabilities passed through cannot be denied. People viewed them as "bad omens", sources of disasters and symbols of the sins committed by their parents. This view led to their rejection and displacement by society. However, in recent times, they are cared of but this requires the solidarity of society with all its members and institutions to help and provide them with different approaches to psychotherapy to mitigate the psychological and social effects they face. From a human perspective people with disabilities have the same rights as people without disabilities (Mourad and Walid 2007 b).

▪ SOCIAL ORIENTATION

The family, which has been currently transformed in 90s from a large extended family into a small nuclear family, faces many difficulties and hardships because of its disabled child because as he /she is in a constant need for more care, especially if he is stigmatized as an *idiot*. The family suffers a lot because of:

- The sense of guilt as they assume full responsibility for having disabled child.
- Parents lack of experience in dealing with their disabled child (the difficulty of understanding the world of disability). So in order to reduce the family burdens, it has become necessary for the community as a whole to be concerned with this child's problems that in fact negatively affect him/her.

Specialists have called for the establishing specialized educational institutions where these children raised and cared of, thus alleviating some of the psychological and social burdens suffered by their families (Mourad and Walid 2008).

▪ EQUALITY OF OPPORTUNITY AND PRINCIPLES OF DEMOCRACY ORIENTATION

Equality of opportunity and principles of democracy among the members of society must be achieved. It was therefore necessary to give the members of the group of people with disabilities the opportunity to be educated and trained with full participation in public life, in order to lead a normal life, hopefully they will not be dependent on society. People with disabilities, like other abled-bodied people of their age, were born with the capacities to develop capacities, metaphorically speaking, even in those deeply hidden (Mourad and Walid 2010).

▪ HUMAN DEVELOPMENT ORIENTATION

Investment should be directed to human capital, as it is invaluable. People with disabilities represent a significant part of this capital, so it is necessary to benefit from it in the light of the available means after qualifying those who can work and increase economic income. This is important and the Arab societies need to promote people with disabilities' rights, so they could be *agents of change* for sustained socio-economic development and security. In this case, we can succeed in helping them achieve psychological and social adaptation on the one hand, and human investment on the other (Mourad and Walid 2007c).

ARAB UNDERSTANDING OF DISABILITY

From psychological and scientific point of view disability is "a state in which the individual is unable to or has a difficulty in performing one or more types of physical or intellectual activities for ordinary individuals who are equal in age, gender or social role and are essential to daily life such as movement, sports activity, economic and intellectual work. Thus, this state of disability impairs the performance of the role imposed on him /her by age and gender, social and culture considerations in his community"(Farrag 2003, 14).

Disability is defined as "a mental, or physical injury that causes harm to human development physically and mentally and may affect his/her psychological, educational and training state. By comparison, the physical and mental functions of

the disabled person less than their peers of the same age. The disability may be one or several in the same person and may cause partial or complete impairment. It may also be primary from birth or secondary to other causes such as meningitis or various episodes such as car accidents"(Mourad and Walid 2010, 35).

Disabled child is someone who has a disorder that limits his/her ability or prevents him/her from performing functions and roles expected from his/her age independently.

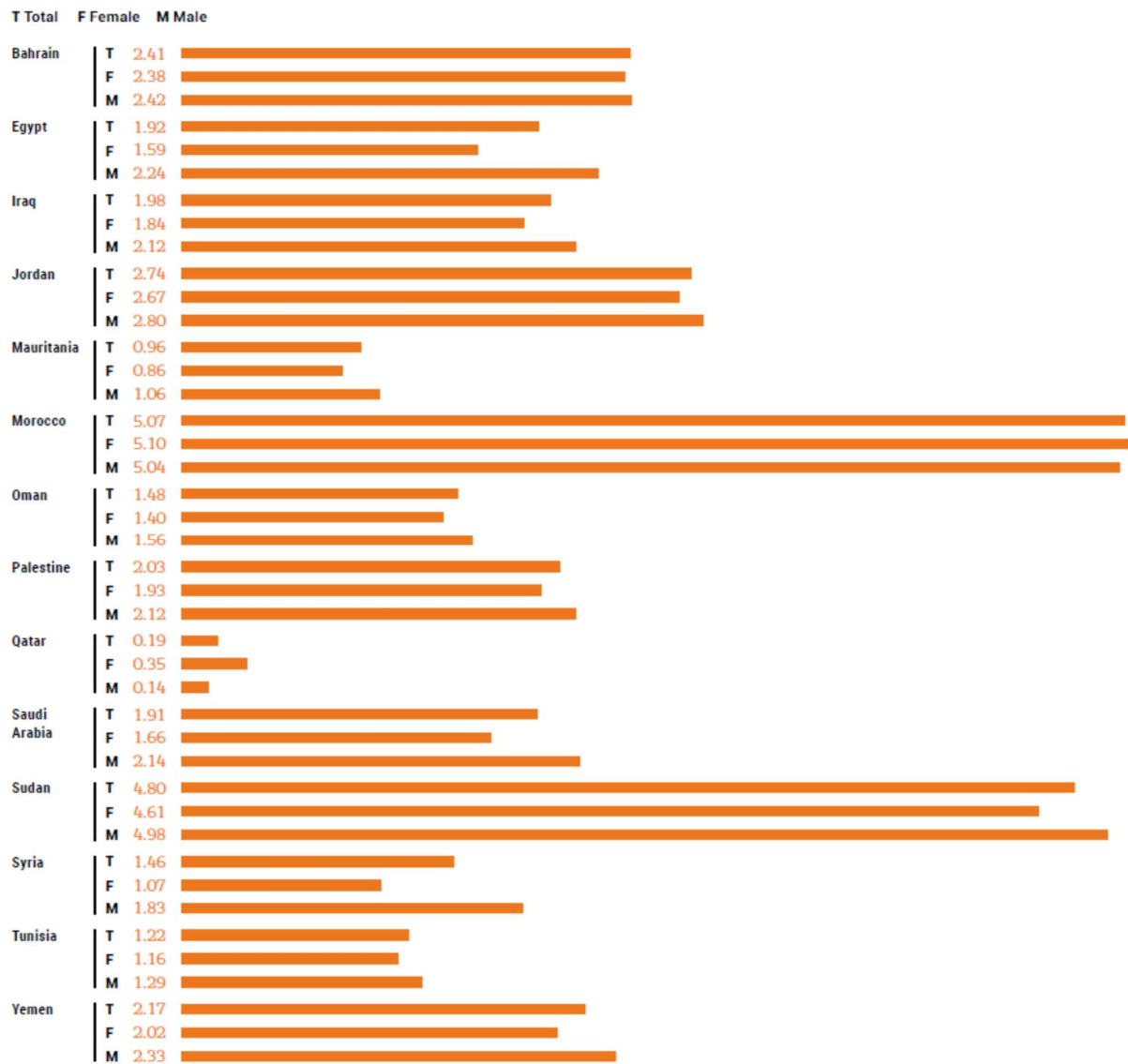
El Khatib (2012) writes, that disability is not a disease but a significant deviation or delay in growth which is considered to be normal in terms of physical, sensory, behavioral, linguistic or educational needs resulting from individual needs. These needs require the provision of special services, non-traditional opportunities for growth, learning, the use of modified tools and methods to be implemented at an individual level. In the language of learning, disability is a condition that restricts academic performance, making learning in the classroom and in ordinary educational methods difficult. Nevertheless, the educational definition of disability is only one of many others. Medical definitions are based on precise and measurable parameters such as visual impairment or loss of consciousness. There are also social definitions that are focused on constraints imposed by disability as well as occupational definitions that emphasize changes in the world of work. It is concluded that the Arab researchers regard disability as a term that covers disability and restricted participation in daily life activities. Disability is a problem in the body's function or structure, causing reduction in activity. It is a difficulty faced by the individual in the implementation of a task or work. Disability is

therefore a complex phenomenon, reflecting the interaction between the person's personality and the characteristics of the society in which he/ she lives.

PREVALENCE OF DISABILITY

According to the report of Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA 2018), disability prevalence rates in the Arab region are lower than 2 per cent in eight out of 14 countries, and as low as 0.2 per cent in Qatar and 1 per cent in Mauritania. Morocco and Sudan have the highest prevalence rates at 5.1 per cent and 4.8 per cent, respectively (see Figure 1.). These rates appear quite low compared to those in other regions. This may in part result from the fact that the Arab populations are relatively young and therefore less likely to have disabilities (ESCWA 2018). In most Arab countries, the prevalence rates are higher among men than among women (Figure 1. ESCWA 2018). Age plays a great role in disability prevalence rates. Disability is positively correlated with ageing: the rate starts to increase around middle age and rises sharply for older persons (Figure 2. ESCWA 2018). In all countries, disability prevalence stays below 3 per cent for persons aged 25-44 years, and generally under 5 per cent for ages 45-64 years, except for Morocco where it reaches 8.7 per cent among this group. The rate then rises drastically among those aged 65 years and above. For example, in Oman, the disability prevalence rate rises from 2.8 per cent for those aged 45-64 years to 15.8 per cent for those aged 65 and older, an almost six fold increase. In Yemen, similarly, the rate climbs from 3.5 per cent to 20 per cent between these age groups.

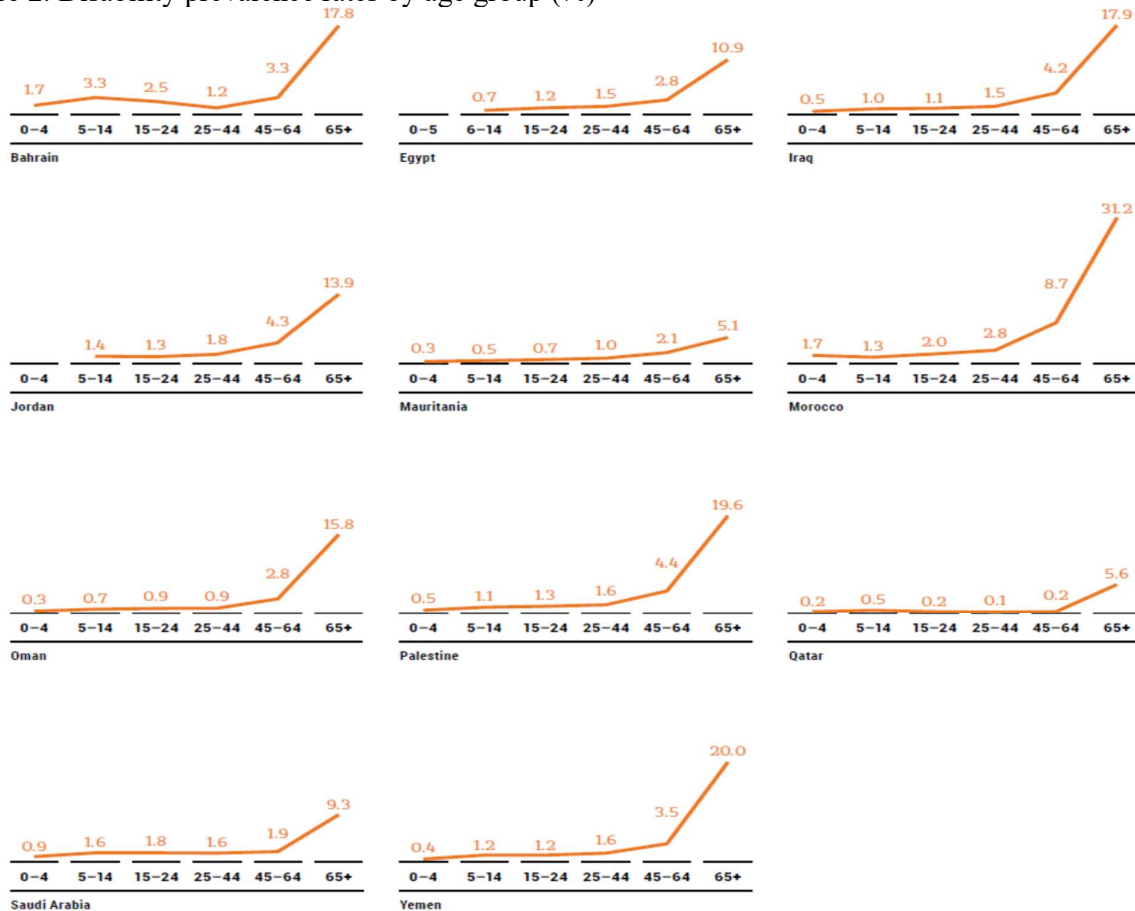
Figure 1. Disability prevalence rates in countries across the region (different years) total and female/male (%)²



Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (2018). *Disability in the Arab Region 2018*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2018/1. Beirut, p. 15.

² All charts and diagrams used in analysis and included in this article were primarily published in research report entitled *Disability in the Arab region* (2018) of Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA). The usage of all charts contains full references to the primary source with respect to detailed requirements of ESCWA.

Figure 2. Disability prevalence rates by age group (%)



Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (2018). *Disability in the Arab Region 2018*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2018/1. Beirut, p. 17.

CAUSES OF DISABILITY

In seven Arab countries (i.e. Bahrain, Iraq, Mauritania, Oman, Palestine, Saudi Arabia and Yemen), there are three disability causes, namely, congenital, illness and accident. Whereas additional causes are used by some countries but not by others. Iraq and Palestine have allowed more than one disability cause per person (ESCWA, 2018). Illness is the most common cause of disability in all countries except Oman, where congenital causes are most prevalent. The proportion of disabilities caused by illness ranges between 26.4 per cent in Oman and 41.8 per cent in Mauritania (ESCWA 2018).

The proportion of disabilities attributed to congenital causes ranges between 23.4 per cent in Palestine and 34.7 per cent in Saudi Arabia. The

ratio for ageing, which is included as a category by Iraq, Oman, Palestine and Yemen, is between 21.2 per cent (Palestine) and 31.8 per cent. The proportion of disabilities attributed to congenital causes ranges between 23.4 per cent in Palestine and 34.7 per cent in Saudi Arabia (Oman) (ESCWA, 2018). Four countries (i.e. Iraq, Bahrain, Palestine and Saudi Arabia) include birth-related causes.

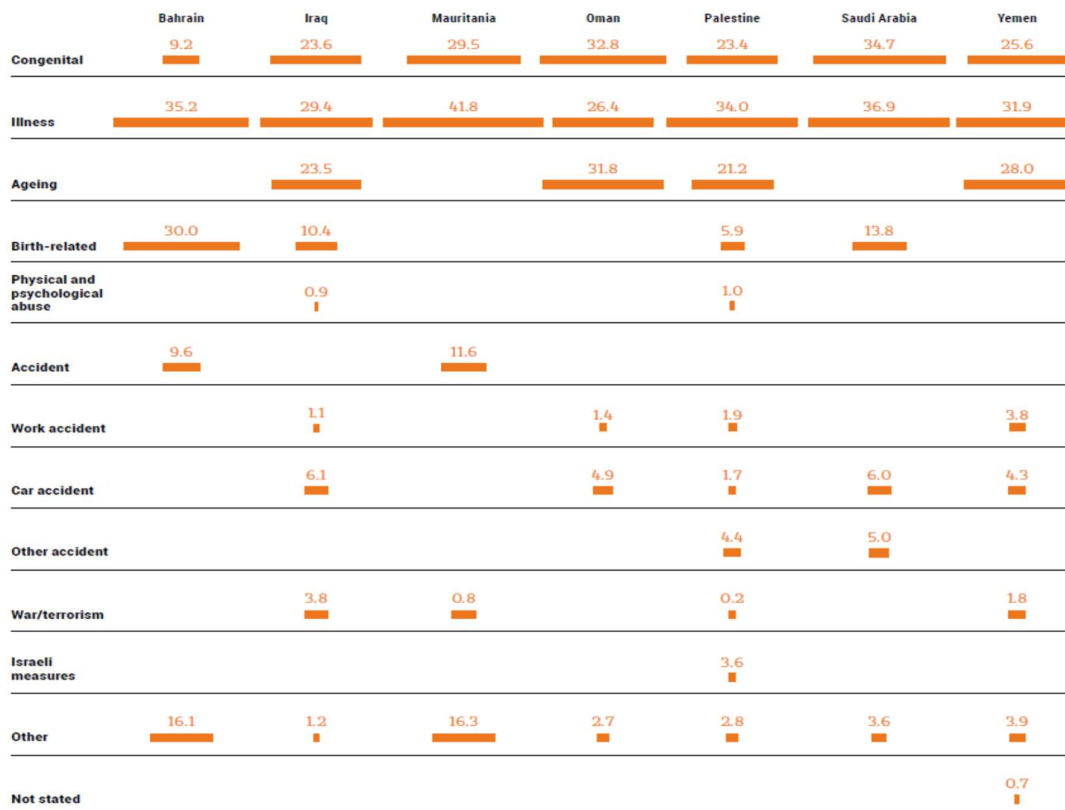
Nevertheless, the prevalence diverges considerably: in Palestine only 5.9 per cent of disabilities are birth-related whereas the proportion in Bahrain is five times higher at 30 per cent.

Accident is another cause of disability in Arab world. Car accidents are the most common form of disability-causing accidents. Iraq, Oman, Palestine and Yemen are affected by “work accident” or “car accident.” Saudi Arabia only has “car accident” and “other accident.” Physical and psychological

abuse is included in Iraq and Palestine and accounts for 1 per cent of disabilities. Some countries, namely, Iraq, Palestine, Mauritania and Yemen, have a category called “war/terrorism” which causes between 0.2 percent (Palestine) and 3.8 percent (Iraq) of all disabilities. 3.6 per cent of disabilities in Palestine are due to “Israeli

measures”. There are other causes in Bahrain and Mauritania which account for 16 per cent of disabilities. According to ESCWA (2018), Yemen, finally, has a category labelled “non-stated” which accounts for less than 1 per cent of disabilities (see Figure 3.).

Figure 3. Causes of disability as percentage of total



Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (2018). *Disability in the Arab Region 2018*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2018/1. Beirut, p. 24.

MARRIAGES IN THE CLOSE FAMILY – CONSANGUINEOUS MARRIAGE

Among social factors that cause disability what is called Marriage in the close family (consanguineous marriage). Consanguinity or marriage is a type of close relationship between a man and woman who are related by blood. Consanguineous marriage is defined by human geneticists as the unions of second cousins (fourth degree relatives) or closer relatives (Fariba et al. 2014). We find that this phenomenon spread wide-

ly from ancient times in a large proportion, especially among the Bedouin and rural people.

This phenomenon has many social, economic and religious considerations, and the associated habits and traditions reflected on the behavior of individuals as they tend to choose their life partners from close relatives (i.e. cousins), although some researchers came to the agreement that consanguinity is the most common risk factor for congenital anomalies (Tariq and Rabeeb 2008).

It has been proven that off-springs of consanguineous parents are at higher risk for

perinatal and postnatal mortality and morbidity, stillbirth, low birth weight, preterm labor, childhood mortality, and lower IQ level (Fariba et al. 2014). There is a growing evidence that supports the association between parent's consanguinity and complex, multi-factorial adult diseases in off-springs including Alzheimer's disease, hypertension, cardio-vascular disease, stroke, cancers, depression, asthma, gout, epilepsy, osteoporosis, and peptic ulcer (Fariba et al. 2014). Although consanguinity is declined dramatically in many of western communities is still prevalent in parts of Middle-East, North Africa, and West Asia (Hamamy et al. 2011).

EARLY MARRIAGE PHENOMENON

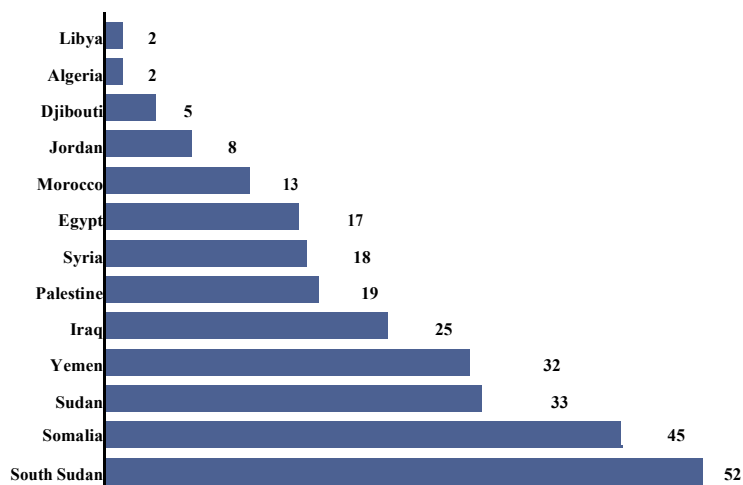
Another social factor that causes disability is early marriage phenomenon. In the Arab region, one in seven girls marries before her 18th birthday (United Nations Population Fund 2012). In the Arab region, the highest rates of child marriage are seen in the poorest countries —Yemen, Sudan, Somalia, and South Sudan—where annual per capita incomes in 2011 were less than USD 2,000. One-third or more of the girls in these countries marry before their 18th birthday (see Figure 4). At the other end of the spectrum, child marriage is rare in Tunisia, Algeria, and Libya. Egypt—the most

populous Arab country—is home to the largest number of child brides in the region (Farzaneh, Roudi-Fahimi, Shaimaa and Ibrahim 2013).

It is one of the prevalent phenomena in the Arab Muslim society, especially for females. This phenomenon is related to many values, customs, concepts, social and economic conditions, which result in the young mother (before her 18th birthday) having children before her biological and psychological maturity. Additionally, her reproductive health is incomplete and thus she gives birth to weak, undernourished and immature children, vulnerable to disability. The mother is still unable to assume the responsibility of motherhood and she lacks awareness of health, psychological and educational principles in the upbringing of her children.

The problem is compounded by the trend to increase the number of births to compensate for the loss of children due to high proportion of Infant mortality and short periods of time between successive births, which increases the likelihood of disability among children and the severe vulnerability of the mother (Tariq and Rabeeb 2008). Families who marry off their daughters at such a young age may believe that it is in the girls' best interest, not realizing that they are violating their daughters' human rights (Farzaneh Roudi-Fahimi and Shaimaa Ibrahim 2013).

