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- To disseminate research findings;
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CONTENT

The (Well)-(Ill) Being of the Translator between Languages-Cultures

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Abstract

Although often denied by theoreticians and translators, to this day these two groups see translation as heir to a linguistic perspective that has dominated the field since the 1960s. Many translators tend to compose their texts as if coming from the task of translating the meaning of one word after the other, reticent of writing a text in the target language that fails to respect the source text, or diverges from the author or her/his intentions. Thus, the word in the source language must have primacy over that of the target language, which is a constant hostage to the language of the so-called original or source text. This subservience is generally understood as a quality of a translator who is concerned in remaining faithful to the author, whose relation to the translator is that of an authority. Translation in this paper will be discussed from the standpoint of this strongly-held assumption among translators, who strive to achieve the ideal of (im)possible faithfulness to the source text (or author). On one hand, this is understood as violence against the source text (Foucault, 1975 [1977, p. 23) and on the other, as a result of difference, postulated by Derrida (1967).

Keywords : Translation, author, meaning, language, culture

Introduction

Translation as An act of Violence

The term "translation" (lt.: *latus* = borne*; trans* = from one place to another) cannot indicate transition – the action of taking to the other side, as if a bridge, in this case, to take words from one language to the other, as if words were empty, mere information (single meaning possible to pass on to the other language with no change of meaning, without transformations occurring in the source text and without the target text suffering the impact of the source language-culture. Language, after all, is culture. One does not exist without the other. This means that the words and expressions that comprise them are 'full', laden with meanings that manifest the way of being, thinking and acting of a social group or given discursive formation in which are inserted both the author and translator of the text – or better put – the author of the source text and the translator of the target text. Both are authors and producers of meaning: the author of the source text produces meanings from her or his own experience, language-culture, and history; the translator, author of the target text, produces meanings from effects that the text produces in her or him, when interpreted in contrast or symbiosis with the language-culture of which the translator is a subject. We know that texts manifest language and "we live inside our language" (DERRIDA, 2012, p.77), or as Lacan (1998) suggested, the subject is constituted in and by language ("subject of language")[1], effect among signifiers.

If this were insufficient, no language-culture is monolithic: it is hybrid, mestio, heterogeneous, since it is criss-crossed with threads from weaves of other language-cultures. Therefore, just as any discursive background is made up of threads from other discursive formations or rather from other discourses continuously in formation. Due to the fact that it is constantly in formation, even though the movement of social transformations is slow, the ensuing instable discourses do not lend themselves to construction of fixed realities, despite the illusion of stability that comforts the imagination of the subject. These realities move with and in the diverse interpretations that give life and presence. Imagination is understood (LACAN, 1966) as the psychic instance of representations of self-based on the other, which merges the illusion of identity, completeness and wholeness to the subject. The desire to be the desire of the other, to be a pair with the other, makes the subject submit to the gaze of the other, seeking to

meet the other's expectations and thus realize the desire of the other and renounce her or his own or her or himself, until a break is produced and the individual begins to assume and be responsible for her or his acts and choices …

The author and translator are situated within this complex vision of subject that also complicates subjectivity, which is understood as the relation with the other. The former is submissive to the text that is not infrequently constructed separately from the author's conscious intentions. The author then sees her or his work grow and become autonomous, (in)dependent, open to plurality of meanings that come from multiple and perhaps even infinite interpretations. The author claims to be the creator of the text and yet sees this creation escape her/ his control. As the child cuts ties with its parents to live out its desire, even if in a process of eternal postponement, it does not eliminate the biological and linguistic-cultural similarities with the parents. This legacy can never (even if it so desired) be undone and will maintain it connected to its parents. Likewise, the text that results from an act of creation, maintains an indelible bond with the author, and ties of subjectivity that they (author and text) singularize, yet are submitted to the gaze of critics or of the translator, in her/his act of interpretation.

If the translator is the other of the author, then she or he is responsible not only for the interpretation, but also for the `transition` spoken of by Derrida (2004, p. 575). Perhaps a single word is enough to make us understand that translation is a haggling, a negotiation, a trans-action between cultures (transcultural) and as such is trans-lingual (if one can state this). The title of Derrida's small book comes to mind, *Des Tours de Babel*: how to translate "des tours" into English, with all the meanings that Derrida gives it throughout the book? The first translation would be "Towers", but in our culture, this word evokes 1) buildings; 2) structures, usually metallic, where television, radio and other broadcasting equipment is installed. The second translation without translation - because the word comes to us from French – would be "tours", to take a tour, a trip, a spin to other places, the artist's "tour". "A tour", in "take a tour", in the sense of "a trip", "going out" is not a word within the word tower or tour, in the English language-culture (of the US) that is the same as what occurs in the French language-culture, which is not monolithic, as any other language, it is made of fragments of other language-cultures (such as Arabic, the African languages of the colonies or Provençal…), More than one word in a word, more than one language in a single language, more than one culture within a culture, texts within a text… this is what the translator addresses multiplied by two, since she/he works with the source language and target language. What to do about the play on words that unites the preposition "des" and "tours" and, in oral language, forms a third word – "détours"- which means 'detour, in English? Obviously, the effect produced by the sound in French will be lost in English and the meaning changed.

Returning to "des tours", we can certainly state that the translator or the target language will be in debt in relation to the word in the source language; thus the reiterated statement by Derrida (1987 [2002]; 2004) that the translator is an eternal debtor, although he admits that often the author is the one who comes to own the translator. In the words of Derrida (2002), returning to Walter Benjamin:

> There is life at the moment when survival (spirit, history, works) exceeds biological life and death. (…) does not say the task or the problem of translation. He names the subject of translation as an indebted subject, obligated by a duty, already in the position of the heir, entered as survivor in a genealogy, as survivor or agent of survival. The survival of works not authors. Perhaps the survival of authors' names and of signatures, but not of authors and signatures, but (…) not authors. (Derrida, 2002, p. 32-33)

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Derrida proceeds, affirming that the debt is not of the translator, because the debt passes "between two texts (two "productions" or two "creations")" (Derrida, 2002, p. 33). Note that Derrida approximates the debt of inheritance and survival in the passage cited.

It is this debt that enables us to speak of the impossibility of translation and simultaneously of the need for translation: taking again the words of Derrida (2002), the translator is at all times faced with the impossibility of translation, where she/he wishes to be faithful to the author and therefore to the text, with the need for the same: a work that cannot be read in (an)other language(s) is a work that tends toward disappearance. Therefore it is needful to translate – the text begs, the author's name asks – despite the impossibility, to make the best choice, with the minimum of loss. What is this loss we of which we speak?

In light of the (im)possible task of translating, the translator sees her/himself constantly in the contingency of making choices of all types, consciously or unconsciously, or explainable or otherwise: choice of vocabulary, syntax, morphology, semantics... Now, in the sphere of language, making choices necessarily assumes a gesture of interpretation. Thus, translation is defined as interpretation, to translate is to interpret. Derrida (1998, p. 04) goes further:

> Whoever reads a text, reads it well, paying all necessary attention to the language, in the work of writing, in the singularity of composition etc., is in the position of a translator, experimenting to put it to test, the resistance of a thoughtful, poetic, idiomatic text.

Now as we know, to interpret is to produce meaning from a reading, which is always unique but never, in the end, of a text. Actually, to read well is also to interpret, which implies an investment of the subject, of its singularity, in the first gesture of interpretation. This does not mean that an interpretation is so singular to the point of being completely different from that made by the same or another subject. Every gesture of interpretation, however, is similar and different at the same time. There will always be something unresolvable, uncontrollable, something that escapes the control of the subject who has to "invent" – since it is always constructed – transforming, modifying the so-called first or source text. It is not by chance that Foucault (1997) says that all interpretation is violence: violence against the first text, which is cut, struck to produce another text, which retains traces of the first text that makes them similar without assimilation, which distinguishes them without the differences voiding the similarities.

A similar act of violence is also cited by Derrida (1972 [1981a]) as a cut, a split in the tissue, texture, text. The philosopher says it thus:

> The dissimulation of the woven texture can in any case take centuries to undo its web: a web that envelops a web, undoing the web for centuries; reconstructing it too as an organism, indefinitely regenerating its own tissue behind the cutting trace, the decision of each reading. There is always a surprise in store for the anatomy or physiology of any criticism that might think it had mastered the game, surveyed all the threads at once, deluding itself, too, in wanting to look at the text without touching it, without laying a hand on the `object`, without risking – which is the only chance of entering the game, by getting a few fingers caught – the addition of some new thread. Adding, here, is nothing other than giving to read. (Derrida, 1981a, p. 64)

Undoing the web, the fabric, the text, innumerable layers of threads, of traces of other texts, which criss-cross, braid, interweave, forming an inter-textuality, a constitutive heterogeneity, evokes the already-said (Foucault, 1972) or even is transformed with each gesture of production of meaning. Derrida defines text as an organism that, when cut, reconstructs, leaving traces (scars) that correspond to each reading. If we understand that

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translation is meticulous, careful reading or interpretation, then it produces splits in the text that unavoidably add something to it: this addition occurs through the inevitable interference of the subjectivity of each translator, who puts his hands on the text; in the desire to remain faithful to the author and the text, the translator is faithful to her/his interpretation, to the meanings produced in the deep cuts made, with the scalpel of the translator's life (experiences, knowledge…), leaving marks of her/his authorship. The translated text is thus not the same as the first text: just as a child is always similar to the parent and at the same time different, translation carries the original text and transforms it into another (another language, another culture, and unconscious choices of the translator that also leave traces).

It is inevitable! The translator sees her/himself as constantly faced with the contingency of making choices, making decisions. Every decision is a split, a cut, a rupture, a separation, impact, wound. Deciding, therefore, is to rend, to take one of the paths that appear before us (and the translator) and abandon the other(s). We must only decide, according to Derrida (2012), faced with the unresolvable, the impossibility of being divisible, but aporetically, the need to decide to enable life to proceed, continue on one path or change to another, which is never only one other. Which path to take? What term, expression, phrase should I choose to best suit `my` interpretation, which is what translation always is? This seems to be the major responsibility of the translator. She/he shall have to answer for each choice, even if made unconsciously: an explanation based on reason seems indispensable in a world where only that which has an explanation or justification is legitimate … In the words of Derrida (2012, p.69), the undecidable leads to where "a certain responsibility must be taken. Responsibility is always taken in a place of absolute undecidability, on the edge [bord] of this double possibility" (Derrida, 2002, p.226)[1]. To translate is to expose one's self to indecision, to undecidability. Decisions must be made, even though im-possible. Responsibility for the choices must be taken.

Translation as Différance

Now if translation is interpretation that results in another gesture: that of writing the other text, in another language-culture, while striving to `stick` (faithful) to the first text, the language-culture that produced it, one could use analogies for translation such as: the broken amphora where it is impossible to separate the inside from the outside. In other words, it presents the outside and inside as if they were one, or the king's mantle that covers his body while at the same time molds him, models and builds his identity, so that the clothing is the king and the king is the clothing, revealing him in the play of oppositions that do not radicalize binarily of the operator `or` (or this or that). Certainly, the oppositions do not disappear (body/clothing, inside/outside), but they also do not polarize, since, in the abovementioned examples, we are dealing with inside-outside and body-clothing or clothing-body, maintaining them united by the hyphen that both unites and separates them.

The interval of space is called *differance* by Derrida (1967), spelled with "a", to provoke a sense of strangeness to the French reader or anyone knowledgeable (friend) of the French language, used to seeing it spelled with an "e". Derrida hopes that this strangeness will show that what unites and separates oppositions in language can be shown with a hyphen or with parentheses or even by an "e", abandoning the dichotomy of using "or", which acts as a marker of alternance (either x or y), radicalizing the conceptual separation between the words. Therefore, opposites share the temporal space and special temporality. Moreover, Derrida plays with homophony – *différence* and *différance* – which simultaneously evokes what is different (everything is similar and different at the same time and differences must be respected) and, in French, defer, postpone, leave for later the single, only, final (un)expected meaning: a

significance always leads to another significance and that one to another and on and on in a vain search for completeness, totality, an interpretation that surpasses the others and that is right, correct, legitimated by an authority, that is, by an immutable truth, for a perfect translation. "There are only everywhere differences and traces of traces." (Derrida, 1981, p. 26). And Derrida continues:

> Nothing – no present and in-different being – thus precedes *différance* and spacing. There is no subject who is agent, author and master of différance, who eventually and empirically would be overtaken by *différance*. Subjectivity - like objectivity – is an effect of *différance*, an effect inscribed as a system of *différance*. This is why the a of *différance* also recalls that spacing is *temporization*, the detour and postponement by means of which intuition, perception, consummation – in a word, the relationship to the present, the reference to a present reality the *being* – are always *deferred*. Deferred by virtue of the very principle of *difference*, which holds that an element functions and signifies, takes on or conveys meaning, only by referring to another past or future element in an economy of traces. (…) At the point of which the concept of différance, and the chain attached to it, intervenes, all the conceptual opposition of metaphysics (signifier/signified; sensible/intelligible; writing/speech; passivity/activity; etc.) – (…) become nonpertinent. (Derrida, 1981b, p. 28-29)[1]

Thus, the interval of space that unites and disunites opposites, dichotomies fundamental in Western culture, maintains the opposites but does not polarize them. They are linked but not separated, they add but not alternate. The fact that there are only traces of traces creates problems for beginning, origin and end. Nothing has meaning without the presence of another element. In an interview with Roudinesco, refers to the "great entities" and conceptual oppositions, "too solid, and therefore, as precarious as those that followed Freud" that he considered necessary "some *différance* that erases or dislocates their borders" (Derrida; Roudinesco (2001 [2004, p. 208]).

Let us not forget that the desire of authorship is what seems to move the (not always well-paid) translator, who needs to mourn the author, to be able to translate and ex-scribe – shamelessly in-scribing what resulted from the interpretation of the text, tessitura, the tangled web of threads of the language-culture of the other, into the target language-culture, based on the translator's own context, which is always social and unconscious and part of the archive of the unconscious (Derrida, 1995; Coracini, 2010), this archive acts without the translator's knowledge, in-fluencing in the interpretation and de-cisions.

So, according to *différance* as understood from Derrida (1967), translation occurs in the space between the desire of authorship and the impossibility of the same, since the first text is already present, giving itself to be read, contained in the incessant howbeit vain quest on the part of the one who interprets (or understands) a text or translates it (interprets and writes), for the final and unique meaning that would confer the status of perfection to the translation. Thus the double bind of *différance*, which embraces borders, neither wrong nor right – because wrong is the right and right is the wrong –, like the Moebius strip (Lacan, 1966), one can say with Derrida (2002, p. 226) "that the impossible is possible and what is possible is impossible – as such" and add that this threshold, between opposites, is where one finds the translator, in the tension and conflict of being "in between": between language-cultures, between texts, between the author of the source work (text) and the reader of the target work (text), between her/himself

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[1] In the French (original) edition, this fragment is found between pages 38-40.

and the other, the other and self, between pleasure (contentment) of authorship, which is the pulse of life and that propels one to perform the task and the suffering of death (Freud, 1930), (discontentment) of disappearance as author (pulse of life) so that the author of the first work survives through translation (CORACINI, 2005; 2006).

Between languages-cultures

The statement that the translator finds her/himself between-languages seems trite and obvious. After all, even Jakobson, taken by Derrida (2004), classifies translation as intra-lingual and inter-lingual; the former produced within the same language – among modes of speech and regional variants, the latter, which linguists refer to as translation itself, between different linguistic systems. In this chapter, we are especially interested in the problem of inter-lingual translation, to better grasp the arduous-yet-instigating task of the translator, which can also truly occur within the scope of the same language.

Although we usually refer to inter-lingual translation as happening between two languages, if one simply asks what makes a language, a linguistic system, and we shall realize that the ONE of a language has the visage; it resembles unity, homogeneity and camouflages heterogeneity, blurring borders between languages. From a historical standpoint, we know that any and every language is made from many others, or better, from traces (words, syntactic, phonetic, grammatical and other aspects) from others that, from loans (terms borrowed from another language) they become, with use, part of the language, so that over time, speakers reach the point where they no longer perceive their 'origin'. Such is the case of "Yadda, yadda, yadda…", which comes from Yiddish, instead of "blah, blah, blah…" or "so forth". It is also the case in Portuguese of "açúcar" (sugar) and all words that etymologically begin with "al" in Portuguese, which come from Arabic. It is the case with "hamac" in French, which comes from Provençal. The list of examples could continue *ad infinitum*. Forgetting the origin provides the illusion that all of the linguistic elements were created from within a single language, as if its interior did not flow outside and vice-versa. Obviously, in translation these connections to other languages are erased, altering the effects of meaning, even though memory has blurred out the traces of the other language-cultures. An example of this might be `to jew' or 'heeb', terms that evoke the Holocaust, and the mistreatment suffered by the Jews.