Figure 4. Percentage of Women Ages 20 to 24 Who Married Before Their 18th Birthday



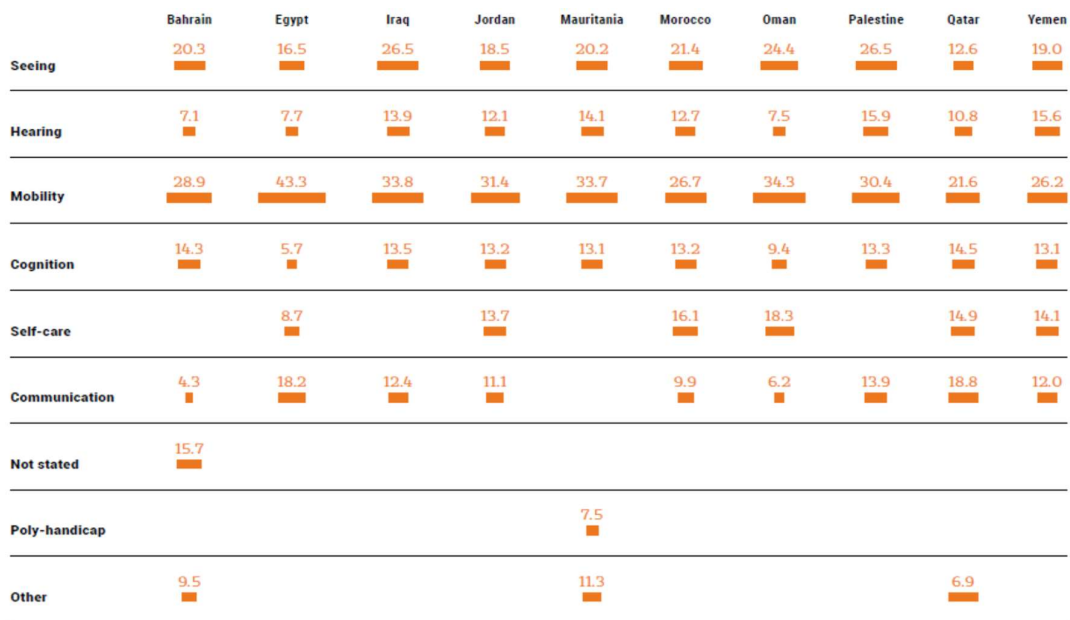
Sources: Farzaneh Roudi-Fahimi and Shaimaa Ibrahim, 2013.

TYPES OF DISABILITIES IN ARAB COUNTRIES

Seeing and hearing impairment, mobility, cognition, self-care and communication are the most common types of disability in Arab countries (Figure 5). Iraq, Jordan, Morocco, Palestine, Qatar, Sudan and Yemen—have allowed for multiple disability types per person, meaning that the total number of disability instances in these countries is higher than the total number of persons with disabilities (ESCWA, 2018). Disabilities related to mobility are the most common type in all countries. In Egypt, they account for as much as 43.3 per cent of all disabilities, whereas Qatar has the lowest proportion at 21.6 per cent. Disabilities pertaining to hearing make up between 10.8 and 15.9 per cent of the total in all countries apart from Bahrain and Egypt, where the respective shares are 7.1 and 7.7

per cent. Cognitive disabilities amount to 5.7 per cent of disabilities in Egypt, 9.4 per cent in Oman and between 13.1 and 14.5 per cent in all other countries. As for communication difficulties, the spread is even more considerable. In Bahrain, this form of disability represents a mere 4.3 per cent of total disabilities—less than one fourth of the proportion in Qatar, at 18.8 per cent. The proportions relating to self-care are similarly divergent, spanning between 8.7 per cent in Egypt and 18.3 per cent in Oman. For Qatar, Bahrain and Mauritania, there is a residual category for “other” disabilities, which in the three countries account for 6.9, 9.5 and 11.3 per cent respectively. Bahrain has a category called “not stated” which makes up 15.7 per cent of all disabilities, whereas Mauritania has one for “poly-handicap” at 7.5 per cent (ESCWA 2018).

Figure 5. Types of disabilities as percentage of total



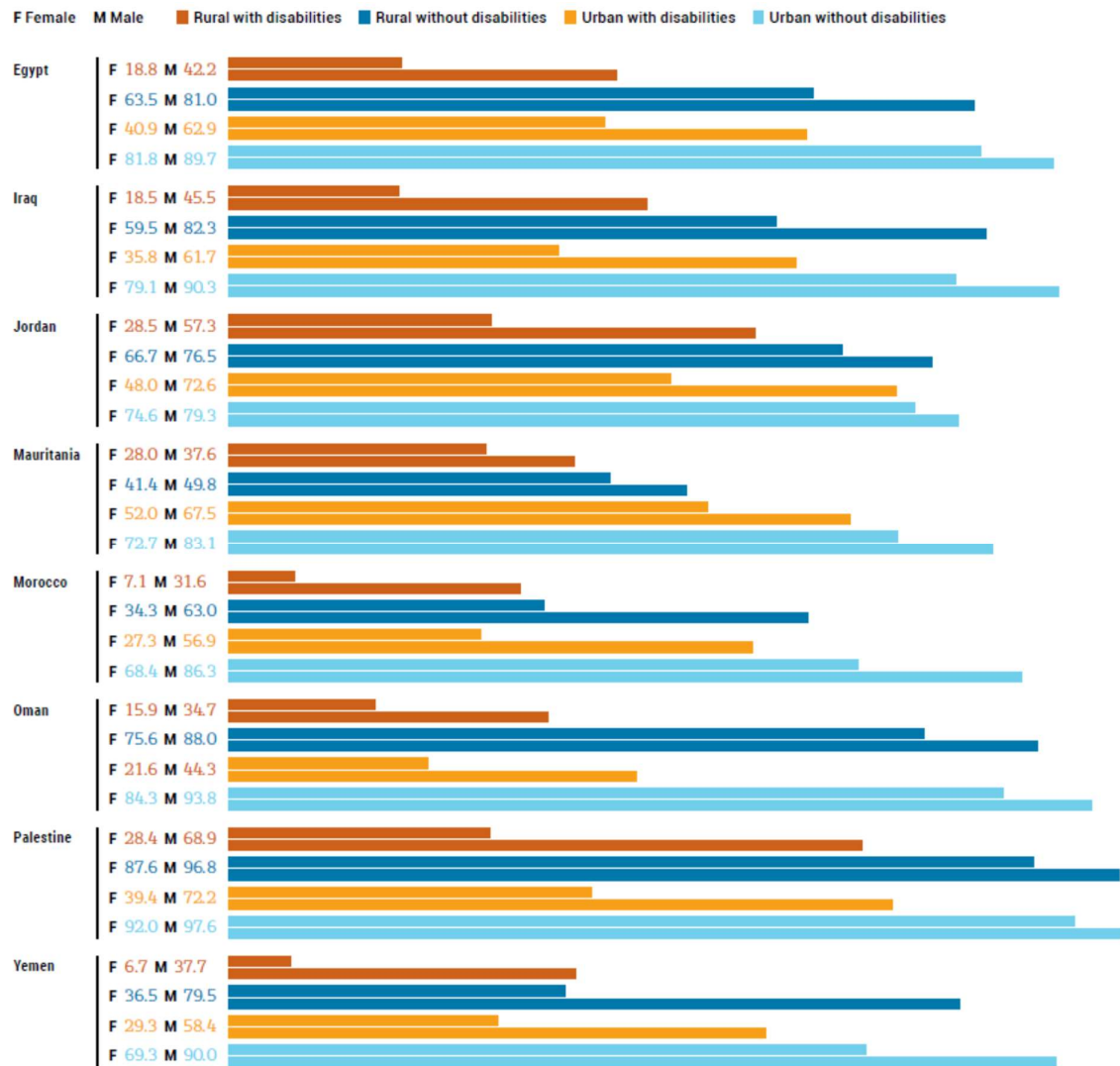
Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (2018). *Disability in the Arab Region 2018*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2018/1. Beirut, p. 21.

EDUCATION IN ARAB COUNTRIES FOR PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

According to Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA, 2018), the rate of literacy, in the Arab region, for persons with disabilities is not equal to that for persons without disabilities. Moreover, gender and location have a word to say, as they are negatively correlated with

literacy. As shown in figure 6, females with disabilities in rural areas have the lowest rates. On the other hand, men without disabilities in urban areas, are in all countries the most literate group. Females with disabilities in urban areas have the second lowest literacy rate, and males with disabilities in rural areas the third lowest (ESCWA, 2018).

Figure 6. Percentage of the population aged 15 and above who are literate

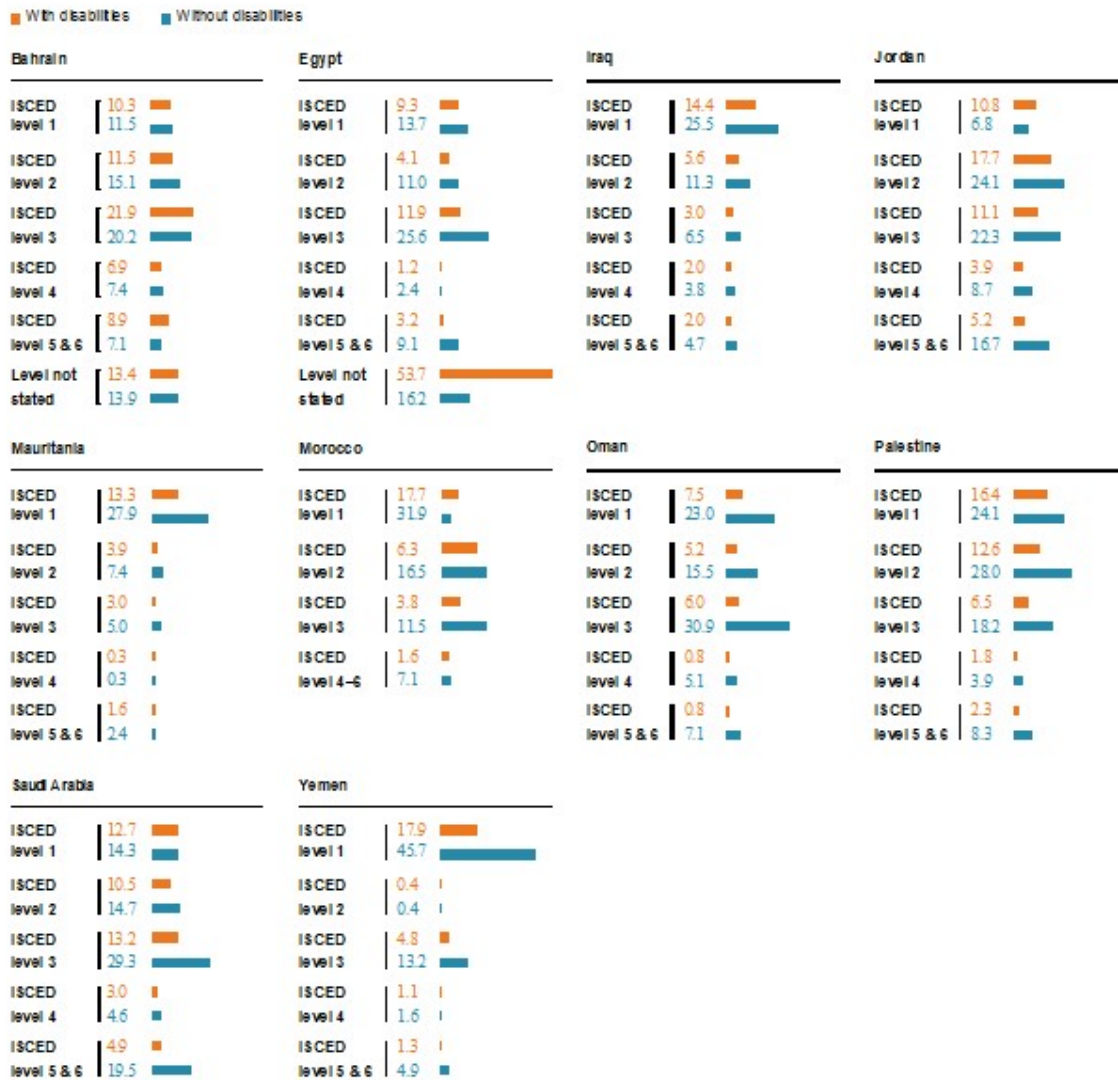


Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (2018). *Disability in the Arab Region 2018*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2018/1. Beirut, p. 35.

Concerning educational attainment, persons with disabilities in the Arab region (as shown in Figure 7.) are significantly less likely than persons without disabilities to have attained any form of education. In Jordan, for instance, the rate of persons without disabilities having attained ISCED level 1 or higher (78.6 per cent) is only 1.6 times higher than the rate among persons with disabilities (48.7 per cent). In Palestine for in-

stance, the proportion of persons without disabilities who have attained any form of education (82.5 per cent) is 2.1 times higher than the proportion of persons without disabilities having done so (39.6 per cent), but the proportion of attainment at ISCED levels 5 or 6 is 3.6 times higher among persons without disabilities (8.3 per cent) than among persons with disabilities (2.3 per cent) (ESCWA 2018).

Figure 7. Educational attainment (%)

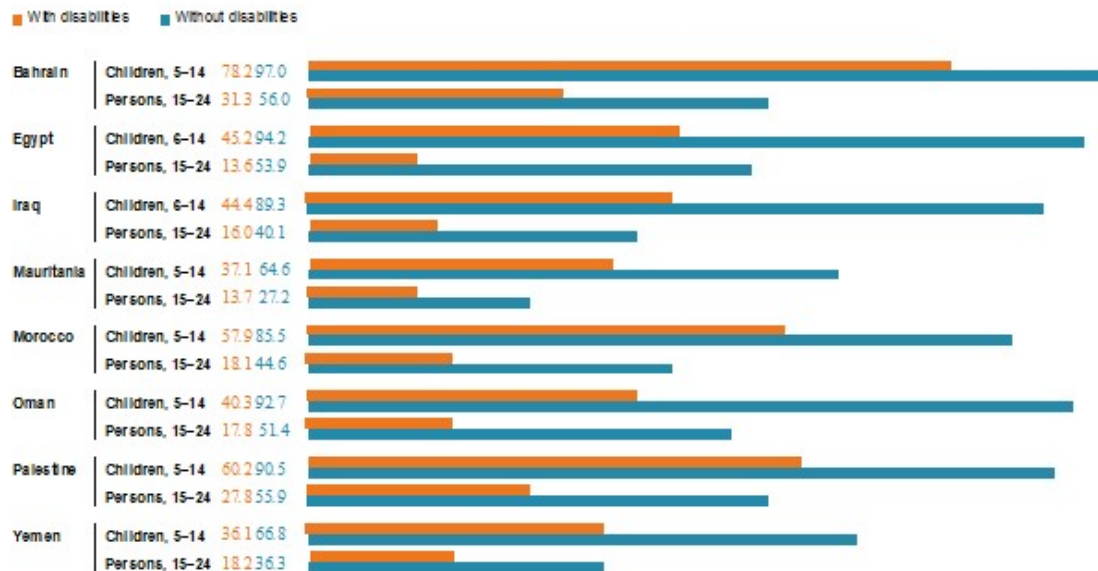


Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (2018). *Disability in the Arab Region 2018*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2018/1. Beirut, p.36.

As for school attendance, persons with disabilities encounter a multitude of barriers to schooling. The attendance of persons with disabilities, according to Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA 2018), remains strikingly lower than that of persons without disabilities. There is a significant drop in school attendance from ages 5-14 years to 15-24 years, persons with disabilities are particularly underrepresented among students aged 15-24, indicating a higher dropout rate and

lower level of higher educational attainment. In Egypt, for example, the attendance rate for persons with disabilities is 3.3 times higher in the younger age span (45.2 per cent) than in the older one (13.6 per cent). Among persons without disabilities, meanwhile, the attendance rate is only 1.7 times higher in the younger age span (94.2 per cent) than in the older (53.9 per cent) (ESCWA, 2018) (Figure 8.).

Figure 8. School attendance (%)



Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (2018). *Disability in the Arab Region 2018*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2018/1. Beirut, p. 38.

PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES IN THE LABOUR FORCE IN ARAB COUNTRIES

▪ UNITED ARAB EMIRATES

The UAE provides for equal and fair employment opportunities to Emiratis of determination (disabilities). Two laws protect employment rights of citizens of determination. They are: Federal Law No. 29 of 2006 Concerning the Rights of People with Special Needs and Dubai Government Law No. 2 of 2014. The federal law stipulates that UAE nationals with special needs have the right to work and occupy public positions. Article 16 of the law provides: UAE nationals with special needs have the right to work and hold public office. Their special needs shall not be a barrier for their nomination and selection for a job. Special needs should be taken into account while testing the candidate's competency for the work.

The law issued by Dubai Government protects the rights of citizens with special needs in the emirate of Dubai. The UAE has also ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. This way, the UAE strives to empower and promote the social

inclusion of all. (UAE <https://www.government.ae/en/information-and-services/jobs/employment-of-people-with-special-needs>).

▪ BAHRAIN

Bahrain joined the Arab Convention on the Employment and Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons No. 17 of 1993 by virtue of Decree-Law No. 3 of 1996. It also acceded to the International Labor Convention No. 159 of 1983 concerning vocational rehabilitation and employment of persons with disabilities, since the Emiri Decree No. 17 of 1999 was issued, emphasizing the care and protection of people with disabilities and their rights. The Bahraini Labor Law in the private sector includes a special organization for those with disabilities, provides the necessary legal protection. The Ministry of Labor pays great attention to include people with disabilities in the labor market. Private sector companies and institutions are committed to employ a percentage. The Ministry of Labor has taken some steps to activate, encourage and apply this law, by calculating the employment of disabled persons, within the proportion of Bahrainis (Cultural forum for people with special needs 2005).

- OMAN

The Ministry of Social Development is responsible for the employment of persons with disabilities through:

- Forming a committee headed by the Ministry of Social Development and the Ministry of Manpower to follow up the issue through the Joint Working Group with the Ministry of Manpower to search for suitable jobs for persons with disabilities in the private sector according to their qualifications, physical and mental abilities.
- 56 persons with disabilities were employed in 2008 - 2009. The number of employees reached 110. In 2010 97 persons with disabilities were employed in private sector institutions.
- The private sector is committed to allocate 2% of employment for persons with disabilities according to the Omani Labor Law and the Law for the Care and Rehabilitation of Disabled Persons.
- Allocating at least 1% of the total number of jobs to persons with disabilities in accordance with the decision of the Civil Service Council No. 1/2009.
- A special committee was set up for the rehabilitation, training and employment of persons with disabilities under the chairmanship of the Undersecretary of the Ministry of Manpower for Vocational Training and Technical Education.
- Opening public vocational training centers to accept persons with disabilities starting from the training year 2010/2011 (<https://qanoon.om/p/2008/rd2008063>).

- JORDAN

Article (25), Law No. (20) for the Year 2017, Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities Act states:

- No person may be excluded from employment or from training on the basis of, or because of disability. Disability in itself should not be considered a barrier for preventing candidacy for holding or assuming a position or job and for retaining

such position or job and attaining promotions therein.

- It is forbidden for announcements of employment or job vacancies or forms related to candidacy or occupancy thereof to include provisions on the need to be free from disability.
- Both of the Ministry of Labor and Vocational Training Corporation will, each according to their area of competence and in coordination with the Council, execute the following:
 - Include into the policies, strategies, plans, and programs of work, technical and vocational education and training and related curricula measures that will guarantee the inclusion of persons with disabilities, and will secure utilization thereof on an equal basis with others.
 - Prepare the curricula and services extended within the vocational training programs and provide such services in formats accessible to persons with disabilities in a manner that enables them to benefit from such programs and services.
 - Refrain from excluding persons with disabilities from training in any profession after accommodations have been made because of disability.
- Both government and non-government authorities will provide reasonable accommodation to enable persons with disabilities to carry out their job or tasks and to retain their jobs and attain promotions therein.
- Without undermining work or job requirements related to educational or professional qualifications, government and non-government organizations with at least (25) employees and workers and no more than (50) employees each pledge to hire at least one employee with disabilities to fill out one of its vacancies. In the event that there are more than (50) employees hired by these organizations, (4%) of the relevant vacancies should be assigned to

persons with disabilities, according to a decision made by the Ministry of Labor (The Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan 2017).

▪ SAUDI ARABIA

The Labour Code Law was legislated in the year 1969 and focuses mainly on labour rights and on detailed vocational rehabilitation for people with disabilities. The Regulation of Rehabilitation Programme No. 1355 looks towards establishing a rehabilitation programme with the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of Social Affairs so as to prepare persons with disabilities for employment generation in the country along with providing information about types of services and employment available to persons with disabilities (Al-Lamki 2007). The Labour and Workmen Law of the year 1969 seeks to generate employment opportunities for people with disabilities by establishing and organising institutions responsible for the provision of vocational training services to individuals with disability/disabilities. It promotes the employment of persons with disabilities in Article 54 of the written law. The Legislation of Disability was passed in 1987 focused on important provisions and guaranteed people with disabilities equal rights to those of other people in society which also include employment. The Disability Code was passed in the year 2000 by the Saudi government and seeks to ensure that people with disabilities have access to free and proper medical, psychological, social, educational, and employment opportunities through rehabilitation services and public agencies (Daliah Alkhouli 2015)

▪ QATAR

As stated in Article (5):

A minimum of 2 per cent of the total number of job opportunities with the competent authorities shall be allocated for Special Needs Persons holding the certificates or ID cards referred to in Article 4. Such appointment shall be in accordance with the capabilities and qualifications of the people with special needs based on the nomination of the Council, in coordination with the competent authorities. Each private sector employer employing more than twenty-five (25) persons shall undertake that 2 per cent or at least one person

of their workforce shall comprise Special Needs Persons, and such employment to be subject to the written consent of the Council. In all cases, subject to the written consent of the Council, the appointment on the above jobs may not be from non-special needs persons, except in the case of lack of the proper qualifications to fill in the required post (Law No. 2 of 2004 in respect of People with Special Needs).

▪ TUNISIA

Law n° 2016-41 dated 16 May 2016, amending the orientation law n° 2005-83 dated 15 August 2005, relating to the promotion and protection of disabled persons.

Art. 30—Any enterprise or establishment public or private normally employing between 50 and 99 workers, is required to reserve at least a working post to disabled persons. Any enterprise or establishment public or private normally employing 100 persons and more, is required to reserve a rate of at least 2% of the working posts to disabled persons. The same rate is reserved at least in the granting of professional authorizations by the ministries, the public establishments, the local and regional authorities and the professional organizations. The implementation of the recruitment of the disabled persons is carried out within the same deadlines of other (<http://www.legislation.tn>).