It is insufficient, however, to recognize that the apparently single language or linguistic system hides heterogeneity, which comes from and is provided by the outside, the stranger or foreigner. One must understand that the language does not exist as a being, an entity outside of culture, where culture is understood as a set of social values and aspects. The cultural aspects, traditional or current, make a given social group see the world in one manner and not another, to constructo representations of self and of the other. These representations are historically inherited by discursive memory or recreated by a given historical-social moment, by the historicity of the subject. Nemni (1992) defines culture as a system of values that constitutes the subject by and in the language. This system of values (that may cover or be confused with ideology) is not fixed nor generalizing, in the sense that it would construct a nation, class or social group in a stabilized manner. Values modify over time, modifying the subjectivity of each one. It is true that values are not individual nor homogeneous, which means that culture or cultures is/are also not (a) homogeneous block(s), yet exalt(s) heterogeneity, mobility and – why not – (in)stability.

This is why one can postulate that language and culture unite and separate by a hyphen, which actually unites what cannot be together, or with an `and`, or parentheses. These markers maintain the differences of the terms, without one excluding the other. When a child begins to speak, it is a sign that it is submitting to the language-culture in which it is inscribed (and was

inscribed), eternal language-culture of the other (of the mother, of those surrounding). Yet, by submitting to a language-culture, the child submits to traces of other language-cultures… How can one explain why one says in French "je me lave les mains" and in Portuguese "estou lavando as minhas mãos"? Why does one say in English "I am 40 years old" and in French "J'ai 50 ans"? Why was the title of the work of Austin – *How to do things with words* – translated into French as *Quand dire c'est faire*, if not for reasons of interpretation or for 'cultural' reasons? Cultural differences, as can be seen, manifest themselves by and in linguistic differences, just as different interpretations inevitably have to do with subjective differences.

Some authors, such as Pêcheux (1983) refer to these differences and to mistakes such as "the real of the language", which defies rational explanation, control and symbolization. Yet, would language be independent from the subject? We try to show it wouldn't, just as we try to show that the subject is not independent of the language/speech. Porous par excellance, however, the lack (equivocity) and phallus (desire). On the contrary, the subject, according to Lacan (1972-1973) is effect among signifiers, or rather, is what a signifier represents to another signifier, and these cannot escape, I believe, from the culture or cultural aspects of a given group, in a given historical-social moment. Thus, subject, culture (ideology), language mutually constitute themselves, at the same time that they distinguish themselves from themselves. They are the same and different at the same time.

All of this, as one can imagine, influences translation, which is always inter- or trans-cultural, because it always takes place in the confused, contradictory, conflicting and slippery space between languages(-cultures). This complex aspect of trans-lingua-culture makes the task of the translator im-possible (possible and impossible at the same time) as it is likewise im-possible making decisions, faced with the need to make im-possible choices. The translator is each moment in aporetic temporal space between the impossibility of decision, making cuts and the need to make decisions, assuming responsibility for the same, between her/his language that is never hers/his, because no language can be appropriated, be property of someone, and that of the other, which hers/his and the other's as much as the language(-culture) is hers/his and the other's that constitutes and made - and makes - her/him subject. According to Derrida (1996 [1998a], p. 23), language has no owner, master, *dominus* (lord):

> […] the master is nothing. And he does not have exclusive possession of anything. Because the master not possess exclusively, and naturally, what he calls his language, because, whatever he wants or does, he cannot maintain any relations of property or identity that are natural, national, congenital, or ontological, with it, because he can give substance to and articulate [dire] this appropriation only in the course of an unnatural process of politico-phantasmatic constructions, because language is not his natural possession […]

The speaker ("master"), who considers her/himself owner of "her/his" language, deceives her/himself and deceives everyone: no one "has" a language; no one dominates it, is lord (lt.: *dominus*) of a language; any language is anybody's and is no one's. It constitutes the subject – being simultaneously host and guest (lt.: *hospes*) – it is to the language that one submits (the subject is guest), while at the same time it is the one that constitutes (the subject is host), making the dynamic mutable, changeable, and why not, singular… Language is therefore always of the other, "imposed" by the other and by all those who are inscribed in it from birth. By being of the other, language - whether from the mother (mother tongue) or from the other (foreigner, foreign) – is always social, cultural and individual.

Summarizing,
This which is imagined to be a single language is more than one language, and
this is the absolute untranslatability, since there is always more than one

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language in a language, what is called a single language. The moment you translate, you reduce the plural to one. What is always difficult to translate, in addition to the difficulties classically located, is the multiplicity of languages in a single language, something that is produced all the time. (Derrida, 1998b, p. 6)

This is the difficulty that presents itself to the future translator, who insists in translating word for word what is naturally untranslatable, as "only that which is initially considered to be untranslatable is asked to be translated" says Derrida (1998b, p. 04). This difficulty, then, arises primarily from the fact that the student, youth or adult, believes that to translate (trans-late = lt. trans + latus = borne, carried to the other place) means to carry, transport a word, a text from one language to another, as if there were equivalents (same values, same meanings). The image of a bridge is often used when one speaks of translation (Arrojo, 1986): the bridge connects, but it also points to the passage, to the other place, the strange, the foreigner, the different. It therefore is necessary to make students understand the complexity of languages and translation, as (trans)linguistic-cultural, which makes the task of translation both a pleasure, causing the translator enormous contentment, which drives translation, and some discomfort, which not infrequently causes discontentment, leading the translator to reject while at the same time incites due to the addressing of constant challenges.

Conclusion

The translator is found in the contradiction (contrary diction) and in conflict, this discontentment between languages-cultures, and contentment at the same time, great satisfaction, inasmuch as at least the subject partially realizes the desire of authorship. By undergoing translation as an inter- or trans-linguistic-cultural experience, the translator in training is able to understand the im-possibility of absolute and cruel fidelity to the name of the author or to the text in the translation process, upon which the translator slaves. Infidelity is also fidelity: faith in the other and in self, in the gesture of interpretation – rigorous and responsible – which incides, cuts, abuses the text, modifying it, penetrating it to say it in another language-culture. By this act, the translator assumes responsibility (in the sense of giving her/his answer) for the choice of words, the order, the linguistic-textual aspects, even if this occurs unconsciously. The translator has been given the response to the inheritance, making something out of it, adding something. This is the task of the responsible translator, simultaneously guest (in the text of the other) and host (of the first text), in and from the language-culture of the other.

Therefore, translation occurs in the temporal space and spatial temporality that is always *différance*, as it deals with the irreducible difference between languages, which love and hate each other, and with the absolute postponement of any completeness, in the ultimate and perfect sense, with the promise of the impossible unity of language, text and subject.

In between languages-cultures, in between texts, between violence and dissemination (of the translated work) that pacifies and includes all, in between remedy and poison, between the impossibility and necessity of translation, in between the contentment and discontentment, between the undecidability and the need to decide, to make cuts, splits that re-generate, leaving folds, crumples, scars between the original and the translation, between the author of the first text and her/himself (translator) there is a space – conflicting and seductive – without borders or demarcated limits, at the edge, margin, threshold. This is the "habitat", embracing and inhospitable, of the translator, who sees her/his self-embraced and simultaneously rejected, excluded from the languages-cultures – apparently a single whole – of the other. Translation is violence and inclusion, it is more than one word in a word, more than one language in a single language; translation is *différance*.

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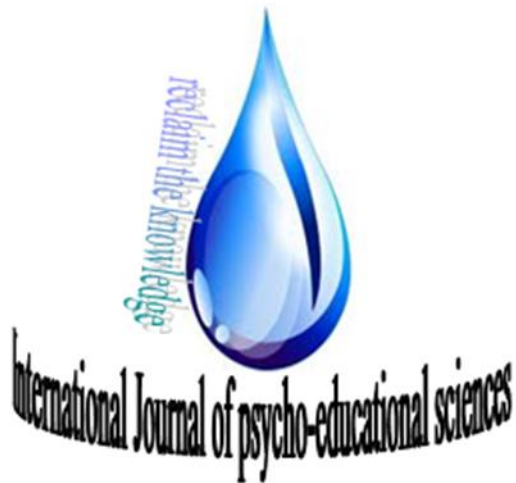
Social Problem Solving as a Key Component of Bullying Prevention Programs

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Abstract

Various prevention programs have been developed by countries around the world to reduce bullying and other forms of youth peer abuse. Social problem solving is inherently a part of any bullying prevention curriculum regardless of cultural differences, but rarely is given the recognition and attention it deserves. Scholarly evidence is provided to demonstrate the critical importance of social problem solving as an essential aspect for success of bullying prevention programs. How social problem solving can influence bullies, targets, and bystanders along with suggestions for future research are provided.

Key Words: Social problem solving, bullying, prevention programs

Introduction

Social Problem Solving as a Key Component of Bullying Prevention Programs

Bullying is a widely discussed issue affecting youth that carries with it a sense of urgency to implement programs to prevent and intervene in bullying situations (Carney & Hazler, 2016; National Education Association, 2011). Cross-national research on bullying has been done for years with major consequences for abusers (Farrington & Baldry, 2010), targets, and bystanders (Carney, Hazler, Oh, Hibble, Granger, 2010; Juvonen, Wang, & Espinoza, 2011) gaining worldwide attention of educators and in policymakers (Rodkin, Espelage, & Hanish, 2015). The seriousness across cultures has caused countries around the world to establish policies and laws seeking to reduce bullying, provide supportive intervention for targets of bullying, and specify appropriate interventions and consequences for abusers. In the U.S., the majority of states now have legislation mandating school personnel to integrate bullying prevention into their schools (Nickerson, Cornell, Smith, & Furlong, 2014).

One relatively recent cross-national study explored bullying across 40 countries found that exposure to bullying ranged from approximately 9-45% for boys and 5-36% for girls (Craig, Harel-Fisch, Fogel-Grinvald et. al., 2009). These findings indicated that boys reported higher rates of bullying in all countries with unique geographic patterns of bullying existing that seem to be related to whether or not there is a country-wide bullying prevention efforts in place. Regardless of the particular country or community, the negative consequences associated with bullying can include physical, academic, biological, cognitive, emotional, psychological, and social problems for all involved (Blake, Banks, Patience, & Lund, 2014). McDougall and Vaillancourt's (2015) review of the literature categorizes research findings across academic functioning, physical health and neurobiology, social relationships, self-perceptions, and internalizing as well as externalizing mental health issues.

Students involved in bullying have been shown to be at higher risk for suicidality (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010), substance use (Luk, Wang, & Simons-Morton, 2012), and mental health issues (D'Esposito, Blake, & Riccio, 2011; McDougall & Vaillancourt, 2015). Hinduja and Patchin (2010) reported that higher suicide attempt rates were found for both bullying perpetrators (2.1 times higher) and targets (1.7 times higher). Targets and perpetrators of both traditional and cyberbullying were found to be two times more likely to have a suicide attempt than youth who were not victimized. Bullying is not the only variable related to suicide ideation and attempts, but it does exacerbate the instability adolescents already may be feeling (Hinduja & Patchin, 2009).

Farrington and Baldry (2010) specifically outlined numerous biopsychosocial risk factors for those who exhibit bullying behavior. The authors assert that bully perpetrators tend to be male and engage more in direct bullying behavior (violence & aggression, both threat & behavior), whereas females who engage in bullying employ more indirect bullying behavior (social isolation & spreading rumors). Perpetrators also tend to be higher in aggression, more impulsive, have difficulty with attention, and achieve at a lower rate compared to peers. Psychologically, they tend to lack empathy, have lower self-esteem, and higher rates of depression than other school children. Socially, perpetrators are often rejected by one set of peers leading them to build friendships with others who engage in bullying behavior (Farrington & Baldry, 2010).

Bullying situations revolve around relationships and social dynamics (Rodkin, Espleage, & Hanish, 2015) making social problem-solving a critical part of the resolution. Bullying is defined as an ongoing relational pattern of aggressive verbal, physical, and/or relational intent to cause harm by a perpetrator who has more power than the intended target (Carney, Jacob, & Hazler, 2011). The uniqueness of bullying compared to other forms of social problems makes the design of social problem solving methods a critical variable in prevention and intervention efforts. It is this relationship of bullying to social problem solving that makes a model for implementing social problem solving in bullying within prevention and intervention efforts critical, and is the focus of this article.

Bullying prevention policies in schools have been designed to address behavioral issues with disciplinary actions (Goodman-Scott, Doyle, & Brott, 2013) and often provide interventions for bullying perpetrators (Ferguson, San Miguel, Kilburn, Jr., & Sanchez, 2007). Such disciplinary actions emphasize student behavior management techniques, but they also create a dynamic of expected external control for behavioral choices made. Students targeted by others who bully do gain some protection through established disciplinary actions, but disciplining perpetrators alone does not produce long-range outcomes (Sherer & Nickerson, 2010). Targets, perpetrators, and bystanders need to gain the skills and confidence to personally better deal social relationships (Doll, Song, Champion, & Jones, 2011). They need understanding of the relationship dynamics inherent in the abuse and how to use that information to better deal with future socially problematic situations. It is these social relationship factors that social problem solving is designed to influence.

Social problem solving has been shown to have an impact on many risk factors associated with both perpetrators and targets of bullying such as coping strategies and self-control (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 1999), reducing aggression (Takahashi, Koseki, & Shimada, 2009), lowering depression (Zhang, Li, Gong, & Ungar, 2013), and improving school achievement and academic motivation (Dubow & Tisak, 1989). The importance of implementing social-problem solving in bullying prevention and intervention efforts first requires an understanding of social problem solving and other terms that are often used inaccurately in place of social problem solving. This clearer recognition of social problem solving makes it clearer how it is needed as a key component in the success of bullying prevention and intervention programs.

Problem Solving Models

The literature often infers problem solving, conflict resolution, and social problem solving to be the same thing, by using the terms almost interchangeably. Each term, however, is unique, so that clarifying definitions is imperative in order to create productive problem solving among individuals or groups. Problem solving is a general umbrella term while conflict resolution comes under that umbrella with the focus on overcoming conflict between two or more participants (Barsky, 2014). Social problem solving provides more detail in both

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internal and external processes and also defines viable parameters to the prevention or intervention environment (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2007). Recognizing and using appropriate terminology is necessary for quality application and research so that it is not confused with other related concepts.

General Problem Solving

Problem solving can be found in many disciplines, for example education (Care, Scoular, & Griffin, 2016), chemistry (Temel & Morgil, 2012), and physics (Ali, Abd-Talib, Ibrahim, Surif, & Abdullah, 2016). These diverse disciplines use the term and a combination of logic and behavioral applications to find and test solutions to difficult and complex problems in their unique field. Problem solving in counseling is also used generically to describe finding solutions to multiple issues, such as memory and traumatic brain injury (Kennedy & Coelho, 2005), major psychiatric disorders and stress from daily life events (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2010). These examples all focus on the general idea of finding a solution to a difficult or complex problem, and illustrate the umbrella nature of the term.

General problem solving in a bullying situation might take any number of behavioral forms that adults or youth see as a logical step. A typical problem solving response to a bullying situation might be to place students involved in locations and situations where they cannot interact such as physically moving the classroom seats of students involved in classroom bullying or having them sit far apart on the school bus. Other actions would be to apply a disciplinary model to the perpetrator or simply tell all involved to cease the interactions. These solutions address the immediate, visible, and surface conditions, but do not address feelings of powerlessness that targets and bystanders are likely to experience. Such problem solving actions miss the root social factors causing the behaviors and emotions tied to the interaction of perpetrators, targets, and bystanders.

Conflict Resolution

Conflict resolution relates to the numerous methods that people use to resolve a social conflict (Barsky, 2014). The goal is to settle the dispute usually between two parties. The ways in which the opposing individuals or parties go about settling the dispute vary greatly based on the culture from which they originate and the resources available for resolution. Conflict resolution focuses on settling disputes with a narrower focus than problem solving. Much has been written on conflict resolution and the concept has appeared in various studies including humans (Van Zant & Kray, 2015) and even animals (e.g., examining insect colonies, Ratnieks, Foster, & Wenseleers, 2006). The phrase used in education and mental health professions is more narrowly defined than general problem solving as it relates to the process of resolving conflicts between two or more people (Barsky, 2014).

Mediation is the most frequent use of conflict resolution in schools, but it requires establishing equality of power and influence between the parties in conflict, which is the case in many disputes. Such power and influence equality is not the case in a bullying situation where disparity in size, social skills, or other relationship skills gives one party more power and control in the relationship (Hazler & Carney, 2012), thus making mediation less appropriate for bullying intervention.

Conflict resolution works in many types of school disputes, but is not an early step in bullying disputes, because the unequal power and influence in bullying situations makes solutions less realistic and potentially exacerbates the problem. Mediation might gain surface agreement between parties, but the unequal power dynamics and interpersonal relationship issues remain, now including heightened visibility and frustrations that can make the situation

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worse. A more effective intervention is required that would give more attention to the power differences and underlying relationship factors.

Social Problem Solving

Social problem solving is defined as "the self-directed cognitive-behavioral process by which an individual, couple, or group attempts to identify or discover effective solutions for specific problems encountered in everyday living" (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2007, p. 19). McGuire (2001) adds depth to the definition as, "'a goal-directed sequence of cognitive and affective operations as well as behavioral responses for the purpose of adapting to internal or external demands or challenges" (p. 211). Social problem solving goes beyond the general problem solving and conflict resolution concepts to more specifically define the issues and the systems for solving interpersonal problems. This concept most closely matches the relationship and interpersonal needs of bully/target situations in the context of educational settings and the mental health field.

Social problem solving does more that identify equitable solutions by dealing with all variables within a person, between people, and the situational context. The concept challenges individuals to examine internal processes (e.g. thoughts, beliefs and opinions, biases and stereotypes, and culture) and how those play a role in behaviors. These additional factors are the key to why social problem solving needs to be a core component of bullying prevention and intervention strategies.

Two major stages make up the social problem solving model: problem orientation and specific problem solving skills (D'Zurilla, Nezu & Maydeu-Olivares, 2004). These two components promote individuals' awareness of their approach to social problem solving by gaining a better understanding of the problem, one's specific orientation to it, and developing the skills needed to deal with the problem.

Problem orientation incorporates a metacognitive process (cognitive-affective-behavioral response set) "that reflects a person's general awareness and perceptions of problems in living, as well as his or her own problem solving ability" (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2007, p. 21). These are the automatic thoughts, feelings, and behaviors individuals generally bring to a life problem that are rooted in previous difficult experiences and social problem solving attempts. Such reactions incorporate an individual's sense of self-efficacy at solving the problem, determining the source of the problem, and recognizing the problem's impact on the individual. D'Zurilla, Nezu and Maydeu-Olivares (2004) propose two dimensions of this construct with *positive problem orientation* being constructive and *negative problem orientation* being dysfunctional.

The feelings addressed by problem orientation are the emotions that individuals have when encountering a problem. Individuals will either approach and address the problem (positive problem orientation), or avoid it by becoming quickly frustrated or by doubting their own self-efficacy and instead depending on others to solve it for them (negative problem orientation). Only when the individual understands the problem orientation component can the social problem solving skills be effectively implemented.

Social problem solving interventions are the best fit for bullying situations. The orientation phase includes spending time with participants individually to determine the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of related to the themselves and the situation. Exploring experiences where an individual or group felt empowered or disempowered in a given situation can help promote understanding of what may be encouraging similar problematic behaviors in current situations. It also helps bring feelings to the surface where they can be used to build necessary empathy toward others, which is a cornerstone in the treatment of

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abusive situations like bullying (Doll, Song, Champion, & Jones, 2011). Effective problem orientation thus promotes understanding of self and others in the bullying situation and creates opportunity for exploring more effective thoughts and behaviors. This exploration opens the door for developing the social problem solving skills needed to more effectively negotiate difficult relationships.

Specific problem solving skills are goal directed and follow a sequential process to include (a) defining or formulating the problem, (b) alternative solution generation, (c) making a decision, and (d) implementation of solution and assessment (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2007). The implementation of these skills requires the continual attention of understanding ones' self and others in order to minimize the power and influence inequalities that facilitate bullying and limit social problem solving potential. The first step in the problem solving process is defining and formulating the problem, which requires people to gather relevant facts about the problem including others' perspectives, clearly understand the problem's essence, and generate several possible realistic goals. They then can engage in the process of generating, discovering, or identifying several solutions to the problem (D'Zurilla, Nezu & Maydeu-Olivares, 2004). This necessary information and understanding allows individuals to make viable decisions about which solution(s) seem best for the problem.

The next phase of the process uses implementation of the solution and assessment of outcome skills that allow for the application and monitoring of the solution as well as the revising of solution implementation for better outcomes. The assessment component allows people to recognize the issues and problems, evaluate them, and recycle the process to obtain the next potential solution step. While these phases are common to many problem solving models, the social and relationship aspects of social problem solving are uniquely important to bullying situations.

Social Problem Solving in Bullying Prevention Programs

Bullying prevention programs initially focused on addressing bullying behaviors, identifying and understanding what constitutes bullying, and providing a framework for implementing disciplinary measures for the perpetrators (Hazler & Carney, 2012). Programs have matured since then with program developers identifying and incorporating other critical variables. The environment is now recognized as both as a stage on which behaviors are enacted and a social learning opportunity where bullying victims, bystanders, and perpetrators can learn how to respond as well as how the environment responds to them (Espelage, Rose, & Polanin, 2015).

Addressing the learning aspect of the environment requires bullying prevention programs to incorporate some form of social learning into the curriculum (Espelage, Rose, & Polanin, 2015). Social problem solving provides learning in the form of information and strategies for targets, perpetrators and bystanders to navigate the social environment to make better decisions, and change behavior. It can further address individual concerns such as reducing depression (Zhang, Li, Gong, & Ungar, 2013), increasing self-efficacy on cognitive, emotional and behavioral domains (Frauenknecht & Black, 2004), and decreasing stress and violence (Takahashi, Koseki, & Shimada, 2009). Social problem solving also impacts social issues, group dynamics, students' fears of dangers in the school environmental, school connectedness (Dubow & Tisak, 1989), and bullying behavior (LeBlanc, Self-Brown, & Kelly, 2011).

Social Problem Solving for Perpetrators

Aggression is common in some children who do not have the words and/or social skills to communicate their needs or negotiate their social environment (Takahashi, Koseki, &

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Shimada, 2009). Social problem solving teaches children how to think through solutions related to social situations in ways that are collaborative and amicable to those involved. Takahashi, Koseki, and Shimada (2009) studied social problem solving's impact on aggression in fourth through ninth grade students. Their findings indicate that social problem solving effectiveness varied with higher grades better able to navigate social problem solving, thus indicating the need for taking developmental considerations into account when creating social problem solving interventions for different ages. Social problem solving skills included in bullying prevention and intervention programs can impact perpetrators by providing ways to recognize and negotiate feelings and needs in meaningful and socially appropriate ways that match the cognitive and social developmental levels of participants.

Joseph and Strain (2010) cite several studies of children who lacked social problem solving skills and tended to use aggression to address conflict with others. The aggressive behaviors became more predictable and less alterable the older the child got and predicted future criminal behavior, rejection from others, and poor mental health. Social problem solving understanding and skills learned as children can reduce aggression, increase school connectedness, strengthen mental health, and develop the social competence needed to mend ruptures in social relationships (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2009). What they learn can then be used to head off or lesson future relationship dilemmas. Bullying prevention programs that incorporate these will then meet both the short-range intervention and long-term prevention goals for youth.

Social Problem Solving for Targets and Bystanders

Social problem solving impacts mental health, which is critical, because those exposed to bullying have increased depression, anxiety, lower self-esteem, and greater risk for suicidal ideation (Carney, Jacob, & Hazler, 2011; Swearer, Espelage, Vallencourt & Hymel, 2010). Social problem solving appears to provide a protective function that decreases depressive symptoms (Zhang, Li, Gong, & Ungar, 2013) and hopelessness that are two risk factors for suicidal ideation (D'Zurilla & Nezu, 2007). The value of reducing depression and hopelessness has particular value for school bullying prevention programs because it is useful across the multiple cultures that vary greatly across schools (see Mathew & Nanoo, 2013; Takahashi, Koseki, & Shimada, 2009).

Social problem solving is even more broadly a protective factor for students who are exposed to a variety of violence types. LeBlanc, Self-Brown, and Kelly (2011) found that social problem solving and communication skills limited the distress for students who were exposed to violence. All students with high problem solving and communication skills were also better at a variety of other social and leadership skills. These social problem solving skills appear to increase adolescents' ability to access social support systems and utilize other resources in the school environment needed to reduce potential distress.

School itself can be a difficult time for children and adolescents due missing family support, regular interactions with new people, and an environment over which they have less control than others. Being exposed to bullying or a target of bullying is more likely to occur here and adds significant additional stress and adjustment issues. It has been long known that social problem solving provides a stress-buffering effect for children entering middle school regardless of their initial level of stress (Dubow & Tisak, 1989). Grade Point Average (GPA), teacher-rated school behaviors, and parent-rated home behaviors are all impacted by this effect. Increases in social problem solving improve students' ability to adjust to life stressors increased including those related to exposure to bullying.

Further Recommendations

Some scholars believe increased awareness and actions are causing a decrease in peer abuse (Doob & Cesaroni, 2004), while others believe that bullying is still on the rise (Esbensen & Carson, 2009). Regardless of which is true, schools and societies around the world have been given social mandates to address bullying in schools (Cornell & Limber, 2015). Some programs and their components have been shown to be more effective than others. Current literature suggests a comprehensive sustainable approach (Ttofi & Farrington, 2011) where the strongest outcomes go beyond a one-time intervention (duration), involve more contact hours (intensity), provide teacher and parent training, and incorporate social problem solving into the program. Having more components in the program also increases effectiveness, but it is unclear what those components might be. Future research should look at components that would provide the strongest outcomes (Hazler & Carney, 2012).

Studies suggest that bullying prevention programs have reduced bullying behavior by 20%, largely due to the focus on disciplinary behavior and less on the etiology of the behavior (Ttofi & Farrington, 2011). Other research shows that social problem solving can produce positive effects on elements of bullying, reduce the negative effects of poor mental health, and even promote traditional school achievement issues (Mathew & Nanoo, 2013). The combination of social problem solving factors in bullying prevention programs needs a more careful examination in order to expand that initial 20% reduction in bullying and resulting social, personal, and academic related problems.

Bully perpetrators need to be better understood when developing bullying prevention programs. A more thorough understanding of underlying reasons that youth bully others and the ways programs can utilize that knowledge to refocus the source of that energy into more socially productive actions would greatly enhance outcomes for perpetrators and everyone around them. Because social problem solving reduces aggression and improves school and home behaviors (Leblanc, Self-Brown, Shepard, & Kelly, 2011), it would appear to be an excellent variable for this refocusing effort. The research, then, would be focused on identifying ways to increase appropriate and healthy alternative behaviors.

The past fifteen years have seen policy reaction to the increase of suicide attempts and acts of violence resulting from bullying, with school officials and local policy makers calling for programs to focus on intervention and reactivity (Limber & Small, 2003; Winburn, Winburn, & Niemeyer, 2014). Intervention is beneficial in addressing immediate crises, but a more preventive approach is needed to address prevention. Bullying prevention programs with social problem solving skills need more frequent implementation and evaluation in early childhood where these skills can be gained in developmentally appropriate ways (Joseph & Strain, 2010). This approach would have the added value of including parents when they are most involved, address behaviors at home, and support the research that shows incorporating parents into the prevention programming is more effective (Reid, Webster-Stratton, & Hammond, 2007). Such a longitudinal approach on early intervention programs would add to current research by determining if and to what degree social problem solving buffers the effect on later bullying, victimization, and bystander behaviors.

Finally, the literature needs to come to a consensus on the definition of social problem solving to address bullying as a form of interpersonal conflict. Using conflict resolution, problem solving, and social problem solving interchangeably leads to confusion and negatively impacts the quality of research being conducted by diminishing the operational definition of important variables.

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Factors Affecting Teachers' Learning Attitudes

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Abstract

The teaching profession is in the focus of unprecedented level of interest due to current social, political and professional debates, nonetheless (or perhaps this is the reason why) those involved have a pessimistic professional vision. It is difficult for them to identify with the growing level of challenges which may strengthen the motivation of teacher attrition. We assume that workplace satisfaction and long-term educational plans are closely linked to the professional vision, which in turn is able to track the motivations of profession loyalty. In order to justify our hypotheses we used a self-edited (online) data collection questionnaire comprising 33 questions, which was completed in the academic year of 2015/2016 by MA students and graduated teachers of similar trainings at University of West Hungary Savaria University Centre and Eszterházy Károly College. In our study we examine the learning needs of teachers in respect of the immediate and extended professional environment based on the responses of 295 qualified teachers.

Keywords : teachers, needs, professional satisfaction, professional environment, work

Introduction

Our research is designed to obtain a detailed picture of teachers' professional satisfaction and their vision. It can provide an objective picture from the aspect of career development which is education-related but independent from the individual as well as a subjective one, based on the effects of dominant factors of teacher's personality. According to practicing teachers, their profession has never been subjected to so much criticism as today. The correspondence to daily requirements originating from the diverse tasks is more and more oppressive to the individual, which hinders the realization of long-term plans. The teachers are responsible for all kinds of activities starting from the general demands of efficient education to school events based on almost direct marketing methods to compete for pupils, however, only a few questions are mentioned about the development of student's personality and education and the continuous (self-) educational challenges of physical and mental improvement of the future generation at social as well as individual level.

Being a teacher means to take a "master," "priest" and "actor" role at the same time (Szebedy, 2005), which requires a balanced, contented personality. "Certain thinking patterns emerge during the pedagogical practice, which help the teacher to make decisions almost automatically. It has turned out that the number of such schemes distinguishes a more experienced teacher from a beginner."(Falus, 2001, p 22).

Professional satisfaction - among others – is also expressed in the decline of the intention of teacher attrition (N. Toth, 2014), as it is proven that "teachers engage in many activities which they are not or only partially prepared for, and which they consider to be far away from their job. This is unfavourable in terms of the conserving force of the profession, mobility as well as mental burnout. "(Chrappán, p 235, 2012). Referring to international studies, Mihály (2010, p 106) concludes that the teacher attrition rate is the strongest among those under thirty and over fifty.

According to Szabó and Lőrinczi (1998) it is not true that "teachers' self-esteem is directly related to job satisfaction," but the reality is that workplace harmony is only closely related to personal factors concerning the " indicators (factors) of atmospheric variables " (p 10).

Method

Hypotheses

Based on the claims of Szabó and Lőrinczi (1998), we assumed that the teacher'svision is now primarily influenced by the general feeling of the workplace and professional aspirations, that is why our assumptions were focusing partly on the professional environment, classroom challenges as well as the self-image and vision (Hercz, 2005) and partly on career building and professional development needs (N. Toth, 2014). We believed that

H1: teacher satisfaction related to workplace environment is in connection with age, and it involves the positive attitude toward the prestige of the profession as well;

H2: as for the educational development aspirations, the impact of work environment can be detected, but the opportunities of career building offered by the promotion system are more determinant;

H3: The preferred training contents represent the interests of the institution stronger than the necessity to overcome individual professional difficulties, the direct effects of previous training experience or the profession as well as working environment.

Respondents

Our survey is accessible through the electronic administration system of the above mentioned institutions. It was aimed at current and former students taking MA courses and postgraduate specialist training courses in the field of pedagogy, who volunteered to fill in the anonymous survey, which was created on Google Drive and shared via URL.

Based on the directory of the institutions involved [University of West Hungary (NymE) and Eszterházy Károly University (EKF)] 864 teachers were asked to contribute to the survey on a voluntary basis, but we only received 295 valid responses till the deadline (December 2015), therefore the *willingness to fill in the survey* determined whether teachers became part of the sample or not.

Table 1. *The sample, and the Proportion of Males and Females*

	N= 295	Proportion (%)
male	60	20.0
female	235	80.0

Since the respondents are graduates of the institutions involved in the survey (graduating between 2013-2015) and current students, who have a full time job, their age and workplace are relevant to the topic.

Two thirds (67.8%) of our sample (N=295) are *above the age of 40* and based on their workplaces (Table 2) most of them work in primary schools or in institutions for special needs education (54.9%), followed by schools involved in secondary education as well (38.0%).

Table 2. *Respondents' Workplaces*

workplace	N= 295	(%)
Kindergarten	2	0.7
Primary school	138	46.8
Primary school and primary arts education school	7	2.4
Primary and secondary school	54	18.3
4, 6 and/or 8 grade secondary school	22	7.4
Secondary technical school	12	4.1
Vocational school	4	1.4
Mixed secondary educational institution	20	6.8
Institution for special needs education	17	5.7
Other (e.g.: adult education, dormitory, music school)	19	6.4

Another feature of the respondents is the geographical location of their workplaces (Figure 1), which is based on the regional characteristics of the two institutions involved in the survey.

Figure 1. *The georgaphical location of the respondents' workplaces in percentages (N=295)*
(Source of map: *Hungarian Central Statistical Office*, 2015)

Unfortunately, regional comparisons were not possible, because of the uneven dispersion (s=0.5; v=0.3), therefore we could not aim for finding possible correlations with the training institution.

Research Design

The data was collected with the help of a self-made online questionnaire consisting of 33 questions. When constructing the questionnaire our hypothesis was that the indicators of the *number of challenges in the classroom* and the *level of satisfaction with the professional environment* directly allude to the professional wellbeing of the teacher, which partly *indicates the conserving force of the profession*. In the questionnaire, the reliability of the thematic unit (12 items) observing teachers' level of satisfaction is α =0.835.

The thematic units of the questionnaire are listed in Table 3, and they show that our survey put emphasis on the development of teachers' self-image, vision and carrier building, because we believe that these factors clearly show one's strong attachment to the profession. Moreover, by indicating their needs for professional development they also give us input on how to develop our training strategy.