▪ EGYPT

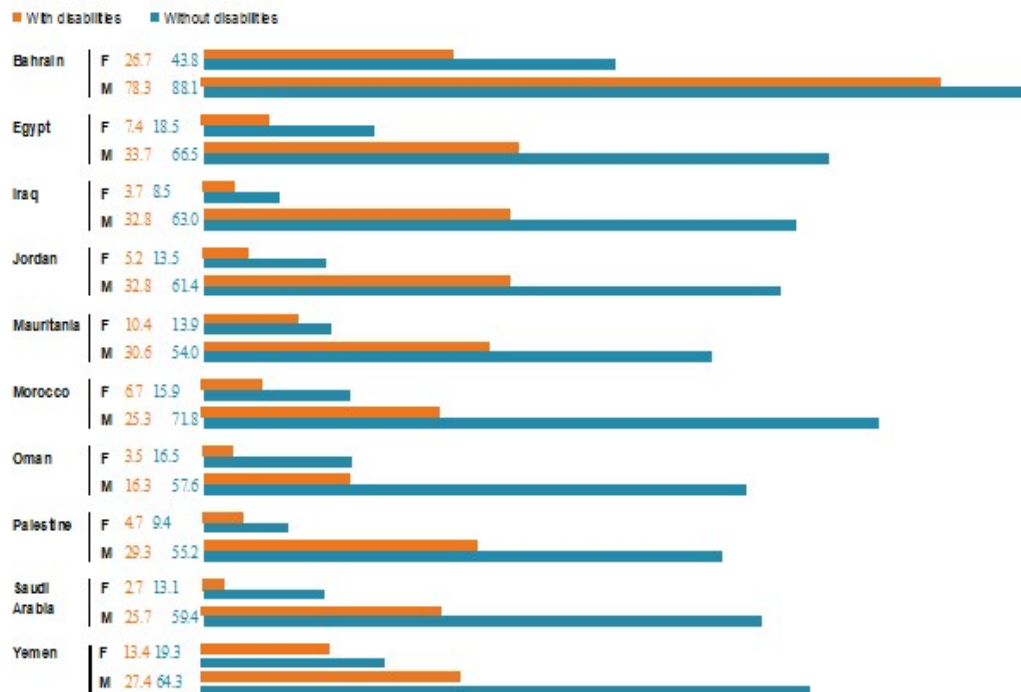
In Chapter Two: The Right to Work, in the Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities No. 10 of 2018, Article 20: "The State shall guarantee the right of persons with disabilities to equal opportunities for employment commensurate with their educational qualifications and vocational training. It also undertakes not to subject them to any form of forced or compulsory labor. The State must also protect them in fair working conditions, seek to open their labor markets at home and abroad, and enhance their employment opportunities through direct entrepreneurship, comprehensive development activities and projects in the light of the social policies of the State. The State is also committed to providing adequate safety and facilitation arrangements for persons with disabilities in the workplace, ensuring

enjoying and practicing their labour and trade union rights, enabling them to have effective access to technical and vocational guidance programs, employment services, vocational and continuing training and prohibiting any discrimination or denial of any benefits or Rights on the basis of disability in employment, type of employment, promotions or remuneration and accessories (Egypt: Law on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities No. 10 of 2018)

Despite these legislations, the employment rate for persons with disabilities, as reported by Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA, 2018), is no higher than 14 per cent for women and 34 per cent for men, and often much lower than that (Figure 9.). Non-employment among people with disabilities is due to two reasons: economic inactivity and unemployment *per se*. The rate of economic inactivity among women with disabilities, compared to women without disabilities, is above 84 per cent in all countries for which data are available, reaching 95.4 per cent in Iraq (Figure 10. ESCWA 2018). Among men with disabilities, compared to men without disabilities, the rate of economic inactivity

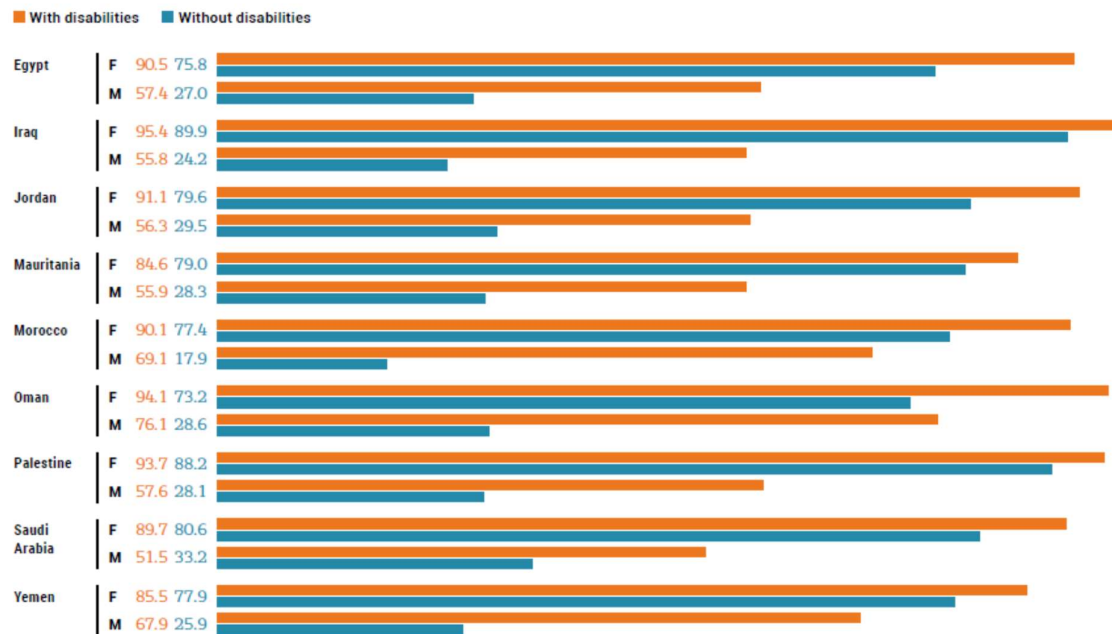
varies between 50 and 70 per cent, apart from in Oman where it stands at 76.1 per cent. In Morocco, notably, the rate of economic inactivity is 3.9 times higher among men with disabilities (69.1 per cent) than among men without disabilities (17.9 per cent; ESCWA 2018). An unemployment, on the other hand, is higher among persons with disabilities of both genders (Figure 11.). The most extreme differences are in Saudi Arabia, where the unemployment rate for women with disabilities (75.3 per cent) is 2.3 times higher than the rate for women without disabilities (32.8 per cent), and the rate for men with disabilities (48.6 per cent) 4.2 times higher than the rate for men without disabilities (11.5 per cent, ESCWA 2018). Yemen has the lowest unemployment rates for women as well as for men with disabilities (5.8 and 13.7 per cent). The female rate, notably, is less than half of the one for women without disabilities (12.6 per cent). The rate for men with disabilities, meanwhile, is only marginally higher than the one for men without disabilities (12.9 per cent, ESCWA 2018).

Figure 9. Employment rate among the population aged 15–64 (%)



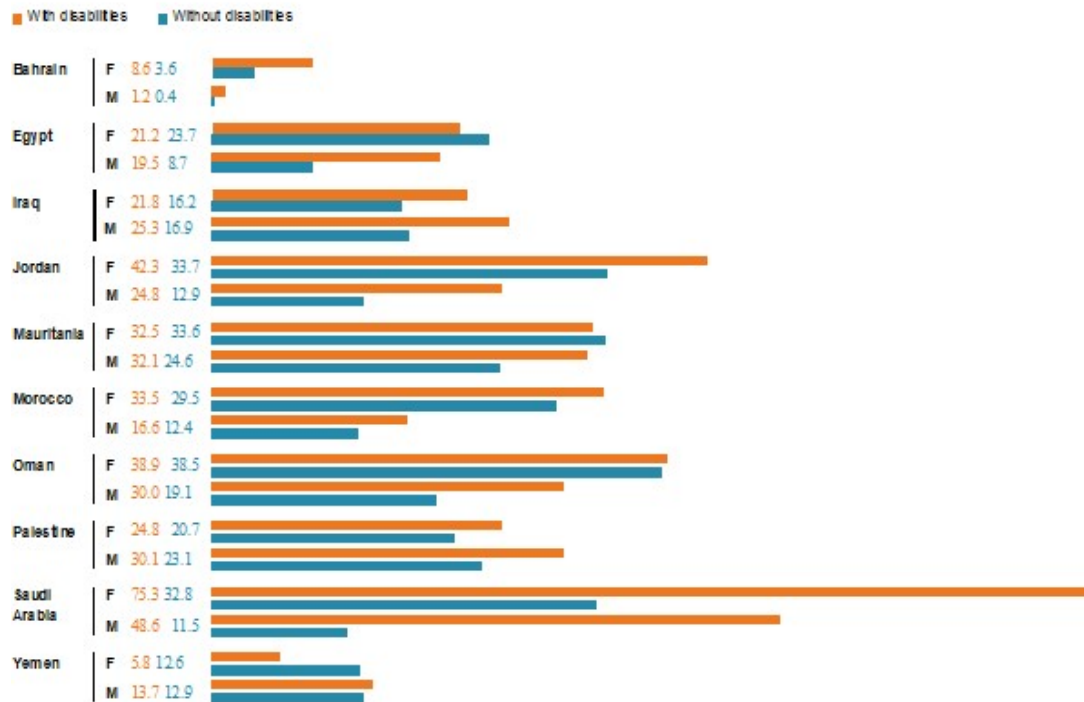
Source: Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA). Disability in the Arab region. 2018, p. 41.

Figure 10. Economic inactivity rate among the population aged 15–64 (%)



Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (2018). *Disability in the Arab Region 2018*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2018/1. Beirut, p. 42.

Figure 11. Unemployment rates among the population aged 15 and above (%)



Source: United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (2018). *Disability in the Arab Region 2018*, E/ESCWA/SDD/2018/1. Beirut, p. 43.

CONCLUSION

In this paper, the authors lead a theoretical and comparative analysis of data and results from empirical research on disability phenomena in Arab countries, published in the ECSWA report of 2018. The above theoretical and comparative analysis does not exhaust the topic but is rather the initiation of exploration, indicating important issues for broader analyzes in subsequent publications. What can be seen in the data and results of comparative research is that contemporary disability concepts and attitude to disability phenomena in the Arab worlds have been subject of evolution, analogous to the other countries of the world or Western culture on a metaphorical continuum from various form of discrimination of people with disabilities to acceptance and gradual steps towards inclusion meant as fifth pattern of attitudes towards disabilities in cultures, indicated by Douglas (2002). Nowadays, the Arab countries analyzed in the paper took care of the protection of the education law and the rights to work of people with disabilities. Even so, can be seen in the primary data and results in charts, access to education and its completion is significantly lower for disabled students compared to non-disabled students in Arab countries. As well as to work access of Arabs with disabilities is also lower than for non-disabled persons. Additionally the data revealed gender differences, to the detriment of employment of women with disabilities in particular countries from the Arab world.

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EFFECTIVENESS OF A PIVOTAL RESPONSE TRAINING PROGRAMME IN JOINT ATTENTION AND SOCIAL INTERACTION OF KINDERGARTEN CHILDREN WITH AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDER

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to provide a training program based on pivotal response for children with autism spectrum disorder, which may affect positively on improving their joint attention and social interaction. Participants were six female children enrolled in public and private kindergartens and autism programs in Zulfi, Saudi Arabia for the second semester of the year 1435/1436 AH, who were diagnosed as having autism disorder. For data collection, Joint Attention Skills Inventory For Kindergarten Children with Autism Disorder, and Social Interaction Scale of Kindergarten Children with Autism Disorder were employed. A single group, pre-post and follow up design across participants was implemented. Six participants, data were obtained during pre, post-treatment, and at one-month follow-up. The study results showed that the pivotal response training intervention was effective in increasing joint attention skills (initiating and responding to signs, eye contact and follow the gaze of others, attract others' attention while playing, follow the instructions, Sharing feelings and emotional state and imitation) and social interaction (belonging to the group, communication, and cooperation) of all children participated in this study. Recommendations for further research were discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

Autism spectrum disorder is characterized by persistent deficits in social communication and social interaction across multiple contexts, including deficits in social reciprocity, nonverbal communicative behaviours used for social interaction, and skills in developing, maintaining, and understanding relationships (Abdullah and Mourad Ali Eissa 2014; American Psychiatric Association 2013). Deficits in communication and social interaction specified in Criterion A are remaining and permanent (Mourad Ali Eissa 2017), and in order to diagnose the neuro-developmental disorder there should be restricted, repetitive patterns of behaviour, interests, or activities (Mourad Ali Eissa 2018).

Bad joint attention with other people are important factors in the lack of social interaction among individuals with autism spectrum disorder (Rogers and Dawson 2009), as they rarely focus on joint activities while interacting with their other people such as peers, parents, and teachers. They turn into repetitive and stereotypical behaviours that are less relevant to their interaction and lack of preference for visual communication with the interactive partner and preference for visual attention to non-social stimuli, All of which are indicative of a social deficits of these individuals (Koegel, Matos-Freeden, Lang, and Koegel 2011).

Autism research has increasingly put great effort to joint attention as it is sign of a sign social skills deficiency, and this deficiency appears even before the child acquires language (Mourad Ali Eissa 2015). Substantial differences in early joint attention (JA) skills are likely to highlight the neural behavioral chain related to the disorder. The early interventions is therefore aimed to develop joint attention skills that are "pivotal" to the development of other vital areas, such as social and linguistic skills (Kasari, Gulsrud, Wong, et al. 2010). Pivotal Response Training (Pivotal Response Training) is one of the earliest early natural interventions of children with autism spectrum disorders to increase their social interactions and interpersonal skills (Humphries 2003). This approach is based on applied behavioral analysis, which may help reduce negative responses, develop social interaction, and joint attention. It also reduces reliance on the

abnormal stimuli of autistic children, while emphasizing holistic settings that include their interactions with ordinary people with the presence of natural stimuli. In the light of the lack of joint attention skills with the inadequacy deficits in other skills such as social skills among others in children with autism spectrum disorder, and the vital importance of these skills in improving the level of social and other skills of these children, the current research attempts to provide a training program based on pivotal response for children with autism spectrum disorder, which may affect positively on improving their joint attention and social interaction.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

An extensive study was conducted to investigate officially the statistics of autism within the Kingdom in recent years. This study was called the "National Project for the Study of Autism and Similar Developmental Disorders in Saudi Children (2002-2005)". It was shown the prevalence of autism disorders in Makkah was (1.0), the highest prevalence of autism disorders in the Kingdom (Al-Wazzna, 2005, 6). The number of autistic children in schools and institutes in the Kingdom is estimated at 203 students (General Secretariat of Special Education, 2004-2). This percentage increased to (408) in the year 1427/1428H, up to (488) in the year 1428/1429 (General Secretariat for Special Education, 2012). Thus, there is a clear increase in the number of children diagnosed as having autism spectrum disorders in the Kingdom.

According to the Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, the prevalence of autism spectrum disorders among children is estimated to be one per 68 children (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention 2017). This percentage varies among societies. In tracking the prevalence of autism in Saudi Arabia, approved by the Saudi Council of Ministers ranges from (30000-42,500) cases of unification, including at least (8200) classic extreme cases (Al - Mughaloot, 2004, 1). A growing body of research (e.g. Amin 2008; Belind and Joyne, 2007; Connie et al. 2006; Reitman 2005) has emphasized the need for early intervention programs for children with autism because of their positive impact on all aspects of

their development, and to overcome their communication deficits. In general, early intervention programs have been shown by a wide range of studies to be able to empower children with autism spectrum disorder and improve their behaviours.

Nevertheless, we are still in need to additional research into pivotal response with kindergarten children with autism spectrum disorder. This current study aims to investigate a pivotal response training programme and its role in developing joint attention and social interaction of kindergarten children with autism spectrum disorder. Our question was "What is the effectiveness of a pivotal response training program in joint attention and social interaction of kindergarten children with autism spectrum disorder?" This question is divided by the following sub-questions.

1. Is there a difference in Joint Attention Skills following an intervention?
- 2- Is there a difference in Joint Attention Skills after a month from the intervention?
- 3- Is there a difference in Social Interaction following an intervention?
- 4- Is there a difference in Social Interaction after a month from the intervention?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Pivotal Response Training. Pivotal Response Training (PRT) is a method for the systematic application of Applied Principles of Behavioral Behavior Analysis (ABA), which aims to develop communication and social adaptation among children with autism disorder within the natural instructional environment. Child's initiative and interest come first, and this method is particularly of great effectiveness in developing forms of communication, language, play, and social behaviors (Humphries 2003).

It helps to reduce negative responses, dependency on abnormal stimuli, and at the same time emphasizes holistic settings that involve dealing with ordinary people in the presence of natural stimuli. The training method uses a pivotal response to the basic skills that are necessary for many other skills. If the child becomes good at one of these basic skills, he will be good too at a variety of behaviors he has not been trained in before. The goal is for the child to learn how to

conclude the correct answer. This method identifies the main and key responses of children with autism disorder; namely motivation, and responsiveness to multiple stimuli (Koegel and Koegel 2006).

The application of pivotal responses training method has demonstrated the ability to make positive changes in these "core responses" related to language communication and social interaction. Moreover, basic skills training provides guidance for teaching skills, which have been very successful in social aspects of children's language among children with autism disorder.

Pivotal response is based on the principle that the child is the master of the treatment and not the specialist or parent. Motivation strategies are frequently used during the intervention period, including: the introduction of various tasks, the re-examination of tasks to ensure that the child has acquired certain skill in a good way, the reward when trying, and the use of natural reinforcers. The child determines the activities and work that will be used in the program. This method is usually applied by qualified persons such as special education teachers, and psycholinguists (Koegel et al. 2011).

Koegel and Koegel (2006) has identified four pivotal areas for intervention: motivation, responsivity to multiple cues, self-management, and self-initiations.

Motivation. Improved child motivation is associated with increased responsiveness to environmental stimuli, reduced response rate and emotional fluctuation. This has been shown to affect communication, attention and social interactions.

Responsivity to multiple cues. It focuses on teaching children how to respond to many stimuli in order to enable them to spread this skill in multiple settings, such as home, school, and society, as well as facilitate learning, and often the responses of autistic children are limited to a few set of elements and stimuli that are not interconnected in their environments. This is so-called "excessive choice of stimuli." For this reason, instructions to the child must contain more than one stimulant so that the child can pay attention to them. Therefore, lessons involving many stimuli provide children with instructions that contain more than one element.

Self-management. It focuses on teaching children how to recognize what is undesirable behaviour, collect data about their behaviour, and do self-promote before requesting rewards from others.

Self-initiations. It focuses on teaching children to take initiatives naturally resulting from environmental stimuli. Self-initiative training primarily involves teaching children to ask automatic questions in order to obtain information. Self-help questions include open-ended questions, help-seeking questions, and information request questions.

Joint Attention. Both Sullivan (2007) and Donna et al. (2008) have defined joint attention as a vital skill that develops at an early stage in an individual's life, through which social coordination is established with others, where experience is shared with others. They pointed out that joint attention is more than just two people looking at the same thing, but there is a synchronization between the participants to coordinate the attention between this thing and the other person, and this is done through many skills that include (alternating eye gaze, responding to the other). Joint attention affects many aspects of development (cognitive, social, linguistic and emotional). I, the researcher, will adopt the previous definition in this current research.

Children with Autism Spectrum lack attention to things that others are aware of. If these children are alerted to certain things, it is often by drawing attention from others. Therefore, they lack initiating joint attention and response to it, so the failure of the child to pay attention to the surrounding things makes him unable to communicate with others (Ibanez 2010). These children also lack the ability to pay attention to others faces. As a result, they do not receive social information provided by others, as in the case of joint attention. This, in turn, has something to do in understanding the shortcomings in social behavior associated with autism spectrum disorder (Gomez 2010).

The main function of joint attention is to communicate nonverbally with others, where the child shares with someone else to show interest in something (Boucher 2007). The social function of this is to stimulate the child's motivation to share with others the surrounding topics. There is also a link between joint attention skills and other social

behaviours such as visual communication, emotion, imitation and the child uses joint attention behaviors to share their interests or comment on something (Kasari, Paparella, Freeman and Jahromi 2008).

Some researchers (e.g. Hurwitz and Watson 2016) indicate that lack of joint attention among autistic children is correlated with lack of their social interactions. This is due to the fact that the early lack of joint attention deprives these children of social information at an early stage.

Social interaction among kindergarten children with autism disorder. Poor social interaction is one of the most common signs of autism. Khattab (2005), and Zeiton (2003) claim that the child with autism disorder suffers from severe loneliness, lacks response to others because of his inability to properly understand and use language, lacks attachment and communication with others, and response to others.

According to Smith et al. (2010) and Conroy et al. (2007), the development of social skills and social understanding for children with autism is a challenge for parents, teachers, caregivers, educational support workers, psychologists Educators, and leaders in educational well-being. These children need social support from their surroundings. Siklos and Kerns (2006) explains that social support for children with autism is represented in information that leads children to believe other appreciate, love and value them. Weiss (2007) argues that social skills are the most pressing goals that autistic children need to learn, as they represent the foundation for the success of these children.

METHODS

PARTICIPANTS

Participants were six female children enrolled in public and private kindergartens and autism programs in Zulfi, Saudi Arabia for the second semester of the year 1435/1436 AH, who were diagnosed as having autism disorder. Their IQ ranged from (65-75) on Arab Stanford-Binet individual intelligence test (2001), with an average of (70.3) and a standard deviation (1.1). They aged (4.6) years, with an average of (5.6) years, and a standard deviation (0.59). They were matched on mental age, level of joint attention, and level of social interaction.

DESIGN

A single group, pre-post and follow up design across participants was implemented. Six participants, data were obtained during pre, post-treatment, and at one-month follow-up.

INSTRUMENTS

Joint Attention Skills Inventory For Kindergarten Children with Autism Disorder (By the research)

. This inventory was developed particularly for this research with the aim of detecting level of joint attention skills for autistic children while interacting with others in different settings. In developing this inventory, the researcher reviewed literature regarding different instruments (e.g. Kasari, Paparella, Freeman and Jahromi 2008; Mourad Ali Eissa 2015). According to an empirical study, and literature review, the researcher developed the final inventory uses the Likert-type scale – Always (3), sometimes (2) and never (1). Composite score is 90. There are six domains in the inventory. They are: Initiating and responding to signs, eye contact and follow the gaze of others, attract others' attention while playing, follow the instructions, sharing feelings and emotional state, and imitation. The higher the child's score on the inventory, the higher the level of joint attention skills he has, and vice versa. The scale reliability was high (0.84).

Validity was estimated using internal consistency. Values were as follows: Initiating and responding to signs (0.690), eye contact and follow the gaze of others (0.773), attract others' attention while playing (0.785), follow the instructions (0.777), Sharing feelings and emotional state (0.815), and imitation (0.907), all of which were significant at the level (0.01).

Social Interaction Scale or Kindergarten Children with Autism Disorder (By the research). This scale was developed particularly for this research with the aim of detecting level of social interaction among autistic children. There are three domains in the scale. They are belonging to the group (5 Items), communication (5 Items), and cooperation (5 Items). Composite score is 30.

Reliability coefficient using test-re-test was (0.87). Validity was estimated using Inter-observer agreement which ranged from 90-100%.

TRAINING PROGRAM

The program was designed in accordance with a

set of principles of programs for the treatment of children with disorders. The program was evaluated according to the characteristics of children and their different abilities, taking into consideration the individual differences, needs and interests of these. A number of general, psychological, educational, social, neurological, and physiological foundations have been drawn. Considerations to be taken during the development and implementation of the program are as follows.

1. The diversity of the reinforcement used and be of the girl choice from among her favorite things.
2. Sequencing, organizing and arranging any skill before starting. Determining the roles of all (teacher, researcher and child).
3. Identify simple levels of behavior as a condition for providing reinforcement (desired behavior performance).
4. Knowing all the character of each child as much as possible to give her experiences appropriate.
5. Using passive reinforcement process of ignoring, simple punishment and temporary exclusion.
6. Using positive reinforcement, whether by means of material support or social support.
7. Using natural and realistic tools during training.
8. Training in different places that allow to perform these skills in order to disseminate the acquired skills.
9. Different trainers participate (teacher, researcher and child's mother).

TECHNIQUES AND STRATEGIES

Use of some behavioral therapy techniques: positive reinforcement, modeling, role play, modulation, simulation, role-playing, feedback. Besides some strategies: Getting attention, Providing options for the continuation of motivation, Variety of toys, Typical social behavior, Promoting attempts, Encouraging dialogue, Prolonging dialogue, Role sharing and Narrative games).

ACTIVITIES

1. Sensitive / dynamic activities for children to develop the skills of mobility, the development of social skills, social interaction and investment of child energy positively.
2. Activities for developing attention and skills of joint attention, awareness, concentration, thinking and education.

3. Various activities and programs aimed at training children in a pivotal response (increased motivation, response to multiple stimuli-self-initiation, playful teaser-significant enhancement of child's successes and material reinforcement).

MEANS AND TOOLS USED IN THE PROGRAM

A dark box - a wooden box with children's favourite toys, brochures with prominent drawings, toys of different sizes and colours, pencils, watercolour, blank plastic bottle, water bottle filled with water, perfume bottles in different shapes, pictures, models to express the experience to be reached, cubes, chords, lighting batteries, animals made of plastic, which produce sounds and bright colours, plastic household goods, plastic fruit, photo of pets and domestic birds, pictures of some people familiar to the child, beans, colored beads, cups of different colors and sizes, plastic dishes, plastic baskets, mirror, baby photos, plastic clips in different colors, stairs, a number of tables and chairs of

different sizes, some of the children's clothes (bibs, socks, jacket, hair cover).

FINDINGS

This study aimed at investigating if there is a difference in Joint Attention Skills following the intervention. The treatment consisted of pivotal response training. The Joint Attention Skills was assessed before and after the program application. As shown in Table 1. z-score results indicated that there was a difference in Joint Attention Skills following the intervention. The z-score results were (2.236) for initiating and responding to signs, (2.331) for eye contact and follow the gaze of others, (2.330) for attract others' attention while playing, (2.299) for follow the instructions, (2.197) for Sharing feelings and emotional state (2.189) for imitation and (2.150) for the composite score, $P < 0.01$. That is the pivotal response intervention could develop joint attention skills in children with autism positively.

Table 1. Comparison of Joint attention skills among treatment control groups (following the intervention)

Variables	Negative Ranks		Positive Ranks		Z Value	Sig.	Effect Size
	Mean	Sum	Mean	Sum			
Initiating and responding to signs	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.236	0.01	0.92
eye contact and follow the gaze of others	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.331	0.01	0.95
attract others' attention while playing	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.330	0.01	0.95
follow the instructions	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.299	0.01	0.94
Sharing feelings and emotional state	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.197	0.01	0.90
imitation	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.189	0.01	0.90
Composite	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.150	0.01	0.88

The difference in joint attention skills after a month from the intervention was examined and measured. As shown in Table 2. z-score results indicated that there was no difference in Joint Attention Skills following the intervention between post and follow-up test. The z-score results were (1.321) for initiating and responding to signs, (1.331) for eye contact and follow the

gaze of others, (1.436) for attract others' attention while playing, (1.321) for follow the instructions, (1.436) for Sharing feelings and emotional state (1.543) for imitation and (1.414) for the composite score, p-values were not significant. This means that children with autism could, and still be able to develop their joint attention skills.

Table 2. Comparison of Joint attention skills among treatment control groups (after a month from the intervention)

Variables	Negative Ranks		Positive Ranks		Z Value	Sig.
	Mean	Sum	Mean	Sum		
Initiating and responding to signs	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.321	Not
eye contact and follow the gaze of others	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.331	Not
attract others' attention while playing	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.436	Not
follow the instructions	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.321	Not
Sharing feelings and emotional state	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.436	Not
imitation	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.543	Not
Composite	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.414	Not

As for the third question "Is there a difference in Social Interaction following an intervention?", z-score results, as shown by Table 3 indicated that there was a difference in social interaction following the intervention. The z-score results were (2.239) for belonging to the group, (2.218)

for communication, (2.215) for cooperation, and (2.321) for the composite score. $P < 0.01$. That is the pivotal response intervention could develop social interaction in children with autism positively.

Table 3. Comparison of social interaction among treatment control groups (following the intervention)

Variables	Negative Ranks		Positive Ranks		Z Value	Sig.	Effect Size
	Mean	Sum	Mean	Sum			
belonging to the group	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.239	0.01	0.92
communication	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.218	0.01	0.89
cooperation	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.215	0.01	0.92
Composite	4.5	36	Zero	Zero	2.231	0.01	0.94

The difference in social interaction after a month from the intervention was examined and measured. As shown in Table 4. z-score results indicated that there was no difference in social interaction following the intervention between post and follow-up test. The z-score results were

(1.414) for belonging to the group, (1.633) for communication, (1.312) for cooperation, and (1.416) for the composite score, p-values were not significant. This means that children with autism could, and still be able to develop their social interaction.

Table 4. Comparison of social interaction among treatment control groups (after a month from the intervention)

Variables	Negative Ranks		Positive Ranks		Z Value	Sig.
	Mean	Sum	Mean	Sum		
belonging to the group	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.414	not
communication	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.633	not
cooperation	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.312	not
Composite	1.5	3	Zero	Zero	1.416	not

DISCUSSION

This study aimed at exploring how effective was pivotal response training intervention in joint attention skills and social interaction of children with autism spectrum disorder. Findings from this study showed that the pivotal response training strategy had great effectiveness on increasing joint attention skills (initiating and responding to signs, eye contact and follow the gaze of others, attract others' attention while playing, follow the instructions, sharing feelings and emotional state and imitation) and social interaction (belonging to the group, communication, and cooperation) of all the target children.

This study had many implications for the effectiveness of pivotal response literature. First, the pivotal response training was the only intervention employed to develop joint attention skills and social interaction of children with autism spectrum disorder. Consistent with this finding were other studies which addressed joint attention skills among children with autism (e.g. Amin 2008; Kasari et al. 2008; Jamison 2011; Jones, et al. 2006; Luckevich 2008), and social interaction (e.g. El Shakhseh et al. 2015; Feldman and Matos 2013; Kamil 2017; Nefdt et al. 2010; Thorp et al. 1995). Second, pre-post follow –up, single group design was employed in our study. Other studies have employed pre- post two (experimental – control) groups designs that are not assessing the continuation of learning effect. Furthermore, I did not give children with autism spectrum any reinforcers because they participated in the training sessions. This might influence the outcomes of the experiment. Thus it can be said that it was the pivotal response training intervention which did make the difference in the joint attention skills and social interaction of children with autism spectrum disorder who participated in the current study.

LIMITATIONS

Although this study has strong design and excellent statistics, there are some limitations that are believed to affect the study findings. They were: a) The small number of children (6 girls) who participated makes generalizability to other children difficult. So, future studies must consider investigating larger samples before the researchers

can make broad conclusions, b) Second, this study included only girls, this did not give us opportunity to investigate gender differences. Future research should address this concern.

RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

We, in the field of special needs children still in need to investigate the advantages and usefulness of pivotal response training intervention for children with autism spectrum disorder. Researchers may involve large sample, and investigate gender differences.

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BANGLADESHI UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' PERCEPTION ON USING GOOGLE CLASSROOM FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

Abstract: Google Classroom is an online learning platform developed by Google which enables both the teachers and learners to engage in 'beyond the classroom' learning in an innovative way. This paper focuses on the prospects of using Google classroom for learning English at the university level in Bangladesh. The prospect includes how the Bangladeshi university students think that this online tool may help them to communicate, as well as develop and organize their work to learn English effectively. Besides, this research tries to find out the challenges the learners face in terms of using Google classroom to learn English. Through this research some technical issues have been traced out which can be eradicated by Google to make Google classroom more user-friendly. Apart from that this paper also shows some challenging issues faced by the Bangladeshi learners while using Google classroom for teaching English.

Keywords: Google classroom, technology, prospects, challenges, teaching, learning, English

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INTRODUCTION

In today's modern world, teaching and learning is no more confined within the chalk and talk method. The process of teaching has changed in many ways over the past two decades. According to Patrick and Sturgis (2015), today's teachers are expected to facilitate better learning environment both inside and outside the classroom which may also be termed as "beyond the classroom" learning. This beyond the classroom learning ensures personalized, competency based and student centred environment. In order to provide such an environment, the first and foremost challenge is the growing dependence on technology and which has become central to the lives of the younger generation (Curtis 2013, 15). As the world is surrounded by technology and the internet, youths today are part of a digital generation where they are using mobile phones, computers, tablets and e-readers on a daily basis. Since the gadgets are increasing day by day, it is leading to the technology addiction among children.

Young people even toddlers are spending more and more time with digital technology. Some students are so fond of the use of gadgets that they can't control themselves to use it even inside the classroom, which in many ways distracts both the teachers and learners. Parents and teachers are very much anxious about this touch screen generation. Since the application of mobile technology is escalating, why not offer learners the option to learn anywhere, anytime and at their own convenience with the help of their electronic devices? Considering this matter, in 2014, Google planned for introducing a technology based learning platform through which these gadget loving young generation can be taught by using their much loved gadget where they usually spend most of the time of their day and night. And so did it happen; Google classroom transformed this problem of young generation's techno-dependency into a solution. It has become more than an online learning platform itself as a positive instance of technology, since it enhances personalized, anywhere & anytime learning which resembles learning beyond the classroom.

Use of technology for teaching and learning English is not a new trend. Computer-assisted language learning has commenced back in the 1960s. In this age of smart-phones, use of smart-

mobile-phones is very common with students and mobile phone is able to do rather more than the laptops or computers. So, mobile-assisted or app-based English language learning has also got the attention of researchers. Since Google classroom is also an app-based and web-friendly online learning platform, number of researchers tried to trace out Google classroom's prospects and challenges in terms of teaching and learning various subjects of different disciplines including science, social studies, business studies and so on. But not any considerable research work has been done in terms of teaching and learning English through Google classroom. Considering this as a research gap, through this paper, the researcher tried to find out tertiary level learners' perception towards the prospects and challenges of using Google classroom in terms of learning English.

Now, question may arise, why the researcher choose to find out learners' perception. Learning English language is less about learning knowledge and more about learning the skills- reading, writing, listening and speaking. In the course of learning these skills, a learner has to accomplish various tasks and activities. When Google classroom is used as a platform for learning English, the best critic of this online platform can be the learners.

Though the teachers basically regulate the activities in the Google classroom, it is the students who can tell the pros and cons of it since they have to deal with it practically for learning. So the prospects and challenges of "learning" English through Google classroom can best be shared by the learners' themselves. That is the reason for which the researcher tried to find out the learners' perception. The research has been conducted among the students of Daffodil International University as this university is the first in Bangladesh to make the use of Google classroom compulsory for teaching and learning in each and every department. This study aims to find out certain identifiers which trace out learners personal experience of the using technology, most specifically Google classroom, for learning English. Such identification will help both the English language teachers and learners those who use Google classroom by providing a read of what potential obstacles ought to be relieved before using it. Technical barriers faced by the learners (as found in this research) while using Google

classroom will give the concerned app-builders for possible update or improvement of the application.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It's a well-known fact that technology has turned out to be more focal in our regular day to day lives than ever before. It causes us in each part of our lives, from wellbeing and wellness to social communication. Today's students, who are often called as the 'Net Generation', grow up with technology. A large portion of them have never known existence without the Internet. They like to spend their whole day utilizing PCs, mobile phones, and other advanced media and have coordinated innovation into nearly all that they do. Clearly innovation is an essential piece of their lives. It has been noticed that, in educational institutions, there are students in the classroom who may, at first glance in any event, have all the earmarks of being more carefully skilled than their teachers are. To make them more engaged in learning, there has been augmented importance on the incorporation of technology into the classrooms (An and Reigeluth 2011, 54). Though teaching and learning are the indispensable features within a classroom, to support students' development and nourishment technology is significant to incorporate into the classroom. (Nemeth and Simon 2013, 52)

In foreign language teaching, technological devices have been used for decades. Computers were introduced to foreign language learning field already in 1960s (Al-Mahroogi and Troudi 2014) and the developments in technology have brought many new devices into teaching ever since. Variations have already been introduced and besides computers, mobile devices like smart phones and tablets have also become a part of teaching. A well-known concept in the studies of technology use in language learning is computer assisted language learning (CALL). The term was first used in the 1960s and originates from the United States (Thomas, Reinders and Rüschoff 2012). Both second language acquisition theories and trends in language pedagogy have modified the meaning of the term ever since (Davies, Otto and Rüschoff 2012). Apart from that, the revolutions in technology have shaped the term CALL. The use of portable digital devices, such as smart phones, laptops and tabs has become a norm in people's

lives; CALL has become more recognized as an innovative area of scholarship (Thomas, Reinders and Warschauer 2012). Nowadays, the development of different devices and applications has developed CALL to a point where national conferences are held and support is given by prominent international associations (Thomas, Reinders and Warschauer 2012). Since various applications are more and more integrated into language teaching, the study of CALL has become more familiar and thus there are constantly new facets to study.

Bebell and Kay (2010) said that students utilize laptop computers or hand held tablets daily as a part of the class curriculum, and many of these computing devices go home with the students at the end of the school day. In Bangladesh the scenario is almost same. Students like to use gadgets both in and outside the classroom. So, if students are allowed to provide class materials through these devices by which they can both learn within and beyond the classroom it would be very helpful for both the teachers and learners. Keeping this in mind, Google has introduced its learning app Google classroom in 2014. According to Wikipedia, Google Classroom is an online learning platform which promotes blended learning both within and beyond the classroom.

GOOGLE CLASSROOM

Basically it is an online teaching and learning aid that helps to simplify the process of taking and grading exams and assignments in a paperless way. Apart from these, this free application helps both the teachers and students to communicate well in order to engage beyond the classroom teaching and learning. As a feature of Google App, it is the only application that Google has designed exclusively for teachers and students. Google classroom can either be used as an app by installing it in the smart phones or it can be used in the computer as the desktop version. Iftakhar (2016) stated, "Google Classroom is meant to help teachers manage the creation and collection of student assignments in a paperless environment, basically leveraging the framework of Google Docs, Drive and other apps. Google classroom allows teachers to spend more time with their students and less time on the paperwork; which is now even better" (Iftakhar 2016, 12).

HOW DOES IT WORK?

Google Classroom presents more professional and authentic technology to use in learning environment as Google app represent "a significant portion of cloud-based enterprise communications tools used throughout the professional workforce." (Mary, 2014). One can create and join in a Google classroom if he/ she has a Gmail account. Creating Google class is very easy task and after creating the class, the teacher will provide class code to the learners. By using the code learners can directly incorporate them in the specific teacher's classroom. A teacher can create announcement, assignment, take exam or even can send e-mails to the students. Teacher can contact with the guardians through e-mail (If their e-mail addresses are provided) just by a single click. Unlike Google's regular services, Google Classroom does not allow any advertisements in its interface and user data is not used or scanned for advertising purposes.

Google has Google Doc, Dive, Calendar and form those can be integrated with Google classroom for more interactive learning and teaching. Google Calendar can be used for due dates and events outside the classroom, and other important "chronological data." Google Forms can be used for self-grading assessment. Learners could utilize the results to create new learning goals. In the Google form, classroom groups can be created based on interest, reading level, readiness or other factors for teaching and learning and also for group presentation and assignments. The students in the school or college usually maintain a diary that they use to record information about lectures or class materials. They take it home and additionally use it at school. A form can be created using Google by the learners which can play the same function of a reading diary to enter information about their reading. Google Doc is used to share documents and work collaboratively on writing projects. The teacher can even invite another Google user into class to do a guest lecture through Video Chat.

In Google Classroom, there is a timeline that appears by default when someone login to his/her class. This stream can be used to collect student opinions by creating discussion topics. Since the platform depends on Google Drive for transferring archives and assignments, it is additionally

encouraged to actualize the e-portfolio strategy. Both the learners and teachers can make documents and folders that can be shared between one another. If the learners work in groups, they can create their own shared folder. This is how the group's' work will be accessible to every one of the group, even if one or more are absent. As everything occurs in the cloud, everything should be possible offbeat.

USE OF GOOGLE CLASSROOM FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

It has been already mentioned that how does Google classroom basically work. Since this paper is about the use of Google classroom for learning English, some important points can be mentioned about the use of it for teaching and learning English. Learning English language is more or less about learning the four basic skills of English-Listening, reading, writing & speaking. So, for learning these four skills of English, Google classroom can be used as a medium in a very innovative way. Since the researcher has conducted this research among the tertiary level learners of English language those who use Google classroom for learning English, the possible tasks and activities which can be accomplished in the Google classroom for teaching these four skills are mentioned here.

▪ WRITING

For practicing English writing skill, students can be asked to write something on any topic based on their own experience and they are asked to upload those in the assignment section of Google classroom where only the teacher can see and read their write up. After submitting their write up, the teacher can also give feedbacks to the learners. Another way of engaging them for writing through Google classroom is to give them various interesting English videos in the Google classroom including movie clip, reality shows, speeches, documentaries etc. and they can be instructed to write their own review on those videos. Students often like these interesting videos and enthusiastically they engage in the writing activity.

▪ SPEAKING

First of all, Learners can be given some suggestions on some techniques for becoming a

better speaker. Video clips of famous orators or public speakers can also be uploaded for their convenience. Now, they will be asked to make their own video where each will be assigned to talk on any familiar but specific topic. They can also be asked to make English short documentaries/films on interesting and contemporary issues. They can make the documentary/film in groups so that their conversational skill will also be improved.

▪ LISTENING

For listening practice students can be given various listening practice audio along with practice sheet available on the internet. To make listening a bit interesting and to engage them enthusiastically they can be given English songs or interesting movie clips. Considering the learners' level of English proficiency, teachers have to make questions from the lyrics of the song and students can be asked to answer those questions by listening to the songs or movie clips. A quiz can also be arranged in the Google classroom.

▪ READING

There are enormous passages for practicing reading. Students can be provided those reading text along with multiple choice or fill in the gaps questions. These will help them to improve reading skill. Apart from that, story books can be assigned to them. After reading the book they have to submit a book review.

So these are some of the tasks associated with the four skills of English which can be incorporated through Google classroom for ensuring a better English learning environment to students.

METHODS

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The objective of the research is to find out the prospects and the challenges faced by the students in case of using Google classroom to learn English. The prospects include the ways which can be followed in order to learn English more effectively by using Google classroom whereas the challenges include the problems the students face while using it.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

There are two research questions on a broad line. These are:

- What are the prospects of Google classroom in learning English?
- What are the challenges of Google classroom faced by learners in learning English??

SIGNIFICANCE

The result of the study will help both the English language teachers and learners those who use Google classroom by providing a read of what potential obstacles ought to be relieved before using it. Technical barriers faced by the learners (as found in this research) while using Google classroom will give the concerned app-builders for possible update or improvement of the application. Apart from that the teachers can also take a look at the possibilities of using Google classroom from students' perspective which can also be implemented practically to help students be more engaged.

PARTICIPANTS

Sixty (60) students of Daffodil International University, Bangladesh are the participants of this research. Daffodil International University is the first and only university in Bangladesh to introduce mandatory use of Google classroom for each and every department. Teachers of every course including English, use this online platform for an effective blended learning. The participants were from Department of Pharmacy and Department of Business Administration. These students were from first semester and they had a 03 credit "Basic English" course. In this course the four basic skills of communication are integrated and thus there are activities related to all these four skills some of which are also incorporated and practiced through Google classroom. Among the participants, 30 were male and 30 were female. That is, the ratio of male-female participant is 50:50. The age range of the participants is mostly within 18-21 years.

INSTRUMENTS

An electronic survey was created using Google Forms for collecting and comparing responses. The survey questionnaire was consisted of two sections. The first section of the questionnaire was

consisted of 20 prompts to which the learners could rate their agreement or disagreement via Likert scale. All the questions are asked on the basis of the theoretical research in literature review that is their experience of the use of Google classroom in terms of learning four specific skills of English. The last part has two questions based on the participants' personal opinion regarding the use of Google classroom in learning English. Apart from the questionnaire, students' comments on various posts in Google classroom were also taken into consideration for finding the result of the research. At times, while using it, they shared their problems and posted those problems on the stream (timeline) of Google classroom. Those problems were also noted carefully and used as the instruments of the research.

METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

Data found from the questionnaire have been analysed on the basis of Likert Scale. The comments, responds and the problems of the participants are analysed following the "narrative analysis" method. The participants mentioned some technical issues as "problems of using Google classroom", which are again tested by a Google classroom expert. It has been found that some of those "problems" are not truly technical problem rather they faced those due to their lack of practical knowledge.

LIMITATIONS

The study was conducted only among sixty students of two departments of Daffodil International University. Although, there are total 24 departments in Daffodil International University, due to time constraints it was not possible to take everyone's opinion. So, the number of participants was not huge. Another thing is that it would be better if detailed interview of some of the students could be taken.

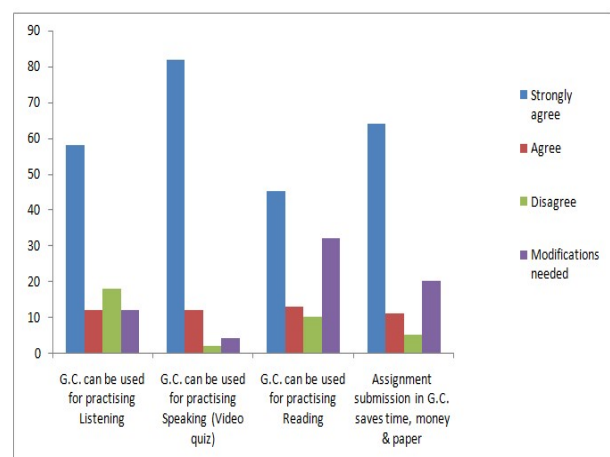
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

From the opinion of the students the prospects and the challenges of using Google classroom (G.C.) are sort out and mentioned here:

BENEFITS OF GOOGLE CLASSROOM (G.C.) FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

82 percent learners said that it can easily be used anytime and anywhere either by mobile, laptop or any other electronic gadgets having internet connection. Learners can share their queries and teachers can give comments thus they can easily participate in open discussion regarding any topic. After the exam, result can be easily and immediately be found; and since there is scope to give feedback to the mistakes, 56 percent learners think that it helps them a lot for correcting their mistakes. From the figure 1, it can be showed that, when the learners were asked about the use of Google classroom for practising speaking, 85 percent students said that video quiz/video speaking test is very much interesting to them. One important finding of this factor is that the students who were feeling shy/reluctant to speak in front of the classroom, they also said that they like this video quiz/video speaking test. And by analysing their uploaded video in the Google classroom, surprisingly it has been found that those students did noticeably better in the video speaking test than their performance in front of the classroom. So, at the primary stage, the introvert students can be engaged in speaking through this video speaking test and by doing it gradually when they will get rid of shyness, they will start speaking in front of the class. Another thing is that, majority of the students think that for increasing the ability to speak, you tube links of various videos attached in the Google classroom help them a lot.