Table 3. *The thematic units of the questionnaire*

Thematic units	(%)
Self-image, vision and opportunities for development within the profession, carrier building	51.5
Needs for professional development	9.1
Challenges in the classroom	12.1
Professional environment	12.1
Demographic data	15.2
Total	100

Results

Professional Environment

During the analysis we were first and foremost interested in which and how many respondents regard their professional wellbeing as average and above average. We assumed that satisfied teachers feel that they *do not face too many challenges*, *accept the prestige of their profession and their professional environment*, *plan a long-term career* in teaching, therefore they *would like to get further professional training.*

Our data prove that almost half of the teachers (126 people; 42.7%) are satisfied with the equipment ($\bar{x}$=3.4; s=1.0) and personnel ($\bar{x}$=4.0; s=0.9) of their workplace, however, thanks to the high level of relative standard deviation (v1=0.3 és v2=0.2), neither of these qualities are general characteristics of the sample. The satisfaction with these two factors (r=0.42) coincide with each other, (χ2equipment(32)=36.55; p=0.266 χ2personnel(32)=34.12; p=0.366) but it *does not depend on the age group, although its significant influence had been assumed.*

The respondents were significantly less satisfied with the moral ($\bar{x}$=1.9; s=1.0) and financial ($\bar{x}$=2.6; s=1.2) appreciation of their profession and their opinions of these factors are similarly low (r=0.45). Based on the data it seems that the introduction of the teacher evaluation system did not contribute significantly to the increase of the profession's prestige ($\bar{x}$=2.3; s=1.2). With our research we managed to show that those who had already taken part in the teacher evaluation process, or were involved in it at that time (97 fő; 32.9%) have a more positive opinion about the moral (χ2(8)=20.81; p=0.008) and financial (χ2(8)=39.06; p<0.000) appreciation of their profession.

Comparing the indicators for the satisfaction with the prestige of the profession and the satisfaction with the professional environment we can see that the ratio of those teachers who think more positively of the prestige of the profession because of their positive opinion about their own professional environment is higher (Table 4).

Table 1. *Correlation of satisfaction (N=295)*

	satisfied with professional environment		not satisfied with professional environment
satisfied with moral appreciation of the profession	9.5%	↔	2.7%
satisfied with financial appreciation of profession	28.6%	↔	22.5%
satisfied with teacher evaluation system	22.2%	↔	13.0%

Comparing the answers of those who are satisfied with the professional advancement system with those who accept their professional environment we can state that those who are satisfied with the professional advancement system are more satisfied with the moral (χ2(16)=29.48; p=0.021) and/or financial (χ2(16)=183.17; p<0.000) prestige of the profession as well.

It turned out *that higher acceptance of the professional environment* among teachers is mostly *related to the financial prestige of the profession*, while the moral prestige is less important for them. We found a correlation between the level of satisfaction with the personnel and teachers' opinion on the prestige of the profession (χ^2(16)=28.69; p=0.026), but there was only coincidental correlation with teachers' opinion on the equipment (χ^2(16)=19.70; p=0.234).

We could only party prove our hypothesis (H1) stating that teachers' satisfaction with their professional environment - which is strongly influenced by the age of the teachers-directly leads to a positive view of the prestige of profession.

The explanation for this is twofold. Firstly, the evaluation of the professional environment and the age of the respondents did not correlate with each other; secondly the more positive view of the profession by those teachers who are directly involved in the teacher evaluation process shows that the professional advancement system can only raise the prestige of the profession from a financial point of view.

Needs for Training, Professional Development

In the next part of our research we wanted to find out whether the professional environment and the length of the career of the respondents correlate with *their need for professional development* at all, and at what extent. Do the challenges faced in the classroom influence teachers' *motivation to develop themselves*, and how strong is this influence? Is it true that the length of the career has a much greater influence on the need to get training than the professional environment?

To answer these questions we primarily analysed *how motivated teachers are* to learn something new. More than half of the respondents (136 people; 46.1%) got their first or second degree within one or two years or were students at the time of doing the survey, therefore we need to disregard the answers labelled 'in progress' (Figure 2).

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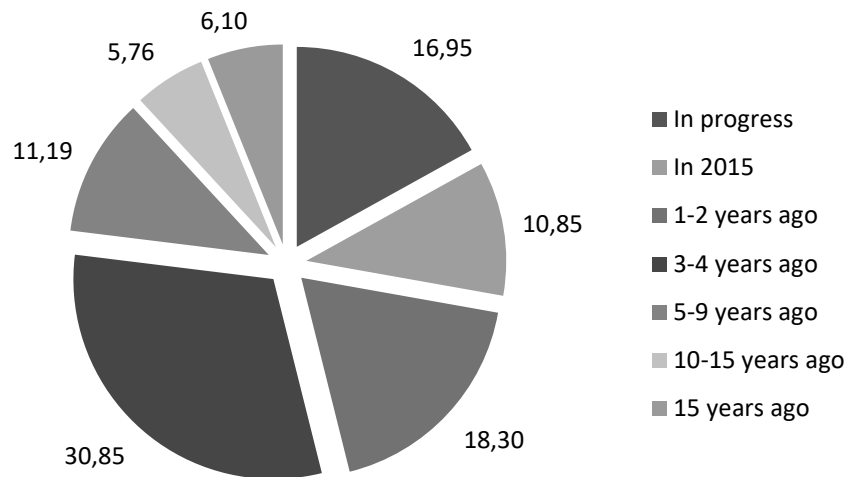
Figure 2. *The year of getting their last degree in percentages (N=295)*

214 people (64.1%)-other than their first degree- have also got supplementary/postgraduate degrees and/or qualifying exams. Moreover, 139 people (47.1%) have taken part in more than ten professional training courses, most of them (274 people, 92.9%) in the past three academic years. (Figure 3)
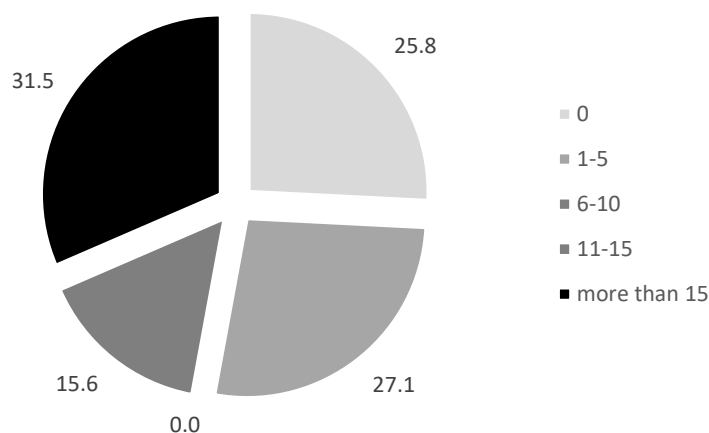
Figure 3. *How many training courses have you taken part in?(N=295)*

According to the teachers the quality of the training courses (measured on a five level scale) was mediocre ($\bar{x}$=3.4; s=0.9; v=0.3). Their satisfaction with the information available ($\bar{x}$=3.5; s=1.0; v=0,3), and the organisation of the courses ($\bar{x}$=3.5; s=0.9; v=0.2) was slightly higher. Although our sample is rather changeable in this respect, the correlation between these three factors is clear (r_1=0.64; r_2=0.56; r_3=0.36).

Talking about the correlation between *the number of training courses completed by the teachers and the components of their satisfaction (organisation, quality, information) with the courses*, we found that correlation was only visible with the component 'information available' (χ^2(12)=41.65; p<0.000). This indicates that teachers do not have the chance to choose a course based on its quality. We assume that *whether they participate in a course depends mostly on their need to follow the regulations rather than on their internal*

motivation to learn. However, the fact that only 4.4% of respondents (13 people) said that in the previous five years they had not participated in a course which they managed to partly or fully utilise in their teaching *shows the significance of these training courses in teachers' professional development*. This is also verified by the fact that those who learnt useful skills in training courses in the past five years (282 people) took part in 2.2 useful training courses on average in 1.7 academic years.

Figure 4 lists the *obstacles that may prevent teachers from taking part in training courses*. Those respondents (162 people, 54.9%) who were planning to take part in a course expressed their willingness to *take on courses in two fields on average*, but they said that they cannot always do so due to *lack of time* (69.1%), *lack of financial resources* (63.9%), *the distance of the course* (28.2%) and the *training strategy of their institutions* (21.0%). There were only two teachers in our sample who feel that there are no obstacles preventing them from taking part in training courses, however they do not have a commitment to learn. Because of their age and number of degrees, they are not planning to get another degree or do a training course.

In our sample there are a few more obstacles listed: *the lack of supportive environment, the lack of information about training opportunities and low level of motivation*. The 5.2% proportion of this latter factor implies 20 or more years in the profession and participation in 10-15 training courses.
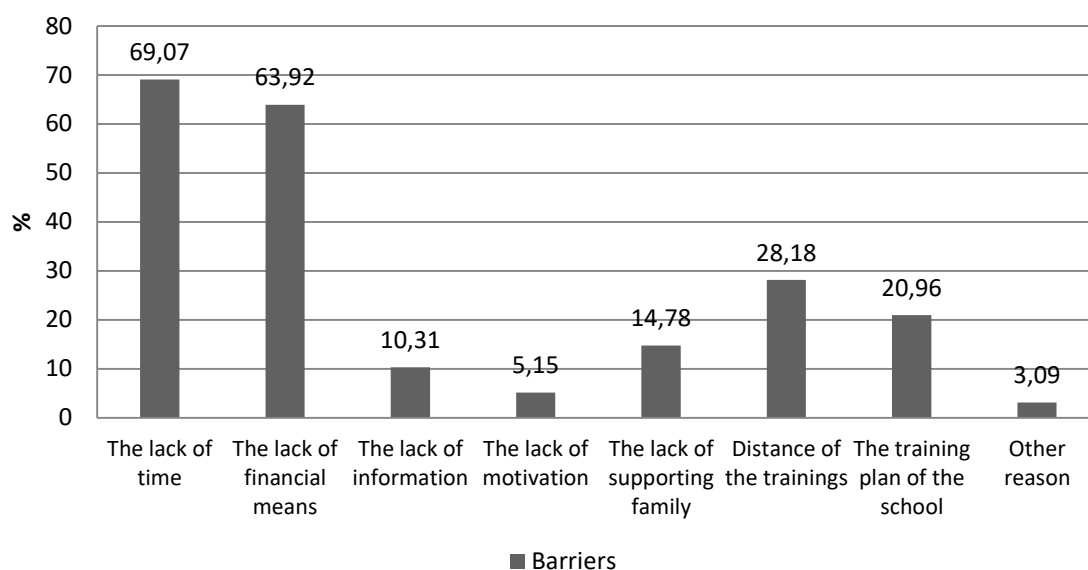
Figure 4. *The obstacles of professional development (N=293)*

Our research showed that those teachers who are less satisfied with their professional environment ($\chi^2(24)=53.78$; p<0.000 and $\chi^2(24)=53.40$; p=0.001) mentioned having more obstacles in the way of their professional development. The number of obstacles listed is independent of the professional advancement system and the acceptance of financial conditions, however the factors directly influencing teachers' professional vision, such as the *professional environment* or the *opportunities for professional advancement* have significant correlation with *the acceptance of the training strategy of the institutions* (Table 5).

Table 5. *Factors directly influencing the professional vision and the level of identifying with the training strategy of the institution (N=295)*

	Satisfaction with the personnel of the workplace	Satisfaction with the professional advancement system	Satisfaction with the equipment	Satisfaction with the financial conditions
Satisfaction with the training strategy of the institution	$\chi^2(16)=46.76$ p<0.000	$\chi^2(16)=36.64$ p=0.002	$\chi^2(16)=52.37$ p<0.000	$\chi^2(16)=26.94$ p=0.042

Analysing the correlation between the needs for learning, the professional challenges and the wellbeing of teachers at their workplaces we can state that those teachers who have plans to learn in the near future (162 people) mentioned 2.7 courses they were interested in on average. However, *a quarter of them (44 people) strongly refuse to take on a course to get another degree*. The background of this can be enlightened by the strong correlation ($\chi^2(48)=102.37$; p<0.000) between the previously mentioned *obstacles preventing teachers from taking on courses and teachers' aspiration* for learning (their interest in training courses). As a consequence teachers who are willing to learn need to overcome a lot of obstacles (in their professional and personal lives), therefore they prefer short-term training courses.

Our data proved (H2) the significant correlation ($\chi^2(16)=50.59$; p<0.000) between the level of satisfaction with the *professional advancement system* and the *effort made in order to take on a training course*, from which we can infer that these teachers *aim to stay in the profession.* Because of the limited number of items in our sample and because of the particularity of the sample (it is connected only to tertiary education), the result cannot be generalised, however it shows that the degree/qualification received after the training course is a stronger motivational factor for teachers to take on a course than the topic of the course. It seems clear that the *level of satisfaction with the professional environment has a role in teachers' plans to learn* ($\chi^2(32)=47.25$; p=0.040), but teachers' opportunities to build their carriers offered by the professional advancement system have a stronger influence ($\chi^2(32)=35.91$; p=0.029). The correlation between teachers' aims to get training and the professional environment could only be shown from the personal side ($\chi^2(32)=47.25$; p=0.040), which shows that the institution's level of infrastructure rarely leads to the need to develop on the side of the teacher.

Preferred Training Fields and Topics

With our research we also aimed to get a clearer picture of which fields and topics teachers are mostly interested in concerning their plans to develop themselves.

Our results show that almost half of the teachers in our sample (133 people; 45.1%) have no clear view of what type of training they would like to get in the near future. The 162 teachers with a plan to learn gave 202 answers altogether, which ($\bar{x}$=1,3 ideas; s=0,8; v=0,6 aside) cannot be labelled as characteristic. The answers tend to point in the direction of *accredited courses* (39.6%) and *courses ending with qualifying exams* (37.1%). Postgraduate degree courses are in the third place (15.8%) and Ph. D courses are in the fourth place (7.4%) in the ranking.

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We analysed the correlation between *experiences with training courses and plans to take on another course* and we found that, on the one hand, the available information on the courses correlates with the number of training courses one has finished ($\chi^2(16)=47.93$; p<0.000), as well as with the variety of training courses one is planning to take on in the future ($\chi^2(32)=50.19$; p=0.021). *On the other hand, neither the organisation, nor the quality of the training courses seem to have influence on teachers' level of activity concerning taken and planned courses.* The reasons behind this phenomenon are thought to be the slow dissemination of the opinion teachers have on a given course, the lack of quality control of courses, and the fact that institutions cannot finance the training courses of their employees.

Since, as we have already mentioned, the level of satisfaction with the professional advancement system has a great effect on teachers' motivation to learn, it is everyone's own interest to finance those training opportunities that they know will be beneficial to them. This directs them to tertiary education (postgraduate degree courses, qualifying exams, PhD courses).

The preferences of teachers who are willing to learn (N=162) are shown in Figure 5, which indicates that almost half (45.7%) of those who have clear training plans are motivated solely because they would like to *get a new degree*. Two thirds of the above mentioned teachers are only motivated to do *accredited courses* (35.2%). It is only one fifth (19.1%) of the teachers in the sample who are interested in both types of courses.
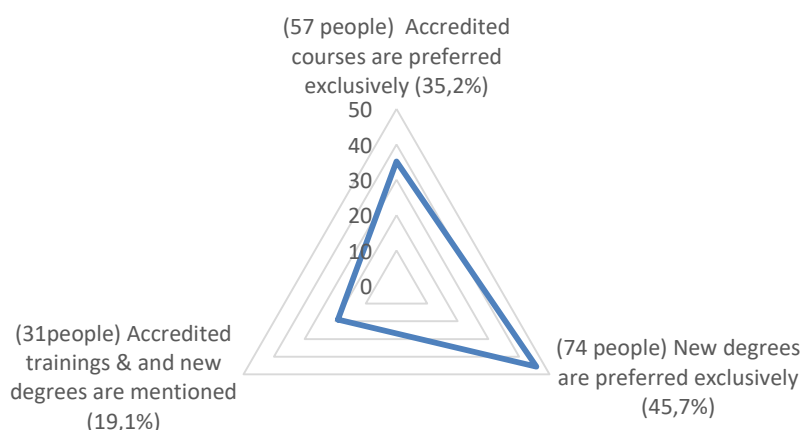
Figure 5. *Types of courses teachers who are willing to learn are interested in (N= 162)*

It is because of the professional advancement system that there is a strong interest in *courses giving a post graduate degree*. It needs to be emphasized, though, that –on a five level scale- respondents' level of satisfaction with the current opportunities ($\bar{x}=3.4$; s=1.1; v=0.3) to get a post graduate degree and the conditions ($\bar{x}=3.3$; s=1.0; v=0.3) are only mediocre and both parameters characterize a strongly changeable sample. Even though one's judgement on the two features depends on the individual, it can be shown in all cases ($\chi_1^2(16)=30.02$; p=0.018) ($\chi_2^2(16)=30.00$; p =0.018) that the length of one's career strongly influences one's level of satisfaction. A logical explanation for this may be one's personal inadequacy concerning the obligation to pass a language exam, but this could only be partly proven by our data. The number of language exams is related to one's age ($\chi^2(12)=85.33$; p<0.000), but unrelated to the length of the career ($\chi^2(12)=5.62$; p=0.934). We have no data

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about the subjects the respondents teach, therefore we could not separate foreign language teachers from teachers of other subjects in the analysis of the data.

Table 6. shows the topics respondents find interesting. It is intriguing that 133 people had not yet decided what type of course they would be interested in, whereas there were only 4 people who indicated absolutely no topics they would be interested in.