Figure 1. The usage of Google classroom



“Figure 1” shows that 58 per cent learners strongly agreed whereas 12 percent gave their opinion in favour of the benefit of using Google classroom for improving listening skill. They said that listening practise in Google classroom is easy, convenient, hassle free and does not need any language lab. A mobile phone with a headphone can be enough to function as a lab. For practising listening skill, initially they have been given Songs and 90 percent students said that practising English listening skill by listening to English song is really interesting and engaging since at the preliminary stage, 68 percent learners showed their indifference for conversational listening audios like Cambridge listening practise test.

When the learners are asked about prospect of Google classroom for practising reading skill, 42 percent learners said that uploaded reading passages can be read easily and they can submit the answers to the questions from the passage online; without any trouble. Materials for reading exercises are also easy to read from the Google classroom provided that the internet connection is on. 80 percent students think that it is paperless-eco-friendly and there is no fear about losing the uploaded materials. One thing that can be focused here is, a mentionable number of students (30 percent) mentioned that modification is needed for using G.C. (Google classroom for practising reading). From figure 1, it can be seen that, 78 percent learners opine that submission of any assignment or any write-up in Google classroom saves time, money, paper and most importantly it is hassle free and out of this 78 percent 68 strongly agreed on this point and 10 percent agreed whereas 20 percent said that modification is needed for make it more convenient Since various class materials are uploaded in the Google classroom after the class, 45 percent student gave the statement that they can be able to keep themselves updated regularly about makeup class, exam date and important announcements. In fact it acts as an online notice board for the learner. Even if any student misses the class he will get a soft idea about the class in Google classroom if the class lecture is uploaded by the teacher.

CHALLENGES OF GOOGLE CLASSROOM FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

Learners said that Google classroom is not convenient for interacting with other fellow

learners privately. Learners’ can’t communicate with each other by sending private message/group message. If someone wants to say something to his/her fellow learner he/she has to write a public comment on any public announcement/ post or directly create a public post on the classroom by tagging that very specific learner which will be viewed by every learner and teacher as well. Participants think that this way of communication with the fellow learner is very time consuming and in some cases hinders privacy. They also think that by following this way, discussion of any specific academic problem is tiresome.

Almost same is the case for learner-teacher communication. Only private comment option is possible with the teachers below the “assignment” post i.e. only if the teacher gives any assignment, the students will be able to send private message (private comment basically) to their teacher. This issue is considered as a terrible problem by 78 percent of the participants. They think that since there is no “one to one” private message option with the teacher in Google classroom, for every individual problem, they have to either send mail or give phone call to their teacher. 75 percent learners said that, due to the absence of any “messaging” option at Google classroom they faced tremendous problem for asking queries, questions or clarifications of their problems to their teachers.

82 percent participants stated that random and spontaneous face-to-face interactions through questions or described opinions are required in presenting the full scope of learning English. They added that a teacher often understands the problem of the students by eye-contact which is not possible by Google classroom. They also said that in the Google classroom, the teacher is generally capable of interacting with only one student at a time and it is from behind a mobile or computer screen where the teachers can’t get the pulse of the students accordingly hence cannot give the maximum effort to clarify any point.

65 percent of the participating students think that slides provided at Google classroom are not solely enough for learning and it can be adjuncts rather than alternative to conventional classroom most specifically in terms of learning English. By analyzing the comments of the learners it has been traced out that these 65 percent students think that if there is any live classroom facility, it will be

much more convenient for them. They also mentioned the necessity of teacher-student interaction through the implementation of live lecturing, video chatting and messaging with multiple students.

91 percent students said that, as an App, Google classroom cannot be used without internet connection even there is no option to view/read the files offline from the app. Two of the students mentioned that, since internet in Bangladesh is quite costly i.e. not free and when they are at the university they often get the Wi-Fi connection but when they are outside the university premise it is quite usual that they always do not have balance/internet package at their mobile phone, In such situation they are unable to get timely updates from the teacher regarding any assignment/class.

A remarkable challenge of the use of Google classroom has been noted from 40 percent of the participants. They said that when they use Google classroom on mobile phone/electronic devices, their parents think that they are wasting time by using internet. In the context of Bangladesh, most of the parents do not have the idea of Google classroom and they sometimes scold them for using mobile phone during their study time at their reading table.

58 percent of the students said that when they have to upload the video assignments or English speaking test in the Google classroom, they terribly face the predicament of low speed of the internet connection. Sometimes they cannot upload the whole file and in the mid of it, their internet becomes disconnected. As a result of that their assignments are shown undone and they have to again start the uploading from the beginning.

The stream /timeline of the Google classroom cannot get auto refreshed/auto updated. In order to get the new post, the user needs to reload/refresh the page continuously. In this circumstance, when the students have to appear any test (most specifically English reading test), 75 percent of them face problems. For each question posted by the teacher they have to reload the page and wait. Students only having Google account/Gmail account can have access to Google classroom. In any case, if the teacher opens the class with the e-mail ID provided by the university, then the students should also have the same institutional email ID to join that very specific teacher's class. In this case, 58 percent students think that this is

not always convenient for them since they sometimes forget their email password.

10 percent respondents claimed a very serious challenge of Google classroom. They said that taking exam (most specifically listening and reading tests) in the Google classroom paves the way for dishonesty. They mentioned that when teachers take any test in the Google classroom, students sit together at their dormitories or they communicate over mobile phone in conference calls, discuss with each other and answer the questions by adopting unfair means. Another student said that if one of the students write assignment and share the document with his/her friend's group, there are probabilities that whole group would exploit that very document for submission or make slight changes and submit the same. So these loop holes of Google classroom allow the students to cheating.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to identify learners' perceptions (specifically the benefits and the challenges) of the technology-based Google Classroom implementation for learning English. It has been found that a number of challenges have been mentioned by the learners which is better to be addressed by both the teachers and the Google technical team. For instance, the most common challenge faced by the learners is their lack of proper technological knowledge about Google classroom. Many learners said that they started using Google classroom without any proper training from the experts; even some of the learners don't know what the basic functions of Google classroom are. Only the concerned teacher taught them how to join a class. Most of the time while submitting assignment they faced unwanted technological issues. So, learners' suggested that proper training on the use of Google classroom can enhance their performance and it may result a successful learning. So these issues can be helpful for the teachers or the course co-ordinators for an effective teaching in future through Google classroom. Learners also mentioned some technological barriers they faced while using Google classroom for example, lack of private messaging option, barrier of using Google classroom having e-mail address with different domain, cheating option for learner and problem

with the auto-update of homepage (stream). So these issues can be addressed by the Google team and possible reformation can be done by the technical support of Google. Apart from these, the prospects as mentioned in the findings can be very much useful for both the English language learners and teachers for making Google classroom as an innovative learning platform. Finally, the best possible techniques for learning listening, reading, writing and speaking are traced out in this research paper which can make English language learning through Google classroom a success. Google Classroom facilitates collaborative learning; learners are able to collaborate with each other and with the teachers as well. Teachers on the whole play the role of a facilitator in a class. So the future work of this research will include the perception of teachers in terms of using Google classroom for teaching English.

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COMPARISON OF PEDAGOGICAL BELIEFS OF ENGLISH AND URDU TEACHERS

Abstract: It is very essential to understand all the phenomena and circumstances running within the process of education or teaching-learning setting, some of the factors that should be considered on the top of the understanding list are pedagogical beliefs and practices of teachers. Pedagogical beliefs and practices are very much related to the tactics, ways, methods and strategies that teachers use for facing or challenging coming in their routine professional line. These are also essential for refining teaching and students' learning atmosphere for keeping their motivation and interest up for enhanced performances. The objective of the study was to compare the pedagogical beliefs of English and Urdu teachers. In order to achieve the objectives of this study related literature was reviewed. A questionnaire on the basis of reviewed literature on five point Likert scale i.e. 5 = Strongly Disagree, 4 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 2 = Strongly Agree, 1 = Agree was used for data collection. Random sampling technique was used to draw sample from the population of school teachers from all public -sector secondary schools of the Lahore. Two English and two Urdu teachers were selected randomly from each school total 660 secondary school teachers of Lahore 330 Urdu teachers and 330 English teachers were the sample of the study. Frequency and percentage and t. test used for data analysis. The study revealed that Urdu teacher had High level of pedagogical beliefs in comparison with the English teachers. Which indicates that Urdu teachers recognize themselves more proficient and comfortable in caring out of their responsibilities of teaching as compared to the English teachers. Urdu teachers felt High level of contentment and comfort in involving their students in class activities, planning better approaches to increase students' interest, and handle complex situations in the class during teaching as compared to English teachers.

Keywords: teachers, beliefs, education, comparative analysis

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INTRODUCTION

It is very essential to understand all the phenomena and circumstances running within the process of education or teaching-learning setting, some of the factors that should be considered on the top of the understanding list are pedagogical beliefs and practices of teachers. Pedagogical beliefs and practices are very much related to the tactics, ways, methods and strategies that teachers use for facing or challenging coming in their routine professional line. These are also essential for refining teaching and students' learning atmosphere for keeping their motivation and interest up for enhanced performances. Moreover teacher's beliefs and practices are also considered responsible for exert some influence on policies regarding teaching profession, curriculum development, professional development and ultimately students' learning.

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The study in hand is based on the grounds of assumption that beliefs of a teacher are strongly responsible for shaping his/her style of instructions during classroom settings. Teachers' beliefs and opinions about teaching strategies and pedagogies act as a dictionary through which what teachers do and what experiences do they face and respond can be comprehensively understood. According to Cantu (2001) belief of human beings are reflection of what they do or want to do, in the same way what teachers think about what they do or want to do provide a platform of decision making and judgments about classroom instructions.

■ PAST STUDIES AND PRESENT SCENARIO

Past studies had exposed a number of factors regarding teachers' multifarious opinions about their teaching and pedagogical matters. It is important to accept all the aspects of these opinions and options they make in this way any researcher could reach the extent on what teachers decide regarding practices during classroom instructions. It is thoroughly stated by many researchers (Handal and Herrington 2003; Stipek et al. 2001) that during teaching-learning environment pedagogical opinions of teachers always play a pivotal role in stimulating or disrupting the learning environment. Many other researchers

supported the idea that to what extent the study of teacher's beliefs are important to study and understand, some of them are given below:

- According to Borg (2001) beliefs play a central role for teachers to select their specialized subject, the content for the lesson, instructional and teaching-learning activities, deciding about the knowledge to be transferred and conducting assessments and evaluations during classroom instructions
- Mansoor (2008) stated that the study of teachers' belief is very important for understanding the psychological stance and symphony of a teacher with regard to his/her teaching profession, while Richards (1998) also favoured the concept.
- There found a conflict among defining about the beliefs of teachers, there is no clear or specific definition on the concept, thus there is a need to ponder upon this matter (Tatto and Coupland 2003).
- On the other hand, Barcelor (2003) had a reason for not having a specific definition of teachers' belief i.e. he is of the opinion that beliefs are a kind of thoughts and views, they envelop all related information about it one can only have faith on its existence.
- A general concept about teacher's belief about their teaching practice or profession is related to what he/she thinks about teaching or learning in general or what they think particularly about their own teaching or students' learning environment (Haney, Lumpe and Czerniak (1996).
- Pondering upon another dimension to understand a teacher belief is like to have a bird's eye view on numerous aspects related to all the concepts on education i.e. teaching as a profession, curriculum, teaching environment, ethics and objectives of education, while influence of all these factors on students' learning and pedagogical goals ultimately (Ghaith 2004).

▪ SETTING UP THE SCENE

According to the explanations provided in the early section, we can conclude that in view of various researchers' opinions; teachers' beliefs are based on teachers' cognitive and psychological inspirations which direct all the behaviours of a teacher related to teaching. Some of the scholars were of the view that teachers' belief act as a concrete platform either positive or negative i.e. sometimes it acts as a fostering element for intake of innovative knowledge, an overseer upon the teaching material provided or obstruction for dynamics coming ahead in teaching practice (Fullan 2016). It is evident from the past studies that beliefs and opinions of teachers are founded in three types of resources i.e. teacher as teaching individual, teacher as previous student and teacher as a stack of knowledge (Richardson, 1996). These all stances provided basic information regarding teaching to teaching profession; this can be examined directly by observing any teaching-learning session (Lortie 1975). In this way one can say that it also provide a basis for teachers to generate assumptions and hypotheses regarding what do's and don'ts should be in teaching as well as how it should be done. These assumptions that teachers adopt from different various supplies prove to be imposing forceful impact of their beliefs regarding teaching practices and pedagogies (Tsui 2003).

▪ TEACHER'S PEDAGOGICAL BELIEFS

These are also additionally based on various main and sub factors related to educational or school setting like administration, peer relations, school climate, attributes and qualities of students accompanied by legislations that are functional in a particular school setting (Fang 1996). In short there found a handsome amount of researches present worldwide that support the prominent influences of teachers' beliefs on their classroom practices. One of the proponents of this arena of studies, Pajares (1992) summed up the findings of most of the past studies related to teachers' pedagogical beliefs that there is a tough positive association with educational planning, decision making and classroom instructional practices. Pajares (1992) also stated that these beliefs if generated during pre-service trainings of teachers

can act as a pivotal existence in understanding teacher's behaviour and their knowledge about their teaching profession. Thus he proposed as a result that these beliefs are among most influencing mediators, responsible to translate behaviours into practice (Ernest 1998). Similarly, the teachers' pedagogical beliefs are considered to be loaded with information that holistically influences all teaching policies, plans and practices (Clark and Peterson 1986).

There found an increasingly strong concern among educational scholars to conduct studies on beliefs of teachers and their instructional practices. The findings of these studies created two dimensions of the same scenario. Some of the studies examined to conclude that there were no significant relation among the two variables (Parmelee 1992; Van Zoest 1994; Nespar 1987) on the other end some found that beliefs played as important role as any other factor during classroom instructional practices and discussed beliefs with translating power of abilities to realities (King 2002; Farrow 1999).

Furthermore some researchers examined the effect of teachers' beliefs on every component of education among them one is curriculum development and implementation. In curriculum practice four aspects could be of great concern with regard to beliefs of teachers' i.e. knowledge, teacher's role, students' abilities and course content (Cronin-Jones 2001). He further stated the reason of misjudgements about teacher's behavioural influencing elements are due to the fact that teachers sometimes mislead researchers in stating wrong opinions or they just don't want to share.

Beliefs are generally related to psychological state of mind, that is why it is said to hold or adopt a belief by anyone (Green 1971), thus it is admitted that to defining or studying the term 'belief' is not an easy task (Johnson, 1994). Famous researchers like Pajares (1992) and Borg (2001) give beliefs a name of a type of construct that is quite complicated or cluttered. According to Borg (2003) described in extensive literature review of his studies, there are almost sixteen distinctive concepts regarding teachers mental or psychological understanding that is described in terms of beliefs of teachers had been discussed in previous some decades. Keeping in view the above statements it is summarized that all the concepts

and constructs regarding teachers' perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, concepts, thinking, views, opinions, suppositions and more like that can be put in the same term of reference for almost all purposes, proposing the idea of Borg (2001).

When discussing about study in hand, we are using teacher's belief term as their general thinking and perception as well as statements they mention to describe their perceptions about their knowledge about any concept, this is same as Basturkmen, Loewen and Ellis (2004) stated in their study. According to Borg (2001), beliefs alone are useless if not compared to the practices; he also recommended the need and requirement of such comparison among teacher's beliefs and their professional practices. Favoring Borg's concept of messy construct, the researcher of this study also took beliefs as multi-dimensional sort of cognition that helps teachers in guiding in terms of their practices, attitudes and actions (Borg 2001).

▪ INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES OF TEACHERS

The arguments go on towards the particular effects of beliefs on teachers' instructions and especially on those that are qualitatively considered good.

United States is among those western countries that gave a rebirth to constructivist approach of education and thus exert pressure to adopt it, consequently meaning and conception of direct instruction as a teaching methodology was reformed and highlighted (Kirschner, Sweller and Clark 2006). The main reason of this reform was to facilitate students with the options and resources to solve their problems happening in real world as well as to equip them with the ability to interpret the main goal, reasons, meanings and objectives of the duties or tasks provided to them (Wahlstrom and Louis 2008).

Besides a handsome amount of literature present on the current situation of teachers' beliefs (Mansour 2008) yet there is still a necessity to conduct study on pedagogical aspect of teacher's belief in order to clarify and justify their influences on classroom instructional practices. Previous studies in one way or other focused only on one discipline or subject, our study will remain and stick to general situation with a holistic view on overall classroom setup.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVE

- Comparison of pedagogical beliefs of English and Urdu teachers
- The objective of the study was to compare the pedagogical beliefs of English and Urdu teachers.

HYPOTHESIS

- Ho: There is no significant difference among mean scores of pedagogical beliefs of Urdu and English teachers

DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study will be delimited to only:

- District Lahore
- Female teachers

RESEARCH DESIGN

- The study was quantitative in nature and survey method was used to collect data

POPULATION OF THE STUDY

- The female Secondary school's Urdu and English teachers District Lahore was the population of the study. There are 172 rural and urban female secondary schools in District Lahore

SAMPLE

- Random sampling technique was used to draw sample from the population of school teachers from all public-sector secondary schools of the Lahore.
- Two English and two Urdu teachers were selected randomly from each school total 660 secondary school teachers of Lahore 330 Urdu teachers and 330 English teachers were selected as sample of the study.
- 155 teachers Urdu teachers from urban schools and 155 English teachers from rural areas was selected.

INSTRUMENTS

- The closed ended questionnaire as a tool of the study, after reviewing the literature on the topic. The tool covered seven domains and 46 statements in all. The domains were named as lecture organization, presentation of lesson, students' discipline, dealing with students, evaluation, code of ethics and personal characteristics. All statements were formed in interrogative form. Each statement was put against five point rating scale i.e. 5= Strongly Disagree, 4= Agree, 3= Undecided, 2= Agree, 1= Strongly Agree.

DATA COLLECTION

- Questionnaires were distributed among 4 teachers per school 2 Urdu teachers and 2 English teachers all of the participants were selected through random sampling Lahore. The confidentiality and anonymity of the participants was kept and ensured throughout the research session and was taken as the researcher's high priority. Questionnaire return track was properly recorded in time.

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

- The response to the tool was designed as per the quartet grading as follows: Strongly Disagree (5) degree, Disagree (4) degrees, Undecided (3) degrees, Agree (2) degrees, Strongly Agree (1) degree. The analysis of the data computed descriptive and inferential statistics. mean scores, standard deviation, t-test was calculated.

Table. 1 Table shows the pedagogical beliefs of Urdu and English teachers.

Sr.	Respondents	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test (α)
	Urdu Teachers	1.58	0.492	0.05
	English Teachers	2.62	0.711	0.80

Above table shows that the mean scores of English Teachers (2.62) were greater than that of Urdu teachers (1.58). On applying t-test the Urdu teachers' responses (0.05) are significant while English Teachers' responses (0.80) were not significant at 0.05 level of significance. So result shows that Urdu teachers have strong pedagogical beliefs as compare to English teachers.

The mean scores difference among Pedagogical Beliefs of Urdu and English teachers as perceived by Urdu and English teachers was calculated by testing the following null hypothesis using ANOVA test. Ho: There is no significant difference among mean scores of Pedagogical Beliefs of Urdu and English teachers The null hypothesis was tested using ANOVA test. The summary is presented in the table.

Table. 2 Comparison of pedagogical beliefs of Urdu and English teachers.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	436.727	1	436.727	5.185	0.023
Within Groups	46159.01	548	84.232		
Total	46595.74	549			

Above table shows that p-value for responses of Urdu and English teachers was significant beyond 0.05 level of significance for the total sample. Therefore, the null hypothesis stating "There is no significance difference among mean scores Urdu and English teachers was rejected. Result shows that there is significant difference among mean scores of Pedagogical Beliefs of Urdu and English teachers.

CONCLUSION

- Urdu teachers have strong pedagogical beliefs as compare to English teachers
- There is significant difference among mean scores of Pedagogical Beliefs of Urdu and English teachers.
- Results indicate that Urdu teachers recognize themselves more proficient and comfortable in caring out of their responsibilities of teaching as compared to the English teachers. Urdu teachers felt high level of contentment and comfort in involving their students in class activities, planning better approaches to increase students' interest, and handle complex situations in the class during teaching as compared to English teachers.
- This study only provided a fundamental situation and phenomenon exploring among female secondary school teachers, there is yet to be more explored like comparison of gender, locality and type of schools about pedagogical beliefs.

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SELF-CARE MANAGEMENT, EMOTIONAL DISTRESS AND SELF-EFFICACY: RELATIONSHIPS WITH HEALTH-RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE AMONG PATIENTS WITH TYPE 2 DIABETES

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to investigate the combined effects of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy on health-related quality of life as well as investigating the relative contribution of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy to health-related quality of life among patients with type 2 diabetes. The sample was composed of 110 patients of the hospital attendants. They aged between 40 and 60 years with a mean of 49.45 and a standard deviation of 8.23. Diabetes Self-Management Questionnaire (DSMQ, Schmitt et al., 2013), Diabetes Distress Scale (DDS, William et al., 2005), The diabetes management self-efficacy scale (Azita and Rahim, 2014) and Quality of Life Instrument for Indian Diabetes Patients (QOLID, Jitender et al., 2010) were employed for data collection. Findings indicated that there were significant correlations between self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy and health-related quality of life. The independent variables (Self-Care Management, Emotional Distress and Self-Efficacy) when put together yielded a coefficient of multiple regression (R) of 0.450 and a multiple correlation square of 0.435.