Table 6. *Topics of courses in order of their popularity*

Topic of training courses	*number of people*	*% (N=291)*
modern educational methods	126	43.3
foreign languages	102	35.1
pedagogy, psychology	99	34.0
using the interactive white board	88	30.2
effective classroom management	86	29.6
writing the portfolio	54	18.6
scientific publication	45	15.5
writing bids	43	14.8
creating presentations	27	9.3
others	17	5.8

From the answers we deduced that our respondents are mostly interested in *modern educational methods, foreign languages, pedagogy and psychology, using the interactive white board and effective classroom management.* The answers to the open question 'what other topics would be interesting' showed that respondents are also keen on learning about special needs education, psychology, pedagogy, non-pedagogical topics; moreover they would like to learn about the holistic approach, diagnostics, meditation and yoga.

To find out what the underlying reasons behind the above mentioned choices are, we carried out an examination of the relevant factors, the results of which showed that teachers' plans to do courses in tertiary training institutions are influenced more by their opportunities (or obstacles) to develop themselves professionally, rather than the professional advancement system or financial conditions (Table 7).

Table 7. *Factors represented by the preferred training opportunities (N=295)*

	number of difficulties in professional development	satisfaction with the professional advancement system	satisfaction with the prestige of the profession	satisfaction with the financial conditions
preferred number of training opportunities	$\chi^2(48)=102.37$ p<0.000	$\chi^2(32)=35.91$ p=0.029	$\chi^2(32)=47.25$ p=0.040	$\chi^2(32)=25.44$ p=0.788

Our hypothesis (H3) stating that the preferred topics of the courses represent the aims of the institutions more strongly than teachers' needs to overcome their professional

challenges, their earlier experiences with courses or the direct effects of their professional environment could not be proved by the data we collected. Furthermore, the preferred topics of the courses are independent of teachers' experiences of the organisation and the quality ($\chi^2(32)=32.92$; p=0.422 és $\chi^2(32)=18.64$; p=0.971) of the courses.

It is a fact, however, that the chance to get a higher salary offered by the professional advancement system makes teachers more interested in tertiary education, but this interest is aimed at short-term (2-4 terms) courses.

Conclusion

Since we believe that teachers' motivation to learning correlates to their long term plans concerning their carriers, we carried out this research aiming to discover the factors influencing teachers' attitude to learning.

We put forward three hypotheses relating to teachers' p*rofessional environment, opportunities to advance in their carriers* and *self-development* and we focused our observation on the correlations of certain factors of these fields. Since the data we collected showed inconsistency in some cases, we could not completely confirm our hypotheses.

For example we assumed that the level of satisfaction with the professional environment correlates to the age of the teacher and it also brings about a positive view of the prestige of the profession. Our research, however, disproved that the longer one's carrier is the more satisfied they are with their professional environment, moreover it turned out that positive opinion about the prestige of the profession does not depend on the satisfaction with the professional environment, but the implications of the teacher evaluation system.

The influence of the professional environment on teachers' aspiration to learn was believed to be verifiable, but the opportunities to build one's carrier were thought to be more significant. Our data confirm that the level of *satisfaction with the professional environment has indeed a great role in taking on a training course, however the opportunities to advance in one's carrier offered by the teacher evaluation system have a greater influence*; getting the certificate for completing a training gives more motivation for teachers to take on a course than the topic itself. Our findings coincide with Sági's views (2015), who said that '… there is an active part of teachers, who had already been highly qualified, who got new (specialised) qualifications in the first year of the professional advancement system, in accordance with the new conditions of the system, however other teachers still did not show motivation to learn' (p. 90).

We could not prove that the needs of the institutions have a greater role in teachers' plans to learn than the aspect of the challenges they face, because *topics in connection with methodology, pedagogy and psychology were among the most popular topics in the rank of preferred training topics,* and courses in tertiary institutions are mostly popular if the courses last for only 2-4 terms.

For the two institutions involved in the research, it provided useful information for the development of their future courses, for choosing the target audience and for determining the directions for future research projects.

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The Teacher Behaviors Inventory: Internal Structure, Reliability, and Criterion Relations with Boredom, Enjoyment, Task Value, Self-Efficacy and Attention

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Abstract

The assessment of the psychometric properties of Teacher Behaviors Inventory (Murray, 1983) was conducted to a sample of university students (N = 772) from Argentina. Evidence was provided of the instrument's internal structure applying exploratory factor analysis. Internal consistency was assessed by Cronbach α's coefficient. Evidence for the validity test-criterion through bivariate correlations and multiple regressions with the variables boredom, enjoyment, task value, self-efficacy and attention was provided. A final version of the instrument was demonstrated, it consists of 36 items, divided into six factors. The reliability of the instrument presented satisfactory results for all scales (α = .65 and between α = .84). The factor illustration / interaction has a higher predictive value for the criterion variables, the remaining factors had significantly lower results than expected and do not coincide in all cases with the results of the bivariate correlations. Its psychometric properties show acceptable levels of reliability and internal structure, which means that measurements of inventory in the local environment are valid and reliable for assessing teachers' behaviors. In addition, significant data on how teachers' behaviors in the classroom influence students' emotions (boredom and enjoyment), task value, self-efficacy and care were provided.

Key words: Teacher behavior, psychometric properties, achievement emotion, task value, self-efficacy, attention

Introduction

The specialized literature highlights the role of instructional teaching quality on motivation, cognitive processes, emotions and student's performance (Linnenbrink-Garcia, Patall, & Pekrun, 2016). Instructional teaching quality might be defined as the teacher's behavior in the classroom, which facilitates learning and promotes an optimum affective, motivational, behavioral and cognitive student's development (Sánchez Rosas & Esquivel, under review). The instructional teaching quality is one of the main modifiable factors that influences the student's achievement (Hattie, 2009), so identifying its role in the development of these processes it's a primary goal in order to improve teacher's education and student's learning (Praetorius, Lenske, & Helmke,2012).

The Teacher Behaviors Inventory (TBI, Murray, 1983) it's a suitable instrument for measuring teaching quality and has certain advantages over other instruments. It measures low-inference behaviors, which helps to clearly distinguish the effective behaviors of those who are not. Students are the evaluators of such behaviors, providing reliable data. There have been experimental studies with this instrument supporting its validity and reliability for measuring instructional teaching quality. Through its results improvements in the performance of teachers in the classroom can be implemented. In this study, the psychometric studies applied to the TBI guaranteeing counting with an useful tool to investigate the teaching quality teaching are performed.

Instructional teaching quality assessment instruments

Cook (1989) and Marsh (1987) indicate that the first scale designed for teacher assessment by its students was the Purdue Rating Scale of Instruction Remmers, which was published in 1927. From this moment appeared a lot of other instruments. Between them, it can be mentioned the Teaching Evaluation Record (Beecher, 1956), The Principles of Adult Learning Scale (Conti, 1979), the Teacher Performance Assessment Instrument (Capie,

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Anderson, Johnson, & Ellett, 1980), the Multidimensional students' evaluations of teaching effectiveness: A profile analysis (Marsh & Bailey, 1993), among other more recent scales (Goetz, Lüdtke, Nett, Keller, & Lipnevich, 2013; Kunter & Baumert, 2006; Leung, Lue, & Lee, 2003; López-Barajas & Ruiz Carrascosa, 2005; Pratt, Collins, & Selinger, 2001; Wagner, Göllner, Hellmke, Trautwein, & Lüdtke, 2013).

High inference vs low inference teachers' behavior

The characteristics of teachers' effectiveness generally were studied from two perspectives. These variants at an instructional level in higher education have been called: High-inference behaviors (Feldman, 1976; Marsh, 1984) and low-inference behaviors (Rosenshine & Furst, 1971).

High-inference behaviors reflect global abstract features as *Explains clearly* or *Has a good relationship with their students*. Low-inference behaviors reflect more specific and concrete teaching behaviors as *Gives several examples of each concept, Names each student by name* (Murray, 1999). In general, the instruments which took as a criteria high inference behavior are more than the ones that took the low inference ones. Although knowledge of both characteristics is necessary the assessment of low inference behaviors presents certain advantages. First, low inference behaviors are relatively easy to manipulate or register for research, and researchers are more likely to use consistent operational definitions of teaching when based on specific and concrete behavior. Second, low inference behaviors present most useful at giving feedback to teachers on their performance. For example, if a teacher receives a negative evaluation regarding its performance and is about an overall assessment and not for specific behaviors he will be at the crossroads of not knowing what is failing in his performance in the classroom (Murray, 1983).

Teacher Behaviors Inventory

The TBI measures low inference behaviors of teachers that would be related to effective teaching and student learning. There are different versions of the TBI with more or fewer items. Factor analysis of the different versions and different research studies showed different factor structures (Erdle & Murray, 1986; Murray, 1985, 1997). It has also been adapted in different countries; the most recent version is on Philippines' students population (Murray, personal communication). Although through the studies, the same factorial structure hasn't always been found, eight to ten factors were usually identified. Clarity, Enthusiasm, Interaction, Organization and Speech are the factors found in most studies.

The most commonly used of the TBI version is the first developed by Murray (1983) which consists of 60 items, on which an exploratory factor analysis (principal axis method, varimax rotation, factors with eigenvalues > 2.00, 69% of the variance explained, alphas from .77 to .96) was applied. Factor analysis obtained the following eight factors: Clarity, Enthusiasm, Interaction, Organization, Pace, Disclosure, Speech, Rapport. These dimensions were identified by methods used in the development of scales (factor analysis) and analysis of the predictive validity of the scales to explain various results related to student (Murray, 1997). Each category is comprised of several items that are answered in a Likert scale of five points (*almost never observed - almost always observed*) to indicate the frequency of classroom behavior.

Instructional teaching quality, emotions, motivation and attention

Behaviors or dimensions of instructional teaching quality have influence on emotions in the academic context, while they can influence on task value, self-efficacy and levels of

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attention, among many other variables in the academic fields (Sánchez Rosas & Esquivel, under review).

On one hand, Instructional behaviors (Goetz et al., 2013; Lohrmann, 2008) can act as precursors or antecedents of boredom (Daschmann, Goetz, & Stupnisky, 2011, 2014). In general, the teacher's monotony of teaching is the main cause of boredom (Bartsch & Cobern, 2003; Hill & Perkins, 1985; Robinson, 1975). In addition, different dimensions of instructional teaching quality were reported as factors that reduce boredom in class (Daschmann et al., 2011; Goetz, 2004; Goetz et al., 2013; Sánchez Rosas & Esquivel, under review). On the other hand, teacher's enthusiasm (Babab, 2007) and the perceived teacher's behavior (Sánchez Rosas, Takaya, & Molinari, 2016) relate to the emotions of students, such as enjoyment (Frenzel, Goetz, Lüdtke, Pekrun, & Sutton, 2009; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994; Mottet & Beebe, 2002). On one hand, the enthusiasm that a teacher will dedicate to a subject can arouse the students' perceived task value (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1993), as they may consider it relevant as learning academic material or to their daily lives (Hulleman, Godes, Hendricks, & Harackiewicz, 2010; Hulleman & Harackiewicz, 2009; Lee Johnson & Sinatra, 2013). On the other hand, the way the teacher presents a task (for example, difficult activities or negative feedback) can influence the confidence to do it (namely self-efficacy, Bandura, 1997). A series of research support the presumed relationships between instructional teaching quality, task value and self-efficacy (Ahmed, Minnaert, Van der Werf, & Kyuperet, 2010; Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002; Federici & Skaalvik, 2014; Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991; Smart, 2014; Velez & Cano, 2012).

It has been shown that expressive behavior (Murray, 1991; Murray & Lawrence, 1980), monotony (Brigham, Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1992), pace (Goetz et al, 2013.), among other teacher behaviors (Sánchez Rosas, Takaya, & Molinari, in press), affect attention in class. Thus, if the teacher performs behaviors as speaking expressively, moves while dictating the class, tells jokes or using humor, makes eye contact with students, exposes at an appropriate pace, it is likely that he will attract the attention of their students.

Here the results of different psychometric studies applied to Teacher Behaviors Inventory (Murray, 1983) are reported: internal structure, reliability and validity test-criterion with boredom, enjoyment, task value, attention and self-efficacy.

Method

Participants

College students participated (N = 772, women = 76%, men = 24%), aged between 18 and 74 years (M = 22.94, SD = 6.13), from different careers (Psychology, Law, Architecture, Public accountant, Faculty in Foreign Languages, Bioimages, Dentistry, Chemistry, Archival, Civil Engineering, Industrial Engineering, among others) of the Córdoba National University, Argentina. Participants were selected through a non-probabilistic accidental sampling rate.

Measures

Instructional teaching quality. An adapted TBI (Murray, 1983) version was used to measure teacher's behavior in class.

Boredom and Enjoyment in Class. Two scales from the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire-Argentine were used (Sánchez Rosas, 2015). The boredom in class scale comprises eleven items (e.g., *The class is so boring that I feel like leaving*, α = .90) and the enjoyment in class scale, ten items (e.g., *I enjoy attending this class*, α =.87). These scales

measure the frequency of this kind of emotions in a Likert scale which ranges from (1) *Never* to (5) *Always*.

Task Value. A scale that assesses the perceived interest, importance and usefulness of materials and learning content was used (Pintrich et al., 1993). It consists of six items (e.g., *The material used in this area is useful for my learning*) and presented adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .95$). The items are answered using a Likert scale to indicate the item's agreement degree from (1) *Strongly disagree* to (5) *Strongly agree.*

Academic self-efficacy. A scale that assesses students' beliefs about their ability to perform well in the subjects was used (Pintrich et al., 1993). It consists of eight items (e.g., *I am able to understand the most difficult concepts presented by the teacher in the class of this subject*) and demonstrated adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .95$). The items are answered using a Likert scale, expressing the safety level of (1) *Cannot do it* (10) *Totally safe to do so.*

Attention in class. To measure attention in class it was used an one dimensional designed scale that assesses the ability to concentrate, irrelevant thoughts and attention. It has seven items with four written in reverse (e.g., *I lose concentration*) and three directly (e.g., *I follow closely what is being explained*). The items are answered based on a Likert scale from (1) *Never* to (5) *Always*. When performing the analysis, the first four items were re-codified. The scale's one dimensionality was assessed using exploratory factor analysis and the internal consistency and the results were acceptable (KMO = .90; 67% of explained variance and factor loadings > .76; $\alpha = .95$).

The total scores of each scale were calculated by adding the values provided to each item and then divided by the number of items in the corresponding scale. In this way, the average values per variable were obtained, they go from 1 to 5 for all scales, in exception of self-efficacy that adopts values from 1 to 10.

Procedure

A direct translation of the items from English, the original language to spoken Spanish by the targeted population of this instrument, was made. In order to assess the equivalence between the two versions the instrument was applied, both in its English and Spanish versions, to a bilingual sample. Subsequently, Spearman correlations and T-test for paired samples were performed. The results of these analyzes support the conclusion that the original version and the translated are equivalent.

Full protocols were personally administered during school hours, explaining to participants the purposes of the study and that their responses would be anonymous and used only for research purposes. All agreed to participate voluntarily when filling protocols. Data were analyzed through the software IBM SPSS Amos 19.

Data analysis

To carry out the analysis of internal structure we chose to use the same method as the author of the TBI in its original version (Principal Axis, Promax rotation) which analyzes the variance that variables have in common or covariance, excluding the specific and error variance. To evaluate the feasibility of conducting exploratory factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and and Bartlett's test of sphericity were considered. Additionally, to determine the number of factors to extract, the rule eigenvalues and the scree plot were considered. In the analysis were considered adequate factor

correlations of .30 or higher and not shared by correlations of that variable with another factor (> .10).

Internal consistency through items covariance method was evaluated. This consists of analyzing whether the items represent sources of error when estimating through Cronbach's alpha coefficient to what extent they measure the same variable.

Finally, evidence of test-criterion validity was obtained from the bivariate correlation (Pearson coefficient) of the scales of the TBI with boredom, enjoyment, task value, self-efficacy and attention. In addition, a stepwise regression procedure was performed to analyze the predictive ability of teachers behaviors, controlling the simultaneous effect of the same on the criterion variables.

Results

Initially, six items with high values (> 2.0) of skewness and kurtosis, plus a high number of outlier cases on those items (see Table 1) were identified. This may be because most students give the same very low or very high end value to these items. That is, teachers never or always do perform the behavior in question, so that those items would have little discriminative value in practical terms. Consequently, it was decided to withdraw these six items and to carry out the exploratory factor analysis with the remaining fifty-four items.

Table 1. *TBI items with high values of skewness and kurtosis*

Items	Skewness	Kurtosis
Avoids visual contact with students	2.43	6.71
Has habits that distract	2.03	4.50
Criticize the students when they make mistakes	2.23	4.71
Stutters, whispers or mumbles or with an unclear pronunciation	3.10	10.17
Speaks to an appropriate volume	-1.59	2.23
Speaks clearly	-1.73	3.21

Internal structure: Exploratory factor analysis

Consecutive factor estimatings were made, specifying extraction of six factors, which evidenced items that showed low loadings (thirteen items < .30) or double (five items with differences in loadings > .10), which were eliminated (fourteen items) .

The final estimating (KMO = .89, χ^2 = 10035; gl = 630; p < .001) showed a structure with six related factors that explained 51% of the variance and in which all 36 items loaded clearly in corresponding factor (Table 2).