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Keywords: self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy, health-related quality of life, type 2 diabetes

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus by definition, is a "chronic disease caused by an inherited and/or acquired deficiency in the production of insulin by the pancreas, or by the ineffectiveness of the insulin produced" (WHO, 2018). It was found, as estimated Diabetes Atlas published of the International Diabetes Federation (IDF), that 415 million persons had diabetes mellitus in 2015 all over the world, and this number is projected to increase to more than 642 million by 2040 (Thai, Nguyen, Trung, Quang et al. 2018).

Diabetes is considered to be one of the largest global health serious problems of the 21st century. It negatively affected lifestyle, resulting in less physical activity and increased obesity. The age-adjusted death rate of diabetes mellitus (DM) is 22.62 per 100 000 of the population and it ranks 98th in the world (Gebremedhin, Workicho, Angaw 2019). The International Diabetes Federation (IDF) has recognized Egypt as the 9th leading country in the world for the number of type II diabetes patients and its prevalence was nearly tripled over the last 2 decades (Waly and Hamed 2018). Diabetes mellitus is said to be associated with other psychological, social and health problems such as reduced life expectancy, micro-vascular complications, increased risk of macro-vascular complications (ischaemic heart disease, stroke and peripheral vascular disease), and diminished quality of life. Management of diabetes requires complex, continual, and demanding self-care behaviour (Sanjay, Biranchi and Rajiv 2018). It is of great importance that we come to understand factors for self-care and management of diabetes and impact of this chronic disease on patients' health related quality of life.

HEALTH-RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE

Quality of life is defined as an "individual's perception of their position in life in the context of the culture and value systems in which they live and in relation to their goals, expectations, standards and concerns" (WHO, 2018). While health-related quality of life, which is seen as physical, psychological, and social domains of health, influenced by a person's experiences,

beliefs, expectations, and perceptions (Gebremedhin et al. 2019).

Recently, health-related quality of life has become an interesting issue for research (Raghuvansh, Pawan and Roopkamal 2018). Different researchers reported that diabetes has a negative impact on health-related quality of life (Kidist, Zeleke, Bizuayehu and Hordofa 2018). Developing a scale for measuring health-related quality of life will help healthcare professionals in monitoring treatment guidelines and improving patients' health-related quality of life. This can also guide interventions that will improve their situation and avert more serious consequences (Gebremedhin et al. 2019). Several studies have shown that diabetes correlated negatively with quality of life in patients. Nevertheless, these patients can experience a better quality of life with proper control and management of blood glucose (Azar et al. 2015)

Grace, Samuel et al. (2017) found that the overall Quality of life in Ghana and Nigeria were relatively low. In Ghana, significant correlates of higher scores on the Quality of life scale were medication adherence and employment status. Among patients in Nigeria, employment status and diabetes mellitus empowerment were significant predictors of Quality of life in patients with diabetes mellitus. A positive and significant correlation was also observed between self-caring and life quality associated with health (Elnaz, Ali and Fariba 2016).

SELF-CARE MANAGEMENT

Self-management has been considered one of the most important factors in the treatment of type 2 diabetes (Saeideh, 2017). Patient self-care management refers how serious the patient is in his intention to follow a diabetic meal plan and prescribed medication regimen, corresponding with the recommendations made by his doctors or healthcare professionals (Rami, Abdelmajid et al., 2017). Diabetes self-management is a right step on the right track in order to achieving healthy and satisfying life (Sanjay et al. 2018). Manjula and Jayarani (2015) found a positive correlation between self-efficacy and self-care behaviour. They also reported an increase in self efficacy and self-care behaviour as associated with a decrease in HbA1c (refers to glucose and haemoglobin

joined together) values. It was noted that HbA1c and self-efficacy was significantly associated with age. Only a very small percentage of study subjects had good self-efficacy and self-care behaviour.

Khalid, Garth and Snider (2015) reported that most of their participants reported that they took their medication as prescribed by their doctors and healthcare professionals, however, many of them did this not in compliance with other self-management practices. The better self-care behavior was correlated with better score in the satisfaction domain (Liu, Tai, Hung, Hsieh and Wang, 2010)

SELF-EFFICACY

Diabetes self-efficacy is defined as beliefs about personal capacity to hold diabetic self-care skills (Saeideh 2017). Highly self-efficacious patients are successful in self-management of their chronic conditions (Dallolio et al. 2018). Health care providers find self-efficacy, or the belief that one can self-manage one's own health, an important goal particularly in their endeavour for handling or dealing with or treating chronic illness (Rossella, Paola et al., 2018). Perceived self-efficacy could lead to self-management behaviours among diabetic patients (Azita and Rahim 2014).

Patients' diabetes self-efficacy predicts their adherence of medication and is shown to be correlated with other psychosocial variables such as attitudes, perceived relationship with health care providers, perceived social support, and quality of life (Celano, Beale, Moore, Wexler and Huffman, 2013). Saeideh (2017) reported significant positive correlations between self-efficacy and social support subscales, self-care and health-related quality of life. The final path model fitted well and showed that direct self-care paths and indirect social support had the most effects on health-related quality of life.

Hajar et al.(2017)found a negative correlation between age and general self-efficacy and diabetes self-efficacy while, there was a positive correlation between general self-efficacy and diabetes self-efficacy.

EMOTIONAL DISTRESS

Pouwer et al. (2005) indicate that patients with diabetes suffer from high levels of diabetes-specific emotional stress. Worrying about the future and the possibility of serious complications are among serious emotional problem that patients with type 2 diabetes suffer from. They also feel guilty or anxious when you get off track with diabetes management (François 2009)

Emotional problems might have a role to play in complicating the required self-management of the disease and lessen the persons' abilities to manage self-care activities necessary to achieve an adequate glycaemic control (Ragnhild et al., 2014).

Liu et al. (2010) found that emotional distress was correlated negatively with quality of life scores. Emotional distress was the most important explanatory factor of quality of life, accounting for 28.7%-53.8% of total variance.

For some individuals, high disease emotional distress may affect self-management and adherence to medication which has subsequent effects on glycaemic control. While for other persons, poor control can lead to distress, which can influence disease management (Boon et al., 2015).

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Most of doctors and health professionals all over the world still focus on treating diabetes mellitus, but they go less aware of the social and economic impact that diabetes has. They also are unacknowledged or have limited knowledge/information on health-related quality of life profile of their patients. This misunderstanding in turn, is regarded as the biggest barrier to have effective intervention strategies that could help stop the high increase in type II diabetes. This study poses the following questions:

1-Are there relationships between and among self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy and health-related quality of life?

2-What are the combined effects of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy on health-related quality of life?

3-What is the relative contribution of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy to health-related quality of life?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study could contribute to the literature on health-related quality of life among patients with type 2 diabetes. The study is concerned with patients who suffer from diabetes mellitus and presents some factors, namely self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy in order to know their relative contribution to health-related quality of life. This may help them be optimistic that the diabetes mellitus will not have a negative effect on their life.

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive correlation between self-care management, self-efficacy and health-related quality of life.

Hypothesis 2: There is a negative correlation between emotional distress and health-related quality of life.

Hypothesis 3: There are combined effects of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy on health-related quality of life.

Hypothesis 4: Self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy contribute to health-related quality of life.

METHOD

DESIGN

For the purpose of this study, quantitative survey research was employed. The independent variables are self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy, while the dependent variable is health-related quality of life.

PARTICIPANTS

A convenient sampling method was used to recruit the participants. They were from Unit of diabetes and endocrine in department of Internal Medicine Mansoura University Hospital. The sample was composed of 110 patients of the hospital attendants. They aged between 40 and 60 years with a mean of 49.45 and a standard

deviation of 8.23. In order to be included in this study, patients should meet the following criteria: (i) 40 years and above; (ii) diabetes diagnosis of 12 months duration; (iii) are able to read and write. Individuals who met these inclusion criteria and provided consent were recruited to the study. The instruments for the study were delivered to the unit staff (doctors and nurses) in order to be administered. Eighty (72.7%) males and 30 (27.3%) females participated in the study. One-hundred (81.8%) were married and live with their families (wife, husband and children), six (5.4%) widows and four (3.6%) divorced/separated. Eight (7.2%) were Christian and one-hundred and two (92.7%) were Muslim. Their educational qualifications revealed that 67 (60.9%) are primary/preparatory, 28 (25.4%) were bachelor holders and 15 (13.6%) were technical school degree holders.

INSTRUMENTS

Diabetes Self-Management Questionnaire (DSMQ, Schmitt et al., 2013). A four-point Likert scale (3-‘applies to me very much’ to 0-‘does not apply to me’) consisting of 16 items that cover five different aspects of diabetes self-management. Higher scores indicate more desirable self-management behaviour. The scales reflect patients’ dietary control, medication adherence, blood glucose monitoring, physical activity, and physician contact. Internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach’s alpha) values for dietary control was 0.78; medication adherence was 0.76; blood glucose monitoring was 0.84; physical activity was 0.75; physician contact 0.72 and the whole scale was 0.88. For convergent validity of Diabetes Self-Management Questionnaire, correlation with the Self-management skills Scale (Mansour, Abdul Meneim, and Rayan 2015) was significant ($r=0.63, p<.01$).

Diabetes Distress Scale (DDS, William et al., 2005). It is a 17-item Likert scale examining distress experiences among patients with diabetes. Patients respond to each item by 1 (no distress) to 6 (serious distress). This scale has four subscales: emotional distress (EB), regimen distress (RD), interpersonal distress (ID), and physician distress (PD). The composite score of

the scale was calculated by summing the 17 items' results and the sum is divided by 17. Composite score of less than 2 (on each subscale) is considered moderate distress, but if it is ≥ 3 , then it is classified as a high distress. Internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) values for emotional distress (EB) was 0.83, regimen distress (RD) was 0.87, interpersonal distress (ID) was 0.88, physician distress (PD) was 0.90 and the whole scale was 0.92. For convergent validity of Diabetes Distress Scale, correlation with the Psychological Stress Scale (Hassan 2007) was significant ($r = 0.62, p < .01$).

The diabetes management self-efficacy scale (DMSES) (Azita and Rahim, 2014). This scale aims at estimating the extent to which diabetic patients are confident at their abilities to manage their blood sugar, diet, and level of exercise. It is 5 point Likert scale ranging from "can't do at all" to "certain can do". It consists of 20 items. Higher scores indicate higher self-efficacy in

performing diabetes management self-efficacy activities. In this study, internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) values for of the diabetes management self-efficacy subscales were: 0.70 for specific nutrition, 0.78 for general nutrition, 0.83 for blood glucose control, 0.85 for physical activity & weight control, 0.87 for medical control and 0.90 for the whole scale. Construct validity of the DMSES, by the original authors, was assessed using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis which yielded 5 logical categories including: a) specific nutrition; b) general nutrition, c) blood glucose control; d) physical activity & weight control; and e) medical control. For discriminant validity of the diabetes management self-efficacy scale, Mean, Std. Deviation and t values for the differences between high and low groups. All values were significant at level ($p < .01$), which indicated the discriminant ability of the scale discriminate between two groups.

Table 1. Mean, Std. Deviation and t values for the differences between high and low groups in (DMSES)

group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
S N High	40	13.4750	1.15442	.18253	11.371	.000	3.60000
Low	40	9.8750	1.63593	.25866			
GN High	40	13.0250	1.12061	.17718	20.896	.000	4.45000
Low	40	8.5750	.74722	.11815			
BGC High	40	14.4750	1.79726	.28417	11.141	.000	5.42500
Low	40	9.0500	2.50077	.39541			
PAW High	40	14.3500	1.81941	.28767	10.839	.000	5.30000
Low	40	9.0500	2.50077	.39541			
MC High	40	14.3750	1.79297	.28349	10.945	.000	5.32500
Low	40	9.0500	2.50077	.39541			

Quality of Life Instrument for Indian Diabetes Patients (QOLID, Jitender, Arvind, Sonia and Abhishek, 2010). It is a 34 items 5 Likert- Scale. It covers 8 aspects of quality of life: role limitations due physical health, physical endurance, general health, treatment satisfaction, symptom frequency, financial worries, mental health, and diet advice satisfaction. A score for

each domain was calculated by simple addition of items scores. Each individual domain score was then standardized by dividing by maximum possible domain score and multiplying by 100. All individual standardized domain scores were then added and divided by 8 (number of domain) to obtain an overall score. The scale had overall reliability (Cronbach's alpha 0.894) and

significance subscale reliability (0.55 to 0.85). In this study, reliability was calculated by using t-retest after 14 days. Correlation coefficient were 0.691 for the whole scale ($p < .01$). As for validity, exploratory factor analysis was used. Eigenvalues greater than 1 and factor loading cut-off of 0.4 were used in order to obtain the best fitting

structure and the correct number of factors. In this study, 8 factors provided the most meaningful factor pattern and accounted for 61.7% of the total variance. The factor loadings and factor structure resulting from factor analysis through varimax rotation are shown in table 2.

Table 2. Rotated factor analysis of (QOLID)

Item number	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8
1	0.621							
2	0.601							
3	0.605							
4	0.598							
5	0.603							
6	0.607							
7		0.567						
8		0.588						
9		0.545						
10		0.577						
11		0.541						
12		0.537						
13			0.611					
14			0.602					
15			0.620					
16				0.600				
17				0.601				
18				0.612				
19				0.618				
20					0.579			
21					0.571			
22					0.610			
23						0.622		
24						0.604		
25						0.602		
6						0.611		
27							0.607	
28							0.604	
29							0.617	
30							0.612	
31							0.630	
32								0.605
33								0.608
34								0.611

PROCEDURES

Prior to administering the scales, patients were informed about purpose of the study and voluntarily stated that they accept to participate to the study. To ensure that the respondents responded to the items honestly and sincerely, they were told not to identify themselves in any

way on the scale paper. They were also informed that they should not be concerned with anything concerns their participation in the study and their responses are for research purposes only and would be kept confidential. All data were entered in an SPSS file.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data were analysed using Pearson correlation and multiple regression. Multiple regression was used to explore the relative contributions of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy to the prediction of health-related quality of life among patients with type 2 diabetes.

RESULTS

Descriptive data and inter-correlations

Table 3 shows the means, descriptive statistics and inter-correlations of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy and health-related quality of life. Table 3 shows that there are significant correlations between self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy and health-related quality of life. self-care management correlates positively with self-efficacy ($r = 0.578$), and health-related quality of life ($r = 0.608$). However, it correlates negatively with emotional distress ($r = -0.542$).

Table 3. Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy and health-related quality of life.

Variables	self-care management	emotional distress	self-efficacy	health-related quality of life
self-care management	1.00	-.542**	.608**	.608**
emotional distress	-.542**	1.00	-.552**	-.455**
self-efficacy	.578**	-.552**	1.00	.580**
health-related quality of life	.608**	-.455**	.580**	1.00
Mean	35.018	34.972	34.681	43.709
Standard deviation	4.199	4.134	4.214	4.025
** P <.01				

SELF-CARE MANAGEMENT, EMOTIONAL DISTRESS AND SELF-EFFICACY AS PREDICTORS OF HEALTH RELATED QUALITY OF LIFE

Results presented in table 4 show that the independent variables (Self-Care Management, Emotional Distress and Self-Efficacy) when put together yielded a coefficient of multiple regression (R) of 0.450 and a multiple correlation square of 0.435. This shows that 43.5% of the total variance in health-related quality of life of

those who participated in the study is accounted for by the combination of self-care management, emotional distress and self-efficacy. Table 5 indicates that the analysis of variance of the multiple regression data produced an F-ratio value significant at 0.01 level ($F(3, 106) = 28.962$; $P < 0.01$).

Table 4. The regression results of the Predictor Variables (Self-Care Management, Emotional Distress and Self-Efficacy) and the Outcome Measure (Health-Related Quality of Life). Model Summary.

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change statistics				
					R Square change	F Change	Df1	Df2	Sig. F change
1	.671a	.450	.435	3.02644	.450	28.962	3	106	.000

- a. Predictors: (Constant), DMSES, DDS, DSMQ
 b. Dependent Variable: QOLID.

Table 5. Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis between the Predictor Variables (Self-Care Management, Emotional Distress and Self-Efficacy) and the Outcome Measure(Health-Related Quality of Life). ANOVA.

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	795.803	3	265.962	28.962	.000a
Residual	970.888	106	331.277		
Total	1766.691	109			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), DMSES, DDS, DSMQ
 b. Dependent Variable: QOLID.

As for results displayed in table 6, the independent variables made significant individual contributions to the prediction of health-related quality of life. The results indicated that the following beta weights which represented the relative contribution of the independent variables to the prediction were observed. self-care

management ($b = 0.370$, $t = 4.128$; $P < 0.01$) and self-efficacy ($b = 0.303$, $t = 3.374$, $P < 0.01$). However, the contribution of emotional distress to health-related quality of life did not reach significant level. This means that emotional distress does not predict health-related quality of life.

Table 6. Relative Contribution of the Independent Variables to the Prediction of Health-Related Quality of Life. Coefficients.

Model	Unstandarized coefficients		Standarized coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std error	Beta		
1 (constant)	8.839	2.897		3.051	.003
DSMQ	0.370	0.090	0.386	4.128	.000
DDS	0.069	0.089	0.070	0.770	.443
DMSES	0.303	0.090	0.318	3.374	.001

- a. Predictors: (Constant), DMSES, DDS, DSMQ
 b. Dependent Variable: QOLID.

As is shown in *Figure 1* the histogram of the residuals with a normal curve superimposed. The residuals look close to normal. The normal probability plot of the residuals as shown in *Figure 2*. is approximately linear. This supports

the condition that the error terms are distributed in a normal way. Overall , as shown in figure 3, the residual plot (see below) shows the residuals and a histogram with a normal distribution overlay.

Figure 1. Regression Standardized Residual

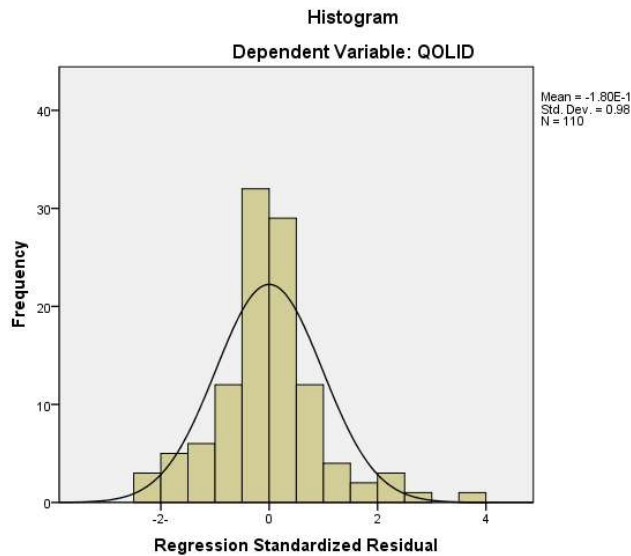


Figure 2. Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

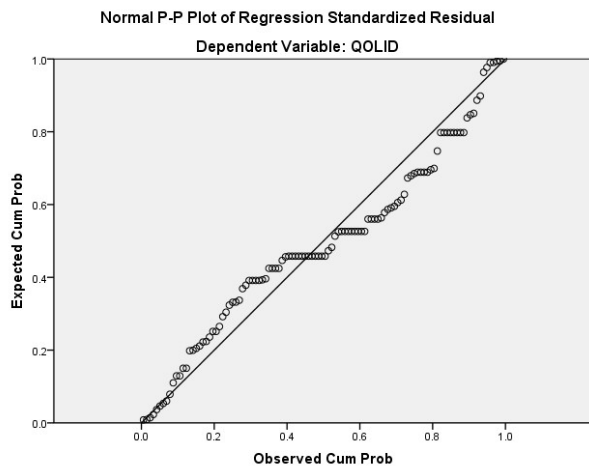
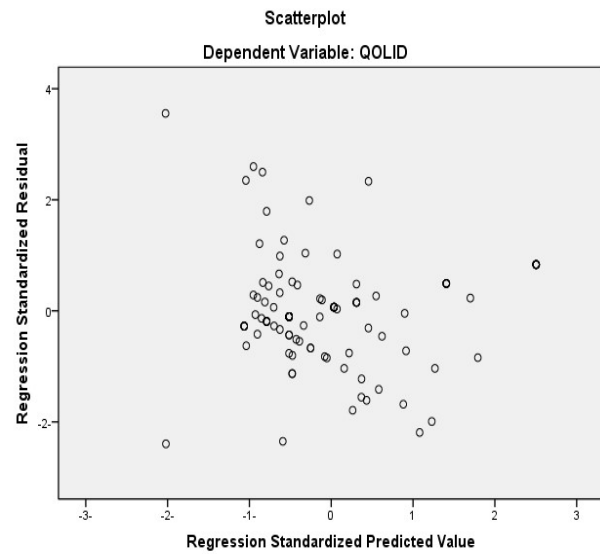


Figure 3. Scatterplot



DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the combined effects of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy on health-related quality of life as well as investigating the relative contribution of self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy to health-related quality of life among patients with type 2 diabetes. Additionally, the aim was to find out if there were relationships between and among self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy and health-related quality of life. In this regard, the findings extend our knowledge on the association between self-care management, emotional distress, self-efficacy and health-related quality of life among patients with type 2 diabetes.

Emotional Distress correlated negatively with self-care management, self-efficacy and health-related quality of life. That is, the higher self-efficacy a diabetic patient has, the less emotionally distressed he might be. Also, when health-related quality of life is achieved this means that the person is leading a normal, psychological life. Hence, when emotional distress is severe, then one's own quality of life becomes worse. This goes in the same line with the findings of Liu et al.(2010) who found that the more severe the emotional distress, the worse quality of life scores were in every domain .

The findings from this study indicated that self-care management can play an important role in improving health-related quality of life among patients with type 2 diabetes. This goes in the same line with the findings of Riegel, Jaarsma and Stromberg (2012) who found that self-care management can enhance quality of life, and lessen healthcare costs. On the other hand, self-efficacy can have a buffering effect on risk factors that may impact health-related quality of life. It also helps patients to adopt a healthy lifestyle, and reduces negative affect (emotional distress) that might be produced as one experience chronic disease like diabetes. This goes in the same line with the findings of Yehle and Plake (2010) who found that self-efficacy may influence the performing of self-care health behaviours that can prevent or moderate the impact of risk factors on the individual's quality of life. Better self-efficacy scores were associated with better self-care management and health-related quality of life.

Patient's diabetes self-efficacy can be a good predictor of his/her medication adherence and can be associated with perceived social support from family and significant others ,and quality of life. This goes in the same line with the findings of Azar et al. (2015) who concluded that self-efficacy as a variable influenced adjusted self-management.

High levels of both self-efficacy and self-care management are needed to manage or handle the daily challenges associated with caring for diabetes, as higher levels of both of them help patients to perform better in diabetes self-care practices.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the present study provided evidence that self-care management, and self-efficacy had combined effects on health-related quality of life. Meanwhile, emotional distress did not predict health-related quality of life. Emotional distress, as a negative factor, might prevent patients from enjoying health-related quality of life. Having higher levels of self-efficacy was associated with better self-care management and health-related quality of life. It helps patients to practice diabetes self-care against diabetes. Moreover, being emotionally distressed, may affects the patient to have poor self-efficacy, which in turn has a bad effect on health-related quality of life. The results of this study pointed to the importance of including self-care management, and self-efficacy in improving health-related quality of life among patients with type 2 diabetes.

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COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SELF-TRANSCENDENCE, SPIRITUAL WELL-BEING, OPTIMISM AND MEANING IN LIFE AMONG RETIREES AND POST-RETIREMENT EMPLOYEES

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to investigate the inter-correlations of self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life. Additionally, the aim was to find out the differences in mean scores of self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life between retirees and post-retirement employees. The sample consisted of people with Bachelor Degree. Retirees sample consisted of 60 participants (52 men, and 8 women), while post-retirement employees consisted of 60 participants (all of them were men). The Self-Transcendence Scale (STS) (Reed 2018), The Spirituality Index of Well-Being (SIWB) (Daaleman and Frey 2004), The Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier, Carver and Bridges, 1994) and Meaning in Life Questionnaire (Steger, Frazier, Oishi and Kaler 2006) were used. The data were analyzed with Pearson correlation. The t-test was used. Findings indicated that there were significant positive correlations between self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life. Self-transcendence correlated positively with spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life. Spiritual well-being correlated positively with optimism and meaning in life. There were differences in mean scores of self-transcendence, optimism and meaning in life between retirees and post-retirement employees. However there was not difference in spiritual well-being between the two groups. Findings were discussed and conclusion was included.

Keywords: self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism, meaning in life, retirees, post-retirement employees

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INTRODUCTION

Work can be a resource of income, security. It provides people with behavioural confirmation through colleagues and supervisors. Work can help people deal with new tasks and developing skills through what is called stimulation (Martin, Oliver and Clemens 2016). One can presume that work is more than securing economic support; work is an important element in one's life that involves important psychological and social aspects that extend beyond basic needs (Ulrike, Mo, Jan-Bennet and Jürgen 2016). However, if the amount of money paid is low, if the person feels insecure, receives low approval and exposed to strenuous working conditions, this may be stressful (Martin, Oliver and Clemens 2016). Retirement from work is a milestone and marks the end of working life. Retirement is can be considered as a dramatic change of social status as well as transition from “worker” to “retired”, which affects all domains of life (Özlem, Efe and Umut 2014). Although retirement may promote a sense of well-being of workers moving out of demanding and /or stressful career jobs, this process may also involve distancing the person both psychologically and behaviourally from the workforce. This in turn exposes new social roles, expectations, challenges, and opportunities, on the person and all of which can influence well-being (Wang and Shi 2014). Post-retirement employment can be conceptualized as a developmental stage in one's (the retiree) late career (Wang and Shi 2014). This important stage in one's life may include part-time jobs and self-employment (Beehr and Bennett 2015).

Self-transcendence is regarded as purpose in one's life and can be described as one's awareness of something or other people other than oneself (Sharpnack, Griffin and Fitzpatrick 2011). It was found to provide hope which helps a person adapt and cope with life obstacles. Through self-transcendence, one can find meaning in life. Reed (2003) described self-transcendence as the capacity to ascend one's personal needs and desires and connect with others, their environment, and a spiritual dimension or God (Sharpnack et al. 2011). Sharing wisdom, integrating the aging process, accepting death as a part of life, and finding a spiritual meaning in life, all of which express self-transcendence Reed 2003). The correlation

between spiritual well-being and self-transcendence has not been previously examined in retirees and in –service public employees.

Well-being is seen as a sense of feeling whole and healthy and is an outcome of self-transcendence (Sharpnack et al. 2011). Spiritual well-being can be regarded as the impact of spirituality, a sense of meaning, purpose, or power within a transcendent source, on subjective well-being (Daaleman, Perera, and Studenski 2004) Spirituality has great impact on and importance to well-being in the lives of elderlies as it can lead to or be predictor of overall satisfaction (Gørill et al. 2011). Self-transcendence becomes evident through spirituality which is regarded as a human pattern (Sharpnack et al. 2011). It was found that spirituality was an effective variable in the overall well-being as well as in quality of life (Beery, Baas, Fowler and Allen 2002). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between self-transcendence and spiritual well-being as well as the differences between retirees and in –service public employees. Optimism is seen as positive expectations about one's own future. Optimism was found to be positively correlated with employee performance (Mishra, Patnaik and Mishra 2016). It can be presume that those with high levels of optimism tend to expect good things to happen to them, anticipate positive results and success in challenging individual tasks. According to results of Raina, Elizabeth and Thomas (2018), optimism is effective since those in -service employees who are supposed to be high on optimism maintain positive expectation and believe they will succeed regardless of their abilities.. Optimism was found to influence successful exits from the world of work (Topa, Alcover, Moriano and Depolo 2014) and would affect retirement adjustment quality (Topa and Inmaculada 2018).

How people comprehend, make sense of, or see significance in their lives is a simple definition of meaning in life as well as the degree to which those people have a purpose, mission, or over-arching aim in life (Krause and Hayward 2014). Those authors (Krause and Hayward 2014) proposed a model composed of five factors of meaning in life, the first factor is one's own values, which are considered to be norms that describe desirable behaviours and beliefs. The second is a sense of purpose, that is, the affective evaluation

that the person has after successful implementing; those behaviours which are consistent with one's values. The third comprises goals people seek to achieve investing their energy, efforts and ambitions. Reconciling the past is the fourth factor. The feeling that life makes sense is the fifth factor. It means the ability to explain the events in one's life, as well as others behaviours and one's own actions.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Work is thought of as a central aspect of our lives, where it enables workers to feel happier, hopeful, optimistic and be more punctual. Meanwhile, retirement is supposed to be a major transition in the life of eldest people. According to research studies (Hershey, Henkens and van Dalen 2010; Peiró, Tordera and Potocnik 2013); employees, when they come to retire, are concerned with financial aspects and quality of life. Moreover, social, affective and family bonds are markedly mattered (Kubicek, Korunka, Raymo and Hoonakker, 2011; Antonucci 2001).

This study poses the following questions:

1. Are there relationships between and among self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life?
2. Are there significant difference in self-transcendence between retirees and post-retirement employees?
3. Are there significant difference in spiritual well-being between retirees and post-retirement employees?
4. Are there significant difference in optimism between retirees and post-retirement employees?
5. Are there significant difference in meaning in life between retirees and post-retirement employees?

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study could contribute to the literature on self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life among retirees and post-retirement employees. The study is concerned with retirees and post-retirement employees and presents some factors, namely self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life that might

contribute to and have impact on both retirees and post-retirement employees.

HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1: There are positive correlation between and among self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life.

Hypothesis 2: There would not be significant difference in self-transcendence between retirees and post-retirement employees.

Hypothesis 3: There would not be significant difference in spiritual well-being between retirees and post-retirement employees.

Hypothesis 4: There would not be significant difference in optimism between retirees and post-retirement employees.

Hypothesis 5: There would not be significant difference in meaning in life between retirees and post-retirement employees.

METHOD

DESIGN

The researcher has adopted a descriptive research design to describe and compare self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life among retirees and post-retirement employees.

SAMPLE

The participants were sampled using purposive sampling technique. They were typical cases that provided requisite data or information. In this regard, the researcher identified actual population of interest (retirees and post-retirement employees). The sample consisted of people with Bachelor Degree. Retirees sample (those who no longer hold jobs) consisted of 60 participants (52 men, and 8 women), while post-retirement employees (those who hold jobs after retirement) consisted of 60 participants (all of them were men). They aged from 61-66 (M= 62.3 years, SD= 1.12). The marital status were as follows: married = 110,

widow = 10 (all of them were females). They were from Water Resource Company (n=6), Electricity Company (n= 3), Ministry Of Agriculture (n=10), Ministry of Local Government (n=14) and Ministry of Education (n=87).

INSTRUMENTS

The Self-Transcendence Scale (STS) (Reed, 2018). A 15 items, one-dimensional, 4-point Likert scale from 1 (never) to 4 (always). The intention was to identify intrapersonal, interpersonal, transpersonal, and temporal experiences characteristic of later life, which reflect expanded boundaries of self (Reed, 2018). The Scale was translated into Arabic and translated back into English. The back-translated version was reviewed and approved by a panel of three assistant professors in English department. The scale scores range from 15 to 60 (from 1 to 4 for each item), and the high scores indicate a high self-transcendence. The internal consistency of the scale was measured through Cronbach's alpha estimated at 0.91. The content validity of the scale was examined by a group of 10 experts. They assessed the relevance of each item using a four-point Likert scale (where 1 represents "irrelevant" and 4 represents "highly relevant"). They provided suggestions and comments. The 15 items were judged to be quite or highly relevant. A content validity index was calculated at the item level (I-CVI = 0.90).

The Spirituality Index of Well-Being (SIWB) (Daaleman and Frey, 2004). A 12 items, 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The intention was to measure well-being within the context of spirituality. The final score of the scale is obtained by adding those of each item and then dividing by number of items each respondent answer to obtain a mean score. The scale scores range from 12 to 60 (from 1 to 5 for each item), and high scores are indicative of high levels of spirituality well-being. The Scale was translated into Arabic and translated back into English. The back-translated version was reviewed and approved by a panel of three assistant professors in English department. In this study, reliability was calculated by using t-retest after 14 days. Correlation coefficient were 0.688 for the whole scale. For convergent validity of The Spirituality Index of Well-Being (SIWB),

correlation with Religious Orientation Questionnaire (Taha 2015) was significant ($r=0.62, p<.01$).

The Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). A widely used, unidimensional, 10 items, 5-point Likert dispositional optimism scale. Respondents rate each item on a 4-point scale: 0 = *strongly disagree*, 1 = *disagree*, 2 = *neutral*, 3 = *agree*, and 4 = *strongly agree*. The final score of the scale is obtained by summing the items' scores after reverse-scoring the negative items (items 3, 7, and 9) and eliminating the four filler items (items 2, 5, 6, and 8). Computed scores are on ranged from 0 to 24 where high scores are indicative of high levels of optimism. The Scale was translated into Arabic and translated back into English. The back-translated version was reviewed and approved by a panel of three assistant professors in English department. In this study, the reliability of the scale in terms of internal consistency was assessed by Cronbach's α . ($\alpha = 0.72$). For convergent validity of The Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R), correlation with Optimism Scale (Eid, Mahmoud and Farag 2015) was significant ($r=0.60, p<.01$).

Meaning in Life Questionnaire (Steger, Frazier, Oishi and Kaler, 2006). A 10-item, 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Absolutely True) to 7 (Absolutely Untrue). The intention was to assess the presence of, and search for, meaning in life. Computed scores are on ranged from 10 to 70. The Scale was translated into Arabic and translated back into English. The back-translated version was reviewed and approved by a panel of three assistant professors in English department. The reliability of the scale in terms of internal consistency was assessed by Cronbach's α . ($\alpha = 0.82$). The split half reliability index for the ten MLQ items was Spearman-Brown Coefficient (equal and unequal length) = .69 and Guttman Coefficient = .68. For convergent validity of Meaning in Life Questionnaire, correlation with The Five Factor Scale of Resilience (Othman 2009) was significant ($r=0.63, p<.01$).

ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Retirees and post-retirement employees voluntarily participated in the study. They were free to discontinue responding to the questionnaires or in the study as a whole at any time. The researcher explained verbally about the study purposes privately before obtaining consent from each retiree and post-retirement employee. Information collected in the study was kept strictly confidential, concealed, and it was used strictly for the purposes of this study. Sure, there were neither known risks for participating in this study nor any incentives provided for participation.

PROCEDURES

Prior to administering the scales, retirees and post-retirement employees were informed about purpose of the study and voluntarily stated that they accept to participate to the study. To ensure that the respondents responded to the items honestly and sincerely, they were told not to identify themselves in any way on the scale paper. They were also informed that they should not be concerned with anything concerning their participation in the study and their responses are for research purposes only and would be kept confidential. Each questionnaire took about 10-15

minutes to complete. Data were entered in Excel and SPSS files.

DATA ANALYSIS

The data were analysed with Pearson correlation. The t-test was used to explore the differences in self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life among retirees and post-retirement employees.

RESULTS

DESCRIPTIVE DATA AND INTER-CORRELATION

Table 1. shows the means, descriptive statistics and inter-correlations of self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life. Table 1 shows that there are significant positive correlations between self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life. Self-transcendence correlates positively with spiritual well-being ($r = 0.542$), optimism ($r = 0.508$) and meaning in life ($r = 0.443$). Spiritual well-being correlates positively with optimism ($r = 0.514$) and meaning in life ($r = 0.455$).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations of self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life.

Variables	self-transcendence	spiritual well-being	Optimism	meaning in life
self-transcendence	1.00	0.542**	0.508**	0.443**
spiritual well-being	0.542**	1.00	0.514**	0.455**
optimism	0.508**	0.514**	1.00	0.520**
meaning in life	0.443**	0.455**	0.520**	1.00
Mean	35.591	45.125	12.750	33.125
Standard deviation	10.059	5.453	4.106	11.007
** P <.01				

DIFFERENCE IN SELF-TRANSCENDENCE

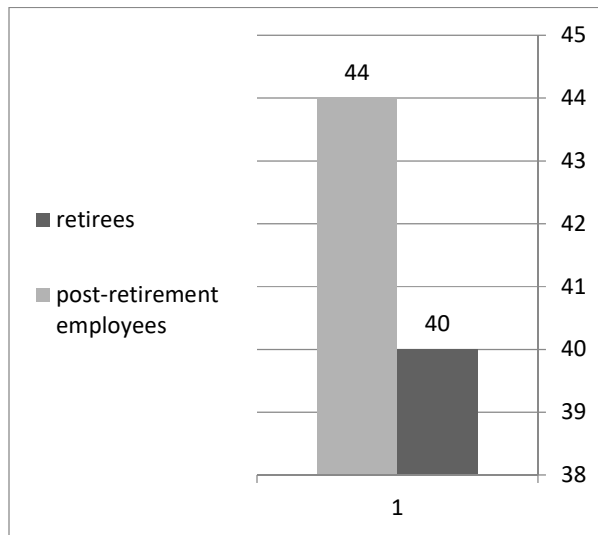
Table 2. shows the t-test results for the differences in mean scores of self-transcendence between retirees and post-retirement employees. The table shows that (t) value was (3.027). This value is

significant at the level ($p < 0,01$) in the favor of the post-retirement employees.

Table 2. The t-test results for the differences in mean scores of self-transcendence between retirees and post-retirement employees

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Sig.
retirees	60	40.616	9.010	3.027	0.01
post-retirement employees	60	44.866	5.321		

Figure 1. The differences in mean scores of self-transcendence between retirees and post-retirement employees



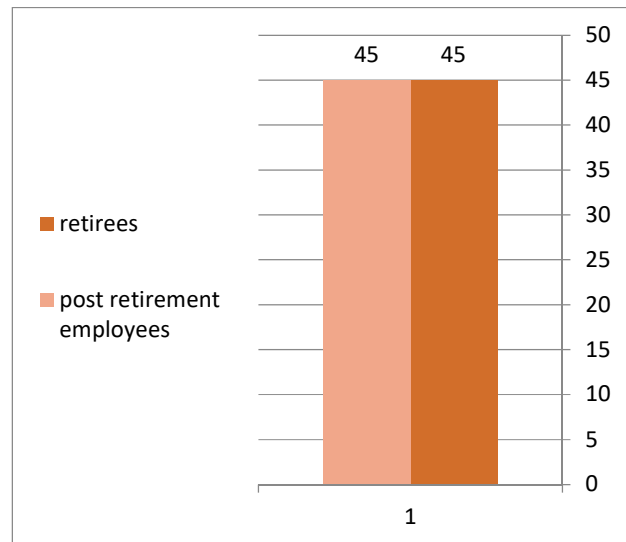
DIFFERENCE IN SPIRITUAL WELL-BEING

Table 3. shows the t-test results for the differences in mean scores of spiritual well-being between retirees and post-retirement employees . The table shows that (t) vale was (0.977). This value is not significant. This means that there are no differences between retirees and post-retirement employees groups in spiritual well-being.

Table 3. The t-test results for the differences in mean scores of spiritual well-being between retirees and post-retirement employees.

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Sig.
retirees	60	45.116	5.437	0.977	Not
post-retirement employees	60	45.133	5.515		

Figure 2. The differences in mean scores of spiritual well-being between retirees and post-retirement employees



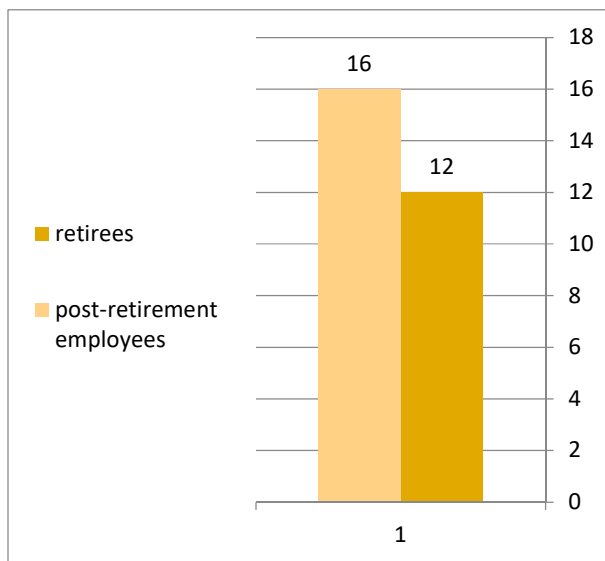
DIFFERENCE IN OPTIMISM

Table 4. shows the t-test results for the differences in mean scores of optimism between retirees and post-retirement employees. The table shows that (t) vale was (5.700). This value is significant at the level ($p < 0,01$) in the favour of the post-retirement employees.

Table 4. The t-test results for the differences in mean scores of optimism between retirees and post-retirement employees.

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Sig.
Retirees	60	12.400	4.592	5.700	0.01
post-retirement employees	60	16.300	2.644		

Figure 3. The differences in mean scores of optimism between retirees and post-retirement employees



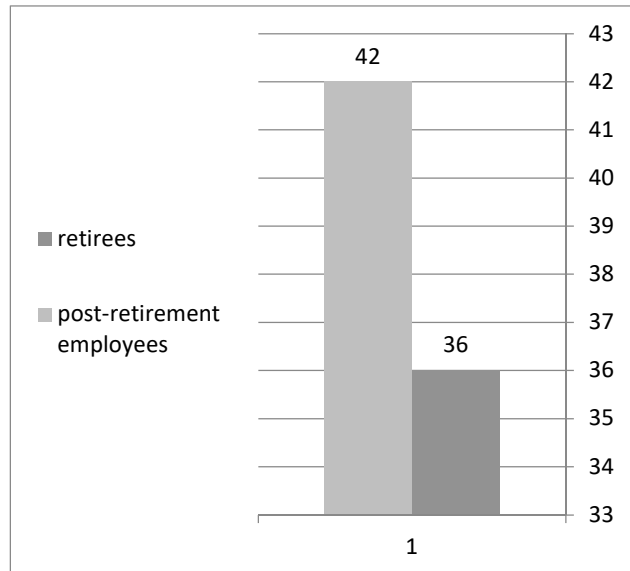
DIFFERENCE IN THE MEANING OF LIFE

Table 5. shows the t-test results for the differences in mean scores of optimism between retirees and post-retirement employees . The table shows that (t) vale was (2.437). This value is significant at the level ($p < 0,01$) in the favour of the post-retirement employees.

Table 5. The t-test results for the differences in mean scores of meaning in life between retirees and post-retirement employees.

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Sig.
retirees	60	36.016	13.609	2.437	0.01
post-retirement employees	60	42.550	12.943		

Figure 4. The differences in mean scores of meaning in life between retirees and post-retirement employees



DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the inter-correlations of self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life. Additionally, the aim was to find out the differences in mean scores of self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life between retirees and post-retirement employees. There were significant positive correlations between self-transcendence, spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life. Self-transcendence correlated positively with spiritual well-being, optimism and meaning in life. Spiritual well-being

correlated positively with optimism and meaning in life. Spirituality is a particularly important factor to general well-being in the lives of people who retired from work and those who continued to work post-retirement. Self-transcendence can be described as a powerful coping mechanism that help people adapt to physical, emotional and spiritual distress (Teixera 2008). Self-transcendence addresses an enhanced understanding of wellbeing in those who continued to work post-retirement (Reed 2018). Spiritual concept lies at the heart of self-transcendence. This concept looks at the true meaning of life (Reed 2018).

People by nature strive to find meaning and purpose in life through self-transcendence. Self-transcendence is regarded as a process of achieving changes in one's live through which one strives for new and deeper understandings of life, meaning, and acceptance of the self, others and the life situation (Gørill et al. 2011).

Meaning in life and spiritual well-being can be achieved through one's relationships and connectedness with others, by communication with those who are around him/her, and his/ her ability to self-reflect on responsibilities .Spirituality is regarded as a personal effort to understand the meaning in life and its goal (Gørill et al. 2011; Mohsen and Faraji 2015).

Results, as shown in *Table 2*. indicated that there were differences in mean scores of self-transcendence between retirees and post-retirement employees. Self-transcendence, which is the ability to expand one's relationship with others and the environment, provides hope and meaning, but sometimes some retirees cannot cope with the loss of work through retirement. However, some other people can cope with the loss of work through retirement and search for work. This new work broadens their relationship with others and the environment (Reed 2018). This self-transcendence shapes post-retirement employees' perspectives on self, others, the nature of this world, and of a dimension beyond the here and now (Valerie, Sharon, Lynne and Jennifer 2015). Self-transcendence helps retirees through personal growth, integration of present with past and future, and investing in personal relationships.

Results, as shown in *Table 3*. indicated that there were no differences between retirees and post-retirement employees groups in spiritual well-

being. Faith and belief in religion is an important part in our lives as Egyptians. Faith represents the religious component of spiritual well-being (Gørill et al. 2011). Faith in God and satisfaction in the judgment of God can be considered as a part of our faith. This can explained that those who were included as participants in this study, especially the retirees, had belief and faith in God so that this could be a buffering factor against feelings of loneliness and other psychological problems associated with retirement, or stop working. Spirituality includes vital quality of life resources such as hope, self-transcendence, and meaning (Gørill, Unni and Audhild 2016). Results, as shown in *Table 4*. indicated that their differences in mean scores of optimism between retirees and post-retirement employees in the favour of the post-retirement employees. Optimism is positively related to employee performance (Mishra et al. 2016). Dispositional optimism can be regarded as a resource that keeps a positive mood, and can be a buffering factor against potential negative effects of retirement. People who are optimistic can easily adjust more favourably to life transitions. Those who engage in work after retirement have optimism about the future and hope to stay longer.