Factor 1 (Exemplifying-Interaction) was composed of eleven items that refer to the use of examples and concept applications and to opening behaviors to generate a good climate and student participation. Factor 2 (Organization) is composed of seven items that relate to the way to organize or structure the subject based on the objectives to improve understanding of the material. Factor 3 (Support) has six items that refer to guidance behavior for learning and positive relationship with the student. Factor 4 (Enthusiasm) has five items that relate to the use of nonverbal behaviors of expressiveness. Factor 5 (Clarity) consists of four items that relate to the clarity of content presentation in class appealing to the use of various resources. Factor 6 (Pace) consists of three items that refer to the rate at which information is presented, efficient use of class time (see Table 2).

Table 2. *TBI's internal structure, factor loadings, and variance explained for each factor*

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6
Tells jokes or funny anecdotes	.69					
Uses concrete examples taken from real life to explain concepts or principles	.59					
Smiles or laughs while teaching	.59					
Gives several examples of each concept	.57					
Shows tolerance to other points of views	.53					
Incentivizes students to make questions during class	.53					
Incorporates to class students' ideas	.44					
Indicates the practical applications of concepts	.40					
Talk to students before or after	.38					
Explains the subject using a colloquial language with common words	.33					
Speaks at an appropriate pace	.31					
Explains how each topic is articulated with the rest of the subject		.75				
Periodically summarizes the previously spoken points		.63				
Looks back at the beginning of each class previously viewed topic		.62				
Provides an overview of the class before starting it		.61				
Indicates the objectives of each class		.59				
Indicates the overall objectives of the subjects		.58				
Reminds students exam dates or the deadline for submission of work		.43				
Offers help to students with problems			.56			
It provides model exam questions			.56			
Announces its availability for query classes after hours of the subject			.53			
Advises students regarding preparation for tests or examinations			.45			
It addresses each student calling him by name			.40			
He suggests ways to memorize complicated ideas			.31			
Makes gestures with the head or body				.66		
Shows gestures or facial expressions				.59		
Gestures with hands or arms				.53		
Walk through the aisles of the classroom and stands next to students				.53		
Moves around the classroom while giving classes				.51		
Makes an outline of the class on the board or it shows it on a screen					.80	
Uses titles or captions to organize the class					.67	
Clearly indicates the transition from one topic to the next					.43	
Write the most important terms on the board or projected on a screen					.41	
It leaves the main theme of the class						-.78
He gets delayed on obvious points						-.63
Covers too little material in class						-.52
% of variance explained for each factor	24.81	7.41	5.23	4.97	4.67	3.84

Reliability: Internal consistency

The results in Table 3 show that the six emerging factors of factor analysis have appropriate values of internal consistency.

Table 3. *Internal consistency of the TBI's scales*

Scales	α
Exemplifying/ Interaction	.84

Organization	.83
Support	.75
Enthusiasm	.75
Clarity	.71
Pace	.65

Test-criterion validity: bivariate correlations

Bivariate correlations of the TBI's scales with boredom, enjoyment, task value, attention and self-efficacy (Table 4) were obtained.

Table 4. *Bivariate correlations between the TBI's scales and criterion variables*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Exemplifying/Interaction	-										
2. Organization	.51**	-									
3. Support	.59**	.52**	-								
4. Enthusiasm	.48**	.33**	.39**	-							
5. Clarity	.28**	.42**	.24**	.17**	-						
6. Pace	.16**	.21**	.17**	.12**	.21**	-					
7. Enjoyment	.56**	.43**	.47**	.26**	.34**	.28**	-				
8. Boredom	-.45**	-.35**	-.33**	-.23**	-.27**	-.39**	-.74**	-			
9. Task value	.30**	.11*	.24**	.18**	.20**	.18**	.64**	-.45**	-		
10. Attention	.29**	.18**	.28**	.17**	.14**	.21**	.66**	-.70**	.44**	-	
11. Self-efficacy	.29**	.12*	.25**	.17**	-.01	.06	.36**	-.27**	.34**	.35**	-

Note: *p < .05; **p < .01

Significant and positive correlations of all scales with moderate to high magnitudes with enjoyment and moderate but negative with boredom were observed. Exemplifying-Interaction and support presented moderate and weak correlations, respectively, with task value, attention and self-efficacy. Organization presented marginally moderate correlation values with task value, attention and self-efficacy, while enthusiasm correlations were weak. Finally, clarity and pace correlated weak but positively with task value and attention, although no significant correlations with self-efficacy were found.

Additionally, different regression analyzes were performed by steps to analyze the predictive ability of teachers behaviors on the criterion variables (Table 5). It was found that the Exemplifying / Interaction factor has greater predictive value for the criterion variables, the remaining factors had less significant results than expected and doesn't coincide in all cases with the results of the bivariate correlations. The factor that evaluates the Exemplifying/ Interaction is the variable that is mostly associated with promoting the enjoyment, this factor makes an important contribution predicting enjoyment, the more these behaviors are made more enjoyment it's promoted. The same also influences on boredom but with the opposite effect to enjoyment. The Exemplifying / Interaction factor forecast to a lesser extent the task value, attention and self-efficacy compared to the predictive value to emotions. As for the results of Pace factor this presents greater prominence with boredom, it means that the lack of

pace in class increases boredom as well as decreases task value and attention. Finally, the factors measuring Clarity and Support contribute significantly to the prediction of task value.

Table 5. *Stepwise regressions between TBI's scales and criterion variables*

Criterion Variables	Predictors	R^2	ΔR^2	β	T	p
Enjoyment	Exemplifying Interaction	.320***	.320 ***	.37	10.23	.000
	Clarity	.357***	.038***	.14	4.48	.000
	Pace	.383***	.026***	-.15	-5.12	.000
	Support	.401***	.018***	.15	3.95	.000
	Organization	.404***	.004*	.08	2.16	.031
Boredom	Exemplifying Interaction	.204***	.204***	-.338	-9.71	.000
	Pace	.311***	.107***	.307	9.98	.000
	Organization	.319**	.009**	-.083	-2.24	.025
	Clarity	.324*	.004*	-.073	-2.20	.028
Task value	Exemplifying Interaction	.091***	.091***	.294	5.43	.000
	Pace	.124***	.033***	-.150	-3.40	.001
	Clarity	.145**	.021**	.187	4.01	.000
	Organization	.156*	.011*	-.173	-3.08	.002
	Support	.166*	.010*	.129	2.32	.021
Attention	Exemplifying Interaction	.084***	.084***	.208	3.98	.000
	Pace	.128***	.044***	-.192	-4.35	.000
	Support	.143**	.015**	.148	2.81	.005
Self-efficacy	Exemplifying Interaction	.085***	.085***	.219	4.10	.000
	Support	.097*	.012*	.132	2.47	.014

*Note. *** p <.001, **p < .01, *p < .05; R² = Determination coefficient, Δ R²=Change in R-squared, β=Standardized Beta coefficient, p=Significance level.*

Discussion

In the present work was carried out the assessment of the psychometric properties of the TBI (Murray, 1983) in a sample of Argentinean university students. To do this we sought to analyze the internal structure of the instrument, evaluate the scales' internal consistency and provide evidence of test-criterion validity. Although the instrument didn't turned out with the same structure of the original instrument, six scales with good internal consistency and good predictive ability evidenced through relationships with relevant results to assess the impact of teachers' teaching behaviors were obtained.

Internal Structure

The history of application of the TBI point out that it didn't always reached the same factorial structure and that it generally identified between eight and ten factors. Clarity, excitement, interaction, organization and speech are the factors found in most studies. This is

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shown by a study by Murray (1985) where the structure that was obtained was of six factors with a total of thirty items, which would be the closest version to the achieved in this paper . In addition, in both studies are shared four of the six factors that compose them (enthusiasm, clarity, organization, interaction). While the specific behaviors that assess each item are not exactly the same in both versions, they are oriented to assess the same dimensions. In this case, the TBI was composed of thirty-six items and six factors that assess teachers behaviors of exemplifying-interaction, organization, support, enthusiasm, clarity and pace.

Added to this, six items were removed by asymmetry problems or kurtosis. These items lack specificity or are very infrequent or frequent (It has distracting habits, speaks to an appropriate volume, it speaks clearly, stutters, and avoids eye contact with students). After the preliminary removal of these items, other items were removed by problems in their factor loadings. While the content of these items was clear, they were not very specific in terms of the assessed factor, carrying two or more factors (He asks questions aimed at the whole group). Moreover, some items were not relevant to the assessment of any factor given their low factor loadings (Gives classes reading words by words). Also the removal of some items could be due to the difficulty in interpreting and rate items containing negations (Doesn't define new or unfamiliar terms or doesn't leave the subject when answering questions from students). In this regard, it should be noted that in this new version of TBI almost all unwanted behaviors for good teaching performance were eliminated except for the factor that assesses the pace of the class. Beyond these considerations, it counts on the relevant scales for assessing the dimensions most valued in different studies of instructional teaching quality. For example, studies of Marsh and Bailey (1993 SEEQ) evaluate, among other dimensions, enthusiasm, organization, group interaction, individual counseling. Also the instrument developed by Goetz et al. (2013, Teaching Characteristics) shares assessment criteria with the TBI adapted in this work, as exemplifying, enthusiasm, lack of clarity, pace.

Internal Consistency

The results of the instrument's internal consistency were good for all inventory factors (.65 to .84). It is necessary to consider that the alpha value is affected by the number of items that compose a scale (Loewenthal, 2001), which could explain the low value of the pace scale that has only three items. However, despite the small number of items of this scale, each item has satisfactory factor loadings supporting the validity of the scale. In the case of the other scales their alphas presented values (.71 to .84) similar to those of the original instrument (.77 to .96).

Test criterion validity

Generally it was found that all TBI's scales were moderate predictors of enjoyment, boredom, attention, task value and self-efficacy in different magnitudes. These results agree with the ideas of Pekrun and Perry (2014), which argue that teaching behavior is considered an important factor in the development of academic emotions.

The factor that had a higher predictive value was the Exemplifying-interaction, these results were held under both the bivariate correlations method as the multiple regression. We believe it is so because it is the factor containing the teaching behaviors most positively valued according to the literature on the subject, including oriented behaviors on the approach to students, providing the contents of the material for student understanding and promoting students' participation. According to Smith (1977), this type of behavior (e.g., asking questions to students during class) encourages critical thinking skills compared with students who their teachers do not encourage these skills. Moreover, this factor also evaluates behaviors related to the teacher-student interaction, which is a relevant criterion in the

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development of academic emotions. For example, the mood of teachers may be one of the causes that lead students to feel more enjoyment in class, through emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994; Mottet & Beebe, 2002).

Another important factor is the support. Oriented behaviors to a more tutorial role of the teacher, as advise students to prepare for tests, offer help, announce their availability for consults, moderately increase the enjoyment of students and moderately reduces boredom in class. By contrast, using the method of multiple regressions this factor does not appear to be relevant to the prediction of other variables, it is striking that results presented are so distant.

Regarding to the Clarity factor results were less significant than expected in terms of the variables of enjoyment and boredom because in previous research (Frenzel, Pekrun, & Goetz, 2007; Goetz, 2004; Goetz, Hall, Frenzel, & Pekrun, 2006; Goetz, Pekrun, Hall, & Haag, 2006), it was mentioned that high levels of clarity are positively related to the enjoyment and negatively with boredom. While there are less significant than expected, the clarity of a teacher remains a moderately predictive factor of enjoyment, boredom and to a lesser extent, task value. As for the predictive value of the clarity with self-efficacy of students it didn't show up as expected as it was hypothesized that the way a task is presented (for example, if it is presented as more difficult than it really is or if the activities instructions are not clear) can influence the interpretation of whether it is possible to do or not. On the contrary, the results show a very low predictive value (.12) of clarity for self-efficacy. The pace with which a teacher presents a subject has implications on emotions and states of students, this means, that if the teacher is delayed or repeats many times obvious things would be very logical that students get bored and lose attention on the class, whether this class is presented very slowly or very quickly the effect is the same. On the contrary, if the teacher knows how to manage time and manages to make a presentation with a steady pace according to the rhythm of the students they enjoy and give greater value to matter. According to data, pace of the class is a moderate indicator of these variables (between -.39 and .18).

It is very striking that the excitement factor has not presented a higher correlation with the criterion variables, especially with attention and academic emotions. First, because the enthusiasm manifestations or expressive behaviors are promoters of attention through their movements ,the teacher brings dynamism to the class and makes the student more attentive (Murray & Lawrence, 1980). Second, the teacher enthusiasm positively impacts on the enjoyment of students and negatively on boredom in class (Frenzel et al., 2009; Goetz, Frenzel, Pekrun, & Hall, 2006). If the teacher makes behaviors like talking and moving around while dictating the class, makes eye contact with students and show enthusiasm for the subject, probably will attract the attention of their students, as these behaviors involve elements of variation of a stimulus and spontaneity (Murray , 1991). Also teacher's expressed enthusiasm about certain subject leads students perceive it as relevant and award greater importance and dedication to the subject (task value).

Finally, regarding self-efficacy have not been had very significant results except for the factor exemplifying / interaction and support. Consequently, be tolerant to other points of view, encourage them to ask questions or incorporate students' ideas in the class, giving concrete examples, indicate practical applications, suggest ways to study and prepare for exams , makes students experience greater security on their abilities.

While there are many studies that analyze the characteristics of instruction teaching quality, this study would be the first adaptation to Spanish language of the TBI, which would at the same time, make innovative empirical research in our context. This instrument is useful to provide feedback on their performance to teachers, which would allow a concrete knowledge about their best and worst behaviors qualified for effective teaching role.

In summary, the TBI is an easy instrument to respond and rate, useful to provide diagnostic feedback to improve teaching, as they are very specific behaviors, and research has shown that teachers can influence through their behaviors to learning, motivation, emotions and student performance. This is particularly reflected in the behaviors that measure the Exemplifying / interaction that contribute to the prediction of these variables.

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Psychometric Properties of the Palestinian Version of the Acceptance and Action Questionnaire-Ii (Aaq-Ii) Applied in The Gaza Strip[1]

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Abstract:

In recent years the concept of experiential avoidance has become essential in new-generation therapies such as Acceptance and Commitment Therapy. In order to measure its importance, the Acceptance and Action Questionnaire was developed, followed by a second version which was also translated to various languages and applied in numerous countries. However, since the creation of the questionnaire, very few versions have been adapted to the Arab world, nor has one been applied in the Gaza Strip, a region characterized by its war conflict with Israel that also suffers from the social and psychological consequences of the isolation to which it is subjected. As a result, the present study seeks to obtain the psychometric properties of this instrument in the Gaza Strip. The results obtained reveal a Cronbach's alpha of .78. Explanatory factor analysis (EFA) extracted one factors accounted for 47.71% of the total variance. This one-dimensional structure was confirmed through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The only difference from other versions of this tool is that, in the present case, the results suggest the elimination of Item 7.

Keywords: Avoidance; psychopathology; AAQ-II; Gaza strip.

Introduction

In recent years, one of the trends linked to what has been called the *third wave of behavioral therapy* (Hayes, 2004) has been the increased interest in learning more about psychological processes related to self-awareness and emotion, as well as the effective contextual changes to modify it. For instance, Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT) (Hayes, Strosahl and Wilson, 1999) has demonstrated its usefulness in fields as heterogeneous and diverse as chronic pain, addictions, depression, anxiety, posttraumatic stress disorder, food disorders, psychosis, work stress, and confronting diseases such as cancer (Ruiz, 2010; Ruiz & Callejón, 2014).

Based on this approach, a concept that becomes particularly relevant is *psychological flexibility*. This is understood as the possibility to make contact with private events that occur in the present while we freely choose to abandon or continue an action that is valuable to us, although this may imply unpleasant thoughts and emotions. In contrast, the alternative, which is *experiential avoidance* (herein after, *EA*), consists of repeated and deliberate attempts aimed at avoiding or escaping those private events, and particularly those that threaten what we consider valuable in the evolution of our lives (Hayes, Wilson, Gifford, Follette and Strosahl, 1996).

The first tool developed for measuring EA was the *Acceptance and Action Questionnaire* (AAQ; Hayes et al., 2004), which had a Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient of .70. Over the years, this 10-item tool, with Likert-type responses, had demonstrated its great usefulness with regard to external validity, however, with the objective of perfecting its psychometric properties related to its factorial structure and internal consistency, a second version was developed, the AAQ-II (Bond, Hayes, Baer, Carpenter, Orcutt, Waltz & Zettle, 2011). This version, which only features 7 items, has been translated and validated in different countries on various continents, such as Spain (Ruiz, Langer, Luciano, Cangas and Beltrán, 2013), Italy (Pennato, Berrocal, Bernini and Rivas, 2013), Portugal (Pinto, Gregório, Dinisy Xavier, 2012), Columbia (Ruiz, Suárez-Falcón, Cárdenas-Sierra, Duran, Guerrero and Riano-Hernández, 2016), China (Zhang, Chung, Si and Liu, 2014), Taiwan (Chang, Chi, Lind and Ye, 2015), Iran (Ghasemi., Kalantari, Asghari and Molavi, 2014), and Turkey (Meunier, Atmaca, Ayrancı, Gökdemir, Uyar, and Baştuğ, 2014).

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In this way, the objective of the present study is to validate the AAQ-II in the Gaza Strip, a region severely affected by its war conflict and total blockade by Israel. For this reason, we believe it is fundamental to have a tool that is widely used in various countries which helps us to learn more about how internal events can be experienced, specifically related to psychopathological problems, in order to determine the relationship this can have with other emotions such as, for example, traumatic experiences.

Method

Participants

The study sample was comprised of a total of 614 students (113 boys and 501 girls) from the universities of Gaza (Al Azhar University-Gaza, University of Palestine, Al Aqsa University-Gaza, Al-Quds Open University). Their ages ranged from 16 to 36 ($M = 20.12$, $S.D = 2.43$). Non-random sampling was utilized (Azorín and Sánchez Crespo, 1986).

Instrument

The AAQ-II (Bond et al., 2011) is a general measure of experiential avoidance and psychological flexibility. It consists of 7 items rated on 7-Point Likert-Type Scale (ranging from 1 = never true, to 7 = always true). All items are related to the lack of contact with unwanted thoughts and emotions, as well as the inability to make contact with the present moment. These conditions thereby allow decisions to be made in accordance with one's own values, even when these imply considerable short-term uneasiness. Recent studies have shown that the AAQ-II has better psychometric properties and clearer factorial structure than its initial version (Bond et al., 2011). In this study, the original English version was used, which was first translated to Arabic and then back to English again, following the recommendations proposed by Muñiz and Hambleton (1996).

Procedure

Students were invited to participate in this study on a voluntary basis, and their participation required that they sign a consent form. Each application of the questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes and was conducted in the presence of the head researcher so an explanation could be provided concerning the objective and structure of the study as well as how to complete the questionnaire.

Data analysis

An initial analysis of the psychometric properties of the AAQ-II scale to measure experiential avoidance and psychological inflexibility using the Palestinian version of the AAQ-II served to determine the validity and reliability of said scale. To this end, calculations were made for bivariate correlations, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), based on a factor model of the AAQ-II scale and a sex invariance analysis. The statistical analyses were carried out using the software programs SPSS 21 and AMOS 21.

First, in order to evaluate the internal consistency of the scale, a Pearson correlation was conducted between each element and the total score, and Cronbach's alpha was calculated for all the data. Second, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin index and Bartlett's sphericity test were calculated to determine whether they were apt for carrying out the factorial analysis. Later, an exploratory analysis was done using key components analysis. Given that Mardia's coefficient was low for AFC (2.157), the maximum likelihood estimation method was utilized to analyze the correlations matrix. The analyses were carried out by means of the AMOS program.

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To determine whether to accept or reject the tested model, a combination of various adjustment indexes were applied: χ^2/gl, CFI (*Comparative FitIndex*), TLI (*Tucker Lewis Index*), IFI (*Incremental Fit Index*), RMSEA (*Root Mean Square Error of Approximation*) with a 90% confidence interval and SRMR (*Standardized Root Mean Square Residual*). Given that χ^2 is highly sensitive to sample size (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993), χ^2/gl was utilized, which is considered acceptable with a quotient of 4, while values near 2 are considered to have a very good fit (Brooke, Russell and Price, 1988).

Results

Table 1 displays the correlations between each item and the total score of the scale, which was between a general range of .19 (Item 7) and .72 (Item 2). These results make it necessary to consider the possibility of eliminating Item 7, given that item-test correlation is lower than the established cut-off point of .30 (Fayers and Machin, 2000). Consequently, this item was not included in the analysis and the study proceeded with only the remaining 6. The general Cronbach Alpha was .78 after eliminating Item 7, while this number was .69 before being removed.

Table 1. *Correlations between each item and the total score of the scale. Reliability.*

Items	Item-test Correlation	Cronbach Alpha if element is eliminated	Saturation factor of each item with the main factor
1	70**	.62	.73
2	72**	.62	.76
3	64**	.65	.65
4	70**	.62	.74
5	70**	.63	.66
6	58**	.66	.58
7	**19****	**.78**	-

The first step was to conduct an EFA using the main components of the 6 items that ultimately comprised the AAQ-II scale in the Palestinian validation. As for the factorial analysis, the Bartlett sphericity test must be statistically significant to .05 and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy must be higher than .6 to confirm the suitability of the statistical tool (Pallant, 2001). The data offer a Bartlett coefficient of 878.04, with a p<.001 and KMO of .808, which confirms the use of factorial analysis. This analysis clearly produced a unifactorial solution, as can also be seen in the screenplot graphic which confirms the existence of one lone factor. This factor explains 47.71% of score variance. Table 1 shows the saturation of each item with each main factor, which vary between .58 and .76.

An initial CFA tested the model structure with one lone factor for six items, revealing adequate fit indexes, precisely as shown in Table 2. In this model, the standardized regression weights were statistically significant (p<.001) in relation to all items. The results of the various modification indexes utilized confirm that the model tested (a factor correlated with 6 items) is that which best fits the data (Figure 1 displays the definitive 6-item model). It can be observed that the incremental indexes (CFI, TLI and IFI) demonstrate good fit, with values of .90 or higher (Schumacher and Lomax, 1996), while the error indexes are considered acceptable at values equal to or lower than .08 for RMSEA and SRMR (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Therefore, this 6-factor unifactorial model displays good fit.

Table 2. *Unifactorial model with 6 items for AAQ-II.*

Model	χ^2	gl	χ^2/gl	p	N	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA (IC 90%)	SRMR
Model 1	32.74	8	4.09	.000	614	.971	.946	.972	.071 (.047-.097)	.033

Model 1: with 6 items.

Sex invariance analysis

Table 3 shows the modification indexes for the four models tested in the multigroup invariance analysis related to sex for the unifactorial model of the AAQ-II scale with 6 items (after eliminating Item 7 from the original scale). It was confirmed that there are no significant differences in the Chi-squared value between the unrestricted model and the measurement weights model, but there *are* significant differences when it is compared to the rest of the models. Nevertheless, given that the χ^2 coefficient is sensitive to sample size, the criterion established by Cheung & Rensvold (2002) was used with respect to ΔCFI. According to these authors, ΔCFI values less than or equal to .01 indicate that the invariance of the null hypothesis should not be rejected. In keeping with this criterion, the results would support the existence of invariance regarding sex for the factorial structure of the AAQ-II scale.

Table 3. *Sex Invariance Analysis*

Models	χ^2	gl	χ^2/gl	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δgl	CFI	TLI	IFI	RMSEA (IC 90%)	SRMR
Model 1	42.191	16	2.63	-	-	.970	.944	.971	.052 (.033-.071)	.052
Model 2	45.960	21	2.18	3.76	4	.972	.959	.972	.044 (.027-.061)	.060
Model 3	68.242	28	2.43	26.05*	10	.964	.951	.964	.048 (.034-.063)	.062
Model 4	78.387	35	2.24	36.19*	10	.961	.958	.960	.045 (.032-.058)	.071

*$p<.05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$. Note. Model 1 = unresticted model; Model 2 = invariant measurement weights model; Model 3 = invariant structural covariance model; Model 4 = invariant measurement residuals model.
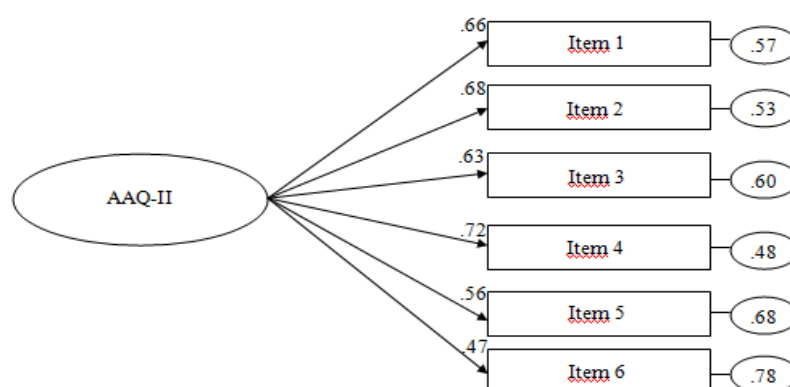

Figure 1. Confirmatory factorial analysis of the AAQ-II scale in Gaza.

The ellipse represents the factor and the rectangles represent the various items, while the residual variances are shown in the small circles.

Discussion

The objective of the present study was to evaluate the factorial structure and reliability of the Arabic version of the Acceptance and Action Questionnaire-II in Gaza. The results obtained reveal the presence of a unifactorial structure, which was confirmed using the confirmatory analysis. These results are similar to other studies that have also analyzed the psychometric properties of this tool (Chang et al., 2015; Ghasemi et al., 2014; Meunier et al., 2014; Pennato et al, 2013; Pinto et al., 2012; Ruiz et al., 2013, 2016; Zhang et al., 2014).

The only difference with respect to the above studies is that, in this case, the results recommend eliminating Item 7 (*Worries get in the way of my success*), due to the fact that it displays a very low correlation with the rest of the items (.19), while the rest reveal high consistency.

It could then be considered that Item 7 is influenced by some idiosyncratic characteristic in the Gaza sampling which could not be related to the rest of the items in the questionnaire. Also, it might be the result of possible methodological limitations of the present study, such as the fact that the specific psychopathological characteristics of the population were not measured, and this may have affected the results. Furthermore, the average age of the participants in the present study (20 years old) is lower than in earlier studies. Nevertheless, it must be taken into account that the Gaza Strip currently has one of the lowest age averages in the world (17 years old according to Index Mundi), with 40% of the population under 14 years of age.

In this way, the unifactorial structure of the questionnaire and the adequate psychometric properties are confirmed. It is recommended, however, that the tool also be validated with other clinical measures that help to understand the psychological characteristics of this population. This is an aspect that the present research group intends to carry out in future works.

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Teacher as Giver and Receiver of Support in Difficult Situations at Polish Schools in the Subcarpathian Voivodeship

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Abstract

Teacher and school have to assist students in development and provide support and help, when they can't manage, teach them to solve problems and deal with difficult situations. However the students must want the assistance and trust the teacher, count on him when their strength fails. This help cannot be one-sided, since partnership is said to be. School as an institution from the assumption helps students, but as a human system should be mutually supported. So to what extent is the teacher a giver and receiver of support in difficult situations? Empirical research conducted amongst several hundreds of students and teachers in polish schools in the area of Subcarpathia proves that these two subjects rely little on each other and have limited trust! Conclusions of the research lead to seeking answer to the fundamental and downright question: how to (re)build student's trust in teacher and his educational authority (influence), which is indeed based on trust? Therefore a need of thorough research appears, in order to seek vision of the school, student and teacher, who will be accompanied by trust, engagement and responsibility.

Keywords: school, student, teacher, difficult situations, support, authority

Introduction

The need of support in difficult situations is described on the basis of many humanistic and social sciences, including: psychology, sociology, social pedagogy, social work. Many research are conducted concerning this subject (Kawula, 1996; Kantowicz, 1997; Sęk, 2003; Sęk-Cieślak, 2004; Korlak-Łukasiewicz & Zdaniewicz, 2016). They relate more to the elder, sick or disabled people than to school and it's subject (Cywińska, 2008; Szczęsna, 2010; Gajdzica, 2011; Lisiewicz, 2012; Czekaj & Świech, 2013; Kocór, 2013a; Furmanek, 2015; Socha & Podhájecká & Gerka, 2015). More often they regard to the student than teacher too, assuming that as a professional should be strong to support student and parent, but forgetting that if he is not strong, he will not be able to support others.

In psychology (Tomaszewski, 1978) difficult situations causing stress are said to be ones, that exceed the capabilities and requirements from outside, threaten of loss something important, not fulfilling the conditions and set tasks. They consist of: situations of deprivation related to inability to satisfy various needs, situations of quantity and quality overload - study, work and household duties; situations of impediments, which causes obstacles and deficits , encountered in implementations of specific roles and tasks, such as: physical, mental, informational, social, cultural, legal and political. Their supplement and defeat require additional resources and constrictive actions. In student's education or teacher's work also situations of conflict occur related with disrupted communication in relations: teacher-student, student-student, teacher-parent and vice versa. These are conflict of role, internal conflict, conflict of student's generation with teacher's and parent's. At school both students and teachers often experience situations of danger of loss of cherished values, a sense of security, current position and fulfilled role. In school environment, mainly teacher should be support, whose student and parent as *educational partners* can also support in miscellaneous ways. So how to understand support at school? What are his sources and types in regard to student and teacher?

In Poland, S. Kawula (1996) presented the famous *spiral of kindness*, which is focused on regeneration and activation of forces, on adequacy of support type to the needs. It is assumed that support will be justified and effective, if the unit becomes active. Support is to

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serve a mobilization of forces to cope with difficulties. It is 'a type of social interaction, during which a transfer or mutual exchange occurs, transposing emotions, information, instruments of action and tangible goods, undertaken by one or both participants in difficult situation; the purpose of this transposition is to sustain and reduce stress, overcome crisis by accompaniment, create the sense of belonging, security, hope and approach to solving a problem and overcome hardships' (Sęk, 2003, p. 2;, Kocór, 2013b).

TYPES OF DIFFICULT SITUATIONS	TYPES OF SUPPORT	EXEMPLARY SOURCES OF SUPPORT
situations of deprivation	emotional support, tangible support, evaluative support	parents, friends pedagogue, principal teachers, students
situations of overload	informational support instrumental support	teachers, friends principal, specialists
situations ofimpediment	tangible support informational support instrumental support	pedagogue, parents, friends teachers, students principal, specialists
situations of conflict	emotional support, evaluative support instrumental support	parents, friends, peers, teachers, principal pedagogue, specialists
situations of danger	emotional support spiritual suport	parents, friends, peers pedagogue, principal teachers, specialists

Scheme no. 1. Difficult situations and types of needed support and it's sources at school
Source: Own study based on literature (Tomaszewski, 1978; Sęk, 2003)

Support is a condition that gives relief, certainty and a sense of security, when one is weak and cannot cope with difficulties. Support can concern units, groups or communities. In this article I will restrain my reasoning to the area of school and its' main subjects, student and teacher. Depending on what makes the content of support interaction, and from which type of difficult situation results in his need, we can distinguish:

-emotional support- is the so-called 'charge of positive feelings', which gives a   person, who was found in threatening situation- a sense of belonging, security, boost of self-esteem and hope so important for solving the problem. Through support interaction one can express his fears and negative feelings, which can help to relieve the tension.

-evaluative support - is expressing acceptance and recognition towards the unit, who feels helpless, endangered and found in situation of deprivation. These are the communications: *You are somebody important to us, irreplaceable; You are right and act this way* etc. (Kawula, 1999, p. 399).

-informational support related to exchange of information, that can help understand the problem and situations, as well as to know the efficacy of the undertaken countermeasure actions. It is sharing own opinions, assessment and experiences by persons, who experienced similar situations, but it is also legal assistance concerning their rights, possible actions and complaints;

-tangible support means offering or lending money or other substantial thing, like sharing an interesting book, movie, that will show specific way, offering things, that will work as a lucky charm and bring back pleasant memories;

-spiritual support is a help in traumatic situations, that are accompanied by fear and suffering. It can be cause by the death of a close person, serious illness, family or relationship breakdown. It is an uplifting, cheering somebody and pointing the meaning of life (Sęk, 2004, pp. 18-20).

Another division is expected support and received support. The first one concerns a type of insatiate needs and problems of person, who is found in the crisis, while the second one is about the needs in difficult situations fulfilled with the help of significant people (Kocór, 2013b). In reference to school environment I would like to point out with the help of schemes 1 and 2 main links between the types of difficult situations' most important subject of the school, so student and teacher and the types of needed support and it's source.
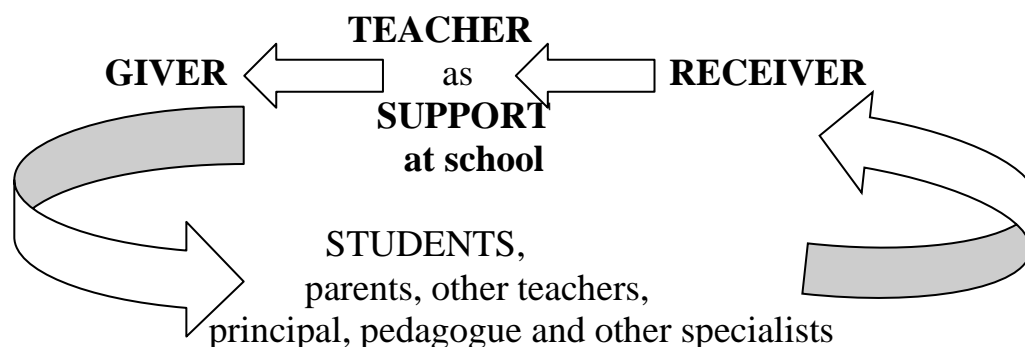
Source: Own research M. Kocór

Figure 2. *Supported and supporting at school by the teacher*

Thanks to the support the tension and stress is lowered, and self-esteem is boosted, a sense of resourcefulness, control over situations which affects the effectiveness of actions. These effect are achieved, when there is a compatibility with expected and received support, between the type of needs resulting from difficult situations and a type of particular support. The more sources of support and links between them, the more effective it is, although too dense net of support can lead to addiction from others and helplessness (Kawula, 1996, pp. 15-16).