They do not give in to retirement. Those who return to work after retirement expect positive outcomes and tend to see the best in a bad situation, they are likely to demonstrate more proactive coping behaviours (Reinhoudt 2004). Finally, results, as shown in *Table 5*. indicated that there were differences in mean scores of meaning in life between retirees and post-retirement employees in the favour of the post-retirement employees. Meaning in life constitutes an important resource in later life stages. It can said that work represents meaning for a specific life domain. People who experience transition to retirement lose their work-role as they are no longer workers. Work as a source of meaning disappears. This in turn has important implications in terms of meaning in life. Some people search for another meaning, that is meaning in life by continuing to work or engage in a new type of work. Through this new meaning in life, people comprehend, make sense of, or see significance in their lives (Steger, Oishi and Kashdan 2009).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the present study provided evidence that through self-transcendence, one can find meaning in life. Spirituality well-being is a particularly important factor to general well-being in the lives of people who retired from work and those who continued to work post-retirement. Meaning in life and spiritual well-being can be achieved through one's relationships and connectedness with others, by communication with those who are around him/her, and his/ her ability to self-reflect on responsibilities. Dispositional optimism can be regarded as a resource that keeps a positive mood, and can be a buffering factor against potential negative effects of retirement. Those who engage in work after retirement and are high on optimism believe they will succeed regardless of their abilities.

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MORAL DISENGAGEMENT AND PARENTAL MONITORING AS PREDICTORS OF CYBERBULLYING AMONG FIRST YEAR SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to investigate the combined effects of two variables, namely, moral disengagement, parental monitoring on one outcome measure, namely, cyberbullying. Moreover, it aimed to investigate the relative contribution of moral disengagement, parental monitoring to cyberbullying among first year secondary school students in Egypt. Additionally, the aim was to find out if there were correlations between and among moral disengagement, parental monitoring and cyberbullying among first year secondary school students. A total of 140 (80 males, and 60 females) students participated in this study. They ranged in age from 15 to 16 years ($M = 15.90$, $SD = 1.03$). Quantitative survey research was employed. The Cyberbullying-specific Moral Disengagement Questionnaire (CBMDQ-15) (DAY and LAZURAS (2016), Parental Monitoring Scale (Kerr, Stattin and Burk, 2010) and Revised Cyber Bullying Inventory (RCBI, Erdur-Baker and Kavut 2007) were employed for data collection. Findings indicated that moral disengagement correlated negatively with parental monitoring. On the other hand, moral disengagement was found to be positively correlated with cyberbullying. As predicted, moral disengagement related positively and significantly to students' cyberbullying. The two independent variables (moral disengagement, parental monitoring), as presented in table 2, when put together yielded a coefficient of multiple regression (R) of 0.631 and a multiple correlation square of 0.626. This shows that 62.6% of the total variance in cyberbullying of those who participated in the study is accounted for by the combination of moral disengagement, parental monitoring.

Keywords: moral disengagement, parental monitoring, cyberbullying, pre-adolescents

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INTRODUCTION

Electronic bullying (Cyberbullying) research began since the 2000s. This phenomenon is considered as an indirect form of traditional bullying (face to face aggression). Olweus (2012), the leading person in this field, defined Cyberbullying as "intentional, aggressive act carried out against a victim by one or more perpetrators repeatedly and over time, causing an imbalance of power". It can be done via the internet or other digital communication devices. The bulls hide their identity, and this may goes to be extended to cause harm and damage to a wide range of audiences. Both the bulls and the victims find it difficult to disconnect from the cyber environment, and as such, this can increase the vulnerability of the victims (Smith, 2015).

Cyberbullying creates a climate that allows for moral disengagement. In cyberbullying the bulls can send or post harmful written texts, messages and pictures to the victims. However, they do not actually see their victims' reactions towards these harmful written texts, messages and pictures. So the bully is safe from harm. However, the consequences of cyberbullying for victims can be very serious, and include insomnia, depression, panic attacks and even suicide, that is to say they are not able to protect or defend themselves (Bauman, Toomey and Walker 2013). One can assume that the digital world where we live may be asocial context that promotes moral disengagement. It was documented that people who were aggressive conducted behaviours contrary to their ethical and moral standards so that these behaviours were to be acceptable, that is to say they were morally disengage (Diana and Sheri 2018).

Among the potential protective factors from cyberbullying is social protection through parents or friends. Davidson and Demaray (2007) found that parental support moderated the relationship between victimization and internalizing distress from bullying in female adolescents.

The aim of the current study was to investigate the predictive role of moral disengagement and parental monitoring on cyberbullying among first Year secondary school students in Egypt.

MORAL DISENGAGEMENT AND CYBERBULLYING

Moral Disengagement is a common feature of cyberbullying of those who practise it, based on the desensitization of prosocial values and emotional empathy towards another person (Kyriacou and Zuin 2016). It has been posited that moral disengagement is a positive predictor of cyberbullying (Pornari and Wood 2010). Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, and Pastorelli (1996) put forward the theory of Moral Disengagement that was based on a set of eight cognitive mechanisms that allow individuals to endorse behaviours conflicting with their set of moral values without feeling guilty. The morally disengaged persons dehumanize their victims, and this allows them to endorse and justify their immoral behaviours by viewing the recipient of the behaviour as a subhuman creature (McNulty 2014).

It is possible for individuals to engage in behaviours that are not in accordance with their moral standards without feeling guilty (Bandura 2002). Moral standards and moral affect are important to understand individual differences in engagement in both traditional and cyberbullying (Sonja and Eveline 2012). Probably, the bully does not directly see the emotional impact of his/her actions on the victim. The absence of direct contact gives the chance to the bully to act immorally without feeling guilty (Slonje and Smith, 2008). Pornari and Wood (2010), in their study, found that moral disengagement correlated with cyber aggression. Those who were involved in bullying produced justifications that were morally disengaged and less morally responsible (Sonja and Eveline 2012). Higher moral disengagement scores were found in McNulty's study (2014) amongst cyberbullies.

On the other hand, moral disengagement is used by cyberbullying victims as well, in their search for convincing explanations to justify they're not confronting the aggressions they suffer and minimize their moral self-sanctioning. In this regard, they; cyberbullying victims; can disengage themselves morally so as to justify their inaction and even the aggressions they have suffered (Luo and Bussey 2019).

PARENTAL MONITORING AND CYBERBULLYING

Regression analyses revealed that family climate predict cyber-victimization in adolescence. In a study that addresses the following question "Does parental monitoring moderate the relationship between bullying and adolescent non-suicidal self-injury and suicidal behaviour Jantzer, Haffner, Parzer, Resch, Kaess (2015) found that parental monitoring had a significant protective effect on suicidal behaviour in victims of occasional bullying. However, parental monitoring did not show any protective effect in victims of repetitive bullying. Accordino and Accordino (2011) reported that students who had close relationship with their parents were less likely to be exposed to cyberbullying.

Parental monitoring has been defined as "a set of parenting behaviours that involves attention to and tracking of youth whereabouts, activities, and friendships" (Elsaessera, Russellb, McCauley Ohannessianc, Patton 2017, 63). A growing body of evidence indicates that parents try hard to control their children's activity online, including their potential involvement in cyberbullying (Elsaessera et al. 2017). One can assume that diminished parental monitoring may be a risk factor for exposing their children to be victims of cyberbullying, however, it can be hypothesized that adequate parental monitoring may protect these children to be victims of cyberbullying because parents may identify the bullying, provide emotional support to their children, and seek professional help for their victimized children (Jantzer et al. 2015). Wienke Totura et al. (2009) found that the level of adult monitoring negatively correlated with bullying behaviours. Shapka and Law (2013) found that parental monitoring of their children's behaviour and strategies to regulate children's internet use (i.e., internet restriction) may help to reduce cyberbullying. Caitlin et al. (2017) suggest that there are weak correlations between control strategies used by parents, such as restricting the Internet, and their children's involvement in cyberbullying victimization and perpetration. In contrast, strategies that are more collaborative with in nature (e.g., evaluative mediation and co-use) are more closely connected to cyberbullying victimization and perpetration.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Advances in cyberbullying, as a result of development and proliferation of technology is a threat to individual and social lives of adolescents. Rosen (2007) pointed out many parents were "unsure what their children were doing online, but didn't know how to approach the subject with their teens" (p. 80). McQuade, Colt, and Meyer (2009) found that 93 percent of parents stated they established Internet rules for their child's; however, 37 percent of children reported being given no rules from their parents on the Internet activity. To the best of my knowledge, there are less data concerning protective factors, namely moral disengagement and parental monitoring as predictors of cyberbullying among first year secondary school students in Egypt.

This study poses the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There are significant correlations between and among moral disengagement, parental monitoring and cyberbullying.

Hypothesis 2: There are combined effects of moral disengagement, parental monitoring on cyberbullying.

Hypothesis 3: There are relative contribution of moral disengagement, parental monitoring to cyberbullying.

METHOD

DESIGN

For the purpose of this study, quantitative survey research was employed. The independent variables are moral disengagement, parental monitoring, cyberbullying is the dependent variable.

PARTICIPANTS

For the purpose of this study, convenient sampling method was used to recruit the participants. The researcher selected five secondary schools from Sadat City, Menoufia, namely El Khattabah Experimental Secondary Language School, El Khattabah Secondary School, El Sadat Secondary School for Girls, Al - Farouk Omar Bin Al - Khattab Secondary School for Boys and Omar Bin

Abdul Aziz Secondary School. After obtaining the informed consent from the school and all students involved, a total of 140 (80 males, and 60 females) students participated in this study. They ranged in age from 15 to 16 years ($M = 15.90$, $SD = 1.03$). The researcher confirmed that any information students would provide would be top secret and confidential. It would not be revealed to anyone.

INSTRUMENTS

The Cyberbullying-specific Moral Disengagement Questionnaire (CBMDQ-15) (DAY and LAZURAS (2016)). The purpose of this questionnaire was to assess moral disengagement in the context of cyberbullying. It is a 15 items with a 5-point Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree. The scale takes only 10 minutes to complete. The English version of the scale was translated into Arabic by the researcher. Total scores typically range from 15 – 75. The reliability of the scale was calculated using internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$) and split-half reliability (Spearman-Brown = .89). The authors used Construct validity. The CBMDQ-15 is significantly correlated in the expected direction with attitudes ($r = .19$, $p < 0.05$), subjective norms ($r = .18$, $p < 0.05$), anticipated regret ($r = .30$, $p < 0.001$), and intentions to engage in cyberbullying ($r = .33$, $p < 0.001$). In this study, the test-retest reliability value was 0.81. For convergent validity of The Cyberbullying-specific Moral Disengagement Questionnaire (CBMDQ-15), correlation with the Cyber Bullying Scale (Ashour 2016) was significant ($r = 0.53$, $p < .01$).

Parental Monitoring Scale (Kerr, Stattin and Burk 2010). The purpose of this scale was to assess the extent to which the student believed his /her parents knew about his/her whereabouts and activities. It is a 9 items with a 5-point Likert scale from (1) never to (5) always. The English version of the scale was translated into Arabic by the researcher. Total scores typically range from 9 – 45. Students reported on how often their parent(s) know, for example: Do your parents know what you do during your free time? CFA revealed a single factor solution, with loadings ranging from 0.59 to 0.75, and a rho of 0.89 (Khurana, Bleakley, Jordan and Romer 2015). In this study, the test-retest reliability value was 0.77. For convergent

validity of Parental Monitoring Scale, correlation with Al Sersi and Abdul Maksoud 's Social Support Scale (2001) was significant [$r = 0.59$, $p < 0.01$].

Revised Cyber Bullying Inventory (RCBI) (Erdur-Baker and Kavsut, 2007). It is a 28 items scale with a 4-point Likert scale from 0 = Never, 3 = More than three times. Two subscales: first if they have performed the fourteen listed behaviours (Bully scale), and second, if others have used behaviours against them (Victim scale) during the previous twelve months. In this study, the researcher used the Bully scale (14 items). The English version of the scale was translated into Arabic by the researcher. Total scores typically range from 14 – 56. The reliability of the scale was calculated using internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$) and split-half reliability (Spearman-Brown = .83). For convergent validity of Revised Cyber Bullying Inventory (RCBI), correlation with the Cyber Bullying Scale (Ashour 2016) was significant ($r = 0.57$, $p < .01$).

PROCEDURES

Prior to administering the scales, students' parents were informed and given the option of accepting or refusing to allow their children's participation in the study. Students were also informed about purpose of the study. The researcher instructed them to honestly complete the scales and not to look at others' documents while answering the scales questions and items. They were told not to identify themselves in any way on the scale paper to ensure honesty and sincerity. Their participation in the study was voluntarily and their responses were for research purposes only. Each questionnaire took about 10-15 minutes to complete. All data were entered in an SPSS file.

DATA ANALYSIS

To test the hypotheses of the study, Pearson correlation and moderated hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted.

RESULTS

DESCRIPTIVE DATA AND INTER-CORRELATIONS

Table 1. shows the means, descriptive statistics, inter-correlations, and internal consistency coefficients of moral disengagement, parental

monitoring and cyberbullying. Moral disengagement correlates negatively with parental monitoring ($r = -0.33$). On the other hand, moral

disengagement was found to be positively correlated with cyberbullying ($r = 0.39$).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and inter-correlations of emotional intelligence, cyberbullying and Perceived Family Support

Variables	1	2	3
moral disengagement	1.00		
parental monitoring	-.33**	1.00	
cyberbullying	.39**	-.31**	1.00
Mean	46.70	19.74	29.02
Standard deviation	8.60	6.07	7.75
** P <.01			

MORAL DISENGAGEMENT, PARENTAL MONITORING AS PREDICTORS OF CYBERBULLYING

The results presented in *Table 2*. show that the two independent variables (moral disengagement, parental monitoring) when put together yielded a

coefficient of multiple regression (R) of 0.631 and a multiple correlation square of 0.626. This shows that 62.6% of the total variance in cyberbullying of those who participated in the study is accounted for by the combination of moral disengagement, parental monitoring.

Table 2. The regression results of the Predictor Variables (moral disengagement, parental monitoring) and the Outcome Measure (cyberbullying).

Model		R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
						R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
n	1	.793 ^a	0.546	.543	3.73833	0.546	154.0285	1	128	.000
0	2	.795 ^b	0.631	.626	3.38171	0.085	29.4204	1	127	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), MD

b. Predictors: (Constant), MD, PM

c. Dependent Variable: CB

Table 3. Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis between the Predictor Variables (moral disengagement, parental monitoring) and the Outcome Measure (cyberbullying). ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2152.573	1	2152.573	154.029	.000 ^a
	Residual	1788.819	128	13.975		
	Total	3941.392	129			
2	Regression	2489.024	2	1244.512	108.824	.000 ^b
	Residual	1452.368	127	11.436		
	Total	3941.392	129			

a. Predictors: (Constant), MD

b. Predictors: (Constant), MD, PM

c. Dependent Variable: CB

As for results displayed in *Table 4*, each of the two independent variables made significant individual contributions to the prediction of cyberbullying. The results indicated that the following beta weights which represented the relative contribution of the independent variables to the prediction were observed. Moral disengagement (b

= 0.346, $t = 4.500$; $P < 0.01$) and parental monitoring (b = 0.359, $t = 5.424$, $P < 0.01$). Although the two variables made significant relative contribution to the prediction of cyberbullying, parental monitoring is a more potent predictor.

Table 4. Relative Contribution of the Independent Variables to the Prediction of cyberbullying Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	10.848	1.878		5.778	.000	7.133	14.563
	MD	.668	.054	.739	12.411	.000	.561	.774
2	(Constant)	9.973	1.706		5.846	.000	6.597	13.349
	MD	.346	.077	.382	4.500	.000	.194	.497
	PM	.359	.066	.461	5.424	.000	.228	.490

a. Dependent Variable: CB

Regression Standardized Residual, Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual, and Regression Standardized Predictive Value were shown in Figs. 1-3. Here is a histogram of the residuals with a normal curve superimposed. The residuals look close to normal. Figure 2 checked for normality of residuals with a normal P-P plot.

The plot showed that the points generally followed the normal (diagonal) line with no strong deviations. This indicated that the residuals were normally distributed.

Figure 1. Regression Standardized Residual

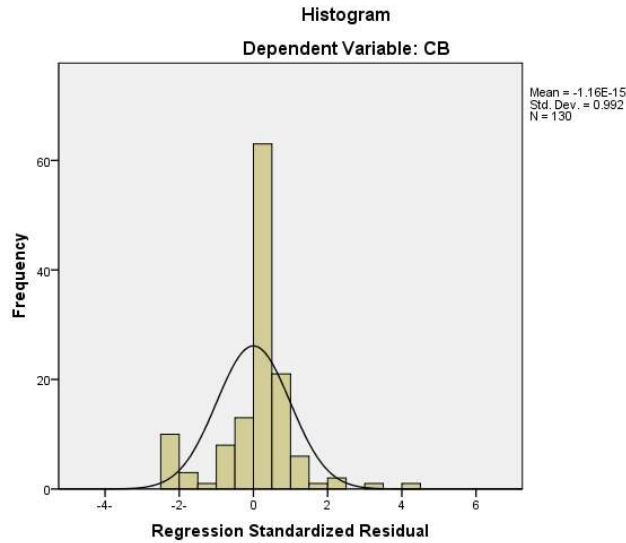


Figure 2. Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

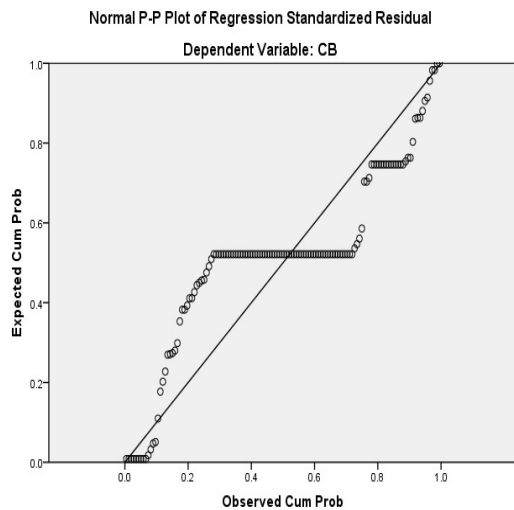
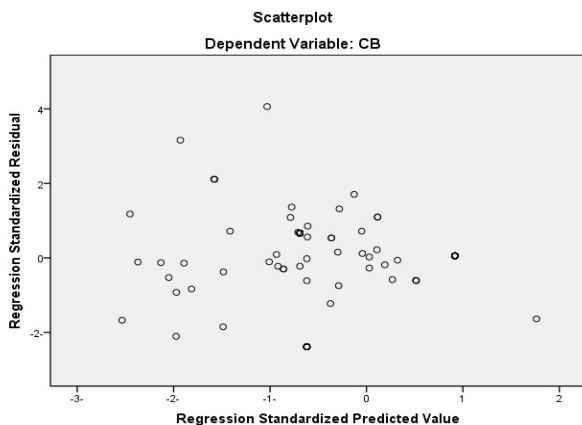


Figure 3. Scatterplot



DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the combined effects of two variables, namely, moral disengagement, parental monitoring on one outcome measure, namely, cyberbullying. Moreover, it aimed to investigate the relative contribution of moral disengagement, parental monitoring to cyberbullying among first year secondary school students in Egypt. Additionally, the aim was to find out if there were correlations between and among moral disengagement, parental monitoring and cyberbullying among first year secondary school students. In this regard, the findings extend our knowledge on the association between moral disengagement, parental monitoring and cyberbullying among first year secondary school students in Egypt.

Findings from *Table 1*. indicated that moral disengagement correlated negatively with parental monitoring. On the other hand, moral disengagement was found to be positively correlated with cyberbullying. As predicted, moral disengagement related positively and significantly to students' cyberbullying. This goes in the same line with Pornari and Wood (2010) who reported a relationship between moral disengagement and cyberbullying. It is reported that students involved in cyberbullying have lower levels of morality (Perren and Gutzwiller-Helfenfinger 2012). Severe patterns of maladjustment were reported among youth involved with cyberbullying (Gradinger, Strohmair, and Spiel 2009).

On the other hand, moral disengagement correlated negatively with parental monitoring. Parental monitoring may also serve to reduce the risk for becoming online victim. This goes in the same line with Korchmaros et al. (2014) who reported that lack of parental monitoring might be a significant risk factor for children to be perpetrated and victimized online. Children's self-disclosure and parental solicitation might be protective factors against online perpetration and victimization. Parents' awareness of their children's whereabouts and activities are more likely to be involved in their children's lives and thus may be protective factors against online harassment by preventing their children from dealing or affiliation with harmful peers (Atika et al. 2015).

The two independent variables (moral disengagement, parental monitoring), as presented in *Table 2.*, when put together yielded a coefficient of multiple regression (R) of 0.631 and a multiple correlation square of 0.626. This shows that 62.6% of the total variance in cyberbullying of those who participated in the study is accounted for by the combination of moral disengagement, parental monitoring.

APPLICATION AND IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study have corroborated with previous research and confirmed correlations between and among moral disengagement, parental monitoring and cyberbullying among first year secondary school students. These findings have practical implications for interventions and preventions of cyberbullying among first year secondary school students. Furthermore, awareness of the negative impact of cyberbullying upon students as cyberbullying victims should be promoted among first year secondary school students.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the aim of this study was to investigate the predictive role of moral disengagement and parental monitoring on cyberbullying among first year secondary school students in Egypt. Moreover, it aimed to investigate the combined effects of two variables, namely, moral disengagement, parental monitoring on one outcome measure, namely, cyberbullying. Findings from this study indicated that there were correlations between and among moral disengagement, parental monitoring and cyberbullying. The two independent variables made significant individual contributions to the prediction of cyberbullying. Parental monitoring was a more potent predictor. It is hoped that future research will continue to advance in this area so that we can gain a more comprehensive understanding into how to combat cyberbullying with implementing effective intervention and prevention strategies. The study findings expand our knowledge of moral disengagement, parental monitoring and cyberbullying among first year secondary school students in Egypt.

LIMITATIONS

This study has some limitations. First, this study did not take age into account. The age of students may have had some sort of influence on the results. Students at the end of adolescence might have moral values, hence they are not morally disengaged, compared to those at the beginning and middle of adolescence. That is to say their moral development is settled, which will have great impact on their moral disengagement. Second, as cross-sectional study, there has to be caution in making any generalization of the results. Nevertheless, results provide supporting evidence for developing interventions to help combat cyberbullying through parental monitoring. Third, convenient sampling method was used to recruit the participants. Therefore, the findings of the study have limited generalizability in other regions and age groups.

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