Method

To know the experiences regarding teacher as a giver and receiver of support at school the verbal indicators were applied. Such possibility was given by the method of diagnostic survey and technique of questionnaire, which ensured the surveyed anonymity and allowed for fast investigation of groups that are territorially dispersed at schools in the area of

Subcarpathian Voivodeship in Poland. In the following part of research interview and analysis of *a page from the diary* content were used.

First the procedure of quantitative research was applied. Empirical research was conducted in the years 2012-2013 amongst 150 teachers, and in 2012-2014 amongst 292 students of different types of urban and rural schools in the area of Subcarpathian Voivodeship. The research concerned school stress, coping with it and support in difficult situations of students and teachers. It's results became a theme of closer diagnosis of trust, that student should have for the teacher. On the other hand the teachers should be seen as a receiver of support, when he cannot manage with stress at work, thus knowing the most important sources and range of teacher's support became interesting.

Second phase of research was conducted in the academic year 2015/2016 within the statutory research conducted at the Faculty of Pedagogy at the University of Rzeszów. These were the quality research conducted amongst 89 teachers through interviews and autobiographic narrations in form of *a page from the diary*. Their goal was to understand the experiences connected with stress and support at school. The interviews had categorized nature, because the order of questions was substantial. First, general questions were asked, about school experiences, difficulties and ways to cope with them. The research was conducted in the area of: Rzeszów, Tarnów, Dębica, Jasło, Sanok, Krosno, Przeworsk, Jarosław, Przemyśl and other surrounding towns, where different types of schools are functioning: primary schools, secondary schools, general preparatory high schools and vocational schools.

In this article it is not possible to present the results of the whole research (Kocór, 2013a; 2013b, in press), hence I chose data for analysis, that is connected with difficult situations, stress, student and teacher support. The purpose of the research was to know the experiences, their connections and conclusions for perfecting the educational practice and further scientific penetration of the phenomenon. My main research problem was question: To which extend are the teachers giver and receivers of support at school? Who do they support and who supports them, when they cannot manage? Therefore, assuming that in difficult situations of a student, the teacher should support him, but also the teacher, when he is unable to cope, should receive this help. That is why I was concerned about the sources of support for student and teacher, but mainly the teacher as the giver and receiver of support at school and student's trust in him.

Results and Discussion

In difficult and complex work of teacher often effects are spread in time and, if he encounters many obstacles: tangible-economic, social, cultural and legal, and he has high aspiration and ambitions, he can get discourage from work and disappointed by its reality. Hence the building the network of support, understanding and good communication. It is extremely important for the teacher to have a sense of acceptance and security. In the table 1 I concluded the results of research concerning declared frequency of receiving support, either it is informational, instrumental, evaluative, emotional or spiritual. Teachers have had to define on a five-point scale the frequency of received support. Research data confirms that teachers most often ask family members and co-workers for support and they get it just in this hierarchy. Significantly rarer is their support from the superiors, and already completely distant support from specialists- pedagogue, psychologist, therapist or single people, who found themselves in their lives once or accidently.

Table 1. *Frequency of teacher's received support*

How often do you receive support from:	Average frequency on the scale from 1 to 5*
Closest members of family	4,1
Coworkers	3,9
Superiors	3,2
Psychologist, specialists	2,4
Other people, groups	1,4

*5 - very often, 4 – often, 3 - rarely, 2 - very rarely, 1- never
Source: Own elaboration based on research conducted in 2012-2013

As yet it has not been noticed that surveyed teachers are receivers of student's and parent's support, because they do not have the courage to admit to problems, helplessness and stress. For often students and parents do not allow a thought, that teacher as a professional from assumption can act unprofessionally! But basically teachers receive relatives' emotional support, informational support from co-workers, and rarely evaluative and instrumental.

These considerations refer to the teacher as a receiver of support in difficult situations, mainly family and peer. Therefore a question arises: what is the students' support from the side of the teacher? An attempt to answer this question was made with the help of data from the table 2. The analysis shows that teachers often support others. Almost three fourth of the surveyed thinks that way, while every fourth of them rarely supports, helps, advises, offers assistance in difficult situations. However, it was hard to recognise whether it is a support from own initiative or at the request of teacher, parent, co-worker. Frequency of providing support is connected with its type and addressees. Therefore I was interested in the next question: Who surveyed teachers most often support?

Table 2. *Frequency of support provided by teachers*

How often do you provide support to the others?	Teachers	
	N	%
Very often	22	14,7
Often	88	58,7
Rarely	31	20,6
Very rarely	6	4,0
Never	-	-
No answer	3	2,0
Total	150	100,0

Source: Own elaboration based on the research conducted in 2012-2013

Table data informs, that there are mainly closest family members, so parents and siblings, who need emotional support. Nowadays many families have problems, but this area of support is beyond school as a workplace for the teacher. Second source of support are co-workers, who teachers help with problems. It is an informational support and relates to the didactic, educational, protective work, and encountered hardships and problems. Many of them are connected to the so-called *stress-free education*, addiction to the electronic media,

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overprotectiveness in the family. But there are also difficult matters concerning inefficient procedure of promotions or reform policy.

For the credibility, I confronted research data conducted amongst teaching staff with the question directed at the 292 students of various types of school from Subcarpathian Voivodeship, about their most common source of support in difficult situations, for I was interested , to what extent were the teachers indicated as support givers to the student, who first should be supported and surrounded with care.

As it is shown in the table, in hard moments, majority of youth expect help and support from relatives - parents, grandparents, siblings. In this case it is also emotional and sensitive support, which gives an injection of energy in coping problems, in expressing what they currently feel, what are their experiences, etc. Also majority, but slight smaller percentage of student's pointed at peers, who advise them, uphold their spirit when they experience anxiety, frustration. In difficult situations related with conflicts with teachers, friends or family they can always count on their understanding and support. It is frequent in adolescence, when the rebellion and criticism towards the adult intensifies. Youth has common subjects, priorities and supports itself in striving to their implementation, entrusts secrets, passes the experiences about first relationship, with studying, passing tests, exams, teacher's requirements, skipping classes, etc.

Table 3. *Groups of support used most often by students*

Who do you usually ask for support in difficult situations?	Students; N=292	
	N	%
To closest members of family	152	58,5
To friends, peers, schoolmates	167	64,2
To teachers, educators	4!	1,5!
To specialists such as: psychologist, therapist, etc.	-	-
To girlfriend/boyfriend	13	5,0
To other people	13	5,0

Source: Own study based on research carried out in 2012-2014

While analysing the data the same little optimistic conclusion arises, about the loss of student's trust to the teacher. Since for the question: *Who do you usually ask for support in difficult situations?* Only four out of 292 surveyed student indicated teacher's support! This result seems to be a strong argument in further penetration of this phenomenon. Limited trust to the teacher and school confirms another result concerning the rating of family and school support level by the surveyed youth. Also for a question: How do you rate the role of family and school in organising support for you in difficult situations? the teenagers answered not directly, with a frequent indication on a family that loves, supports and motivates them. Majority (70,0%) expressed positive opinion about them. But school was criticised by 67,1% of surveyed students in terms of understanding and support. While some students had doubts about school environment and teacher, because only every twelfth pupil expressed satisfaction towards the supporting role of the school.

Conclusion

Undertaken research deal with low level of trust in each other main subjects- students and teachers, whose in difficult situations barely, on a trace level, count on each other. As the source of support in difficult situations mainly friends and family members are pointed. Because the questions: *Who can you count on in difficult situations? Whose support do you reach? Who do you usually ask for help and support difficult situations? Who does help you and who do you trust?* both students and teachers pointed at the closest family members, peers of co-workers. Student, as well as teacher, at infinitesimal level considered themselves as the source of trust and support. I think that this is the most important reason for many students and teachers is that school is the source of stress, that acts destructively on their frames of mind and engagement in implementation of cherished values. Therefore it is about time to change that school will not create myths of its' own functioning. What school is needed to rebuild student's trust for teacher? Answers to these questions are to be sought in *heart's pedagogy* by Łopatkowa (1992), who is missed today. We must strive to education based on love and kindness, high awareness of own emotions, desires, but also feelings of other people and an ability to control them in order to have inner motivation of doing good, derive satisfaction from it and high self-esteem (Kocór, in press).

Briefly presented research are only an example and voice in discussion of shape and purpose of new school, teacher and education based on building not only outer, but mainly inner authority, which means voluntary submission to the teacher's influence. However without trust, understanding, engagement, responsibility and support it is difficult to build a school, where everyone will come with joy, without anxiety and fears. Acquired data lead to a ruling to place on other criteria of valuable education, school and a good teacher. So how to rebuild trust for school subjects? - this is a question that should be the reason for wider, thorough quantity and quality, theoretical and practical, historical and comparative research in from the border of pedagogy, auxiliary sciences and creativity in their conjunction. They need organisational, tangible and sociocultural designation and legal form of school- their protecting factors and risk for seeking developmental changes.

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The Effect of Collective Learning Method on Student Achievement in Turkish Education History Course

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to search the effect of collective learning –being within cooperative learning model- on the academic success of students in the Turkish Education History course being taught in the School Teaching program of a education faculty at public school in Turkey. The class teacher candidates have been divided to test and control groups. 26 individuals have consisted the test group, and 26 has consisted the control group. The achievement test has been applied as pretest and posttest to these groups. Collective learning method has been applied on the test group, and teacher centered teaching method has been applied on the control group. As the data has not shown normal distribution, Mann Whitney U test –among non-parametric tests- has been applied. According to the results of this test, no meaningful differentiation could be found in between the test group and control group.

Key words: Cooperative teaching model, collective learning method, teacher centered teaching.

Introduction

In a fast developing society, keeping pace with the changes may be ensured the education that the individual will get from the society s/he lives in. Erturk (1974) addresses education as requested and permanent change in the behaviors of the individual. Sonmez (2012) speaks of becoming a knowledge-based and industrial society, planning the education system in a manner that will be able to realize this objective and continuously assessing it in order for our country to pass on to contemporary civilization level and to reach to more advanced levels. For this reason, upon the changes in teaching programs in years 1924, 1926, 1936, 1948, 1962, 1968 and 1998 (Celenk, Tertemiz ve Kalayci, 2000), a new teaching program has been prepared in 2004 that adopts constructivist approach (Perkins, 1999) whose essence is configuration and implementation of information by the learner. The newly adopted program had been introduced in the academic years of 2005-2006 (Gomleksiz and Bulut, 2007). The constructivist learning environments are being arranged in a manner in which the learners will be able to interact more with their surrounding and will be able to have rich learning lives (Bas, 2012). Akbulut (2013) mentions that learning arises more in social environments and through mutual interaction. While the effective and mutual interaction of the learners with their surrounding is structuring learning, it enables them to act together and to benefit from the pre-learning of each other. This condition enables the information to arise as a product that is collectively structured by the learners. This learning process, that is realized by setting the learners to work together, necessitates the learning environment -to be formed for the learner- to be convenient for cooperation.

Learning based on cooperation is a teaching method in which a group –which consists of small groups- is assessed by different rewarding manners (Slavin, 1988; Gomleksiz, 1997), that improves the thinking skills of the students (Doymus, 2008) and that enables them to respect the ideas arising within the group while realizing that (Nelson, 1992), that increases motivation in learning process (Ozer, 2005), that maximizes the learning of each student within the group (Johnson, Johnson, Holubec, 1993; McHale, 2002), in which the learner is active (Lin, 2006; Bilgin, 2006). As cooperative learning is student centered and skill focused (Cooper and Mueck, 1990), the purpose of increasing the effectiveness of learning of the students (Guvenc, 2011) and making each member of the group stronger (Bay and Bayram, 2012) has caused this method to house many sub techniques. Cooperative learning model has many sub methods and techniques such as Collective Learning, Dividing-Combining, Student Teams–Success Sections, Team-Game-Tournament, Academic Conflict, Group Research,

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Cooperation-Cooperation, Collective Asking-Collective Learning (Yildirim, Er-Nas, Ayas, 2009). Collective learning method is the most known form of cooperative learning model (Simsek, 2007). Bayrakceken et al. (2011) list the implementation process of collective learning method as follows: Collective learning method starts by the formation of a heterogeneous group consisting of students who have different academic and social skills. Then follows the selection of a chief by the members of the group and naming the group, assigning a subject or unit to the group formed, studying of the subject or unit collectively by the students both within the class and outside the class, preparation and submission of study report, and individual and group assessment. Having a purpose, sharing of thoughts and materials, division of labor and having a group award by the end of the process are the most important features of this method that bears the general features of cooperative learning model (Kardas, 2013). Ergun (2006) mentions the requirements of understanding of the material by each student, establishing links in between old and new information, criticizing the thought instead of people, not changing the thoughts unless they are illogical, participation of each member of the group in the answer and listening each member in the implementation process of this method.

It can be said that collective learning method houses features that will positively affect academic success in the learning process. By the studies performed by Varank and Kuzucuoglu (2007), Akcay (2014), Kagan and Kagan (2009), Kardas (2013), Simsek (2007), it is being seen that they have concluded that collective learning method increases academic success and that it is more successful than traditional learning method.

Method

The research had been applied on the last grade students of Faculty of Education Department of School Teaching in the spring term of the 2015-2016 academic year. The total number of students participating in the sample had been 52. The effect of collective learning method on academic success in teaching of Turkish Education History course had been examined. 26 of the 4th grade students had consisted the test group, and 26 of them had consisted the test group. Collective learning technique -being within cooperative learning method- had been applied on the test group. And teacher centered traditional learning method had been applied on the control group.

Design of Research

Quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design has been used in the research. In this model, the research is being performed on groups previously formed for specific purposes. This model shows us that the previously formed groups are addressed as they are, but a part of them is assigned as test group and a part as control group through chance, and that the groups are measured before and after the experiment (Kaptan, 1998).

Collective Learning Method

The subjects of the units of Turkish Education History course are distributed to each of the members of test group, and the responsibility of collective learning is imposed on each member. The importance of collective learning and its importance for the success of group are taught. For three week period, the students of the test group first started to learn the subjects assigned to them and then they started to teach the subjects they had learned to their colleagues within the group. An additional period of one week is provided to the students. And in the following weeks, each group presented its own subjects in the class environment which is the larger group. Different perspectives are developed by realizing the discussion of subjects through mutual questions and answers.

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Considering the scores gotten as the result of pretest of collective learning method, heterogeneous groups of 5 are formed. According to the scores gotten from the achievement test, the groups are formed as per highest, middle, low, weak and very weak scores. The subjects of Education History are divided to units and distributed to the students. It is enabled for the students in each group to first prepare and learn their own subjects. And then each student started to teach the subject s/he has learned to her/his colleagues in the group, and in the first week the students told their own subjects to each other. And then each group presented their subjects to the class which is the larger group. Mutual discussions are realized. Questions and answers are provided. The groups making the presentation are also supported by the guiding teacher.
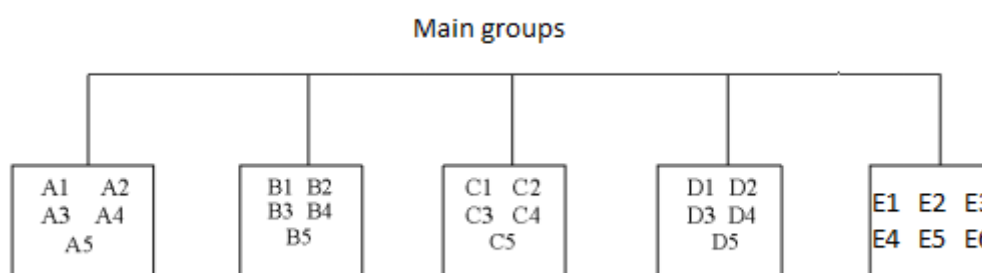

Figure 1. Collective learning groups

Current Learning Method

Teacher centered instructional technique is applied in the control group. The planning and presentation of the course is performed by the lecturer. Power point presentations, movies and documentaries are provided. Examples are given, and discussions are made through questions and answers. By this way, it is ensured for the subjects to be better understood. Textbook and study aids are used as the source of course. Titles and sub titles are written on the board, and it is tried to draw attention. The subjects that are deemed important along the course are pointed out. After addressing each subject, questions are asked on the subject, and the points that are not understood are explained again. Moreover, feedbacks are given by giving short home works to the students. Some sections are made to be read by the students, and the course is taught by asking them to provide comments on the subject.

Subject Content Analysis

Subjects of Turkish Education History consist of three main sections. Education among Turks before Islam, education among Turks during Islam, and education among Turks in the period of republic. The common features of education among Huns, Gokturks and Uighurs –in the period before Islam-are revealed. Whether the old Turks had interaction with other cultures, the means of education they had used, and whether they knew printing or not are addressed. The educational institutions and the institutions of formal and non-formal education during the periods of Karakhanids, Seljuks and Ottomans are revealed. The role of madrasahs in raising the Turkish people as formal education institutions is emphasized. The place of Al-Farabi, Avicenna, Yusuf Khass Hajib, Mahmud al-Khasgari, Khoja Akhmet Yassawi and Edip Ahmed –among the significant educators of the period- in the Turkish education history is addressed.

The place and importance of Seljuks in the Renaissance of 12th century is revealed. The importance attached to education and science by Nizam al-Mulk and old Turkish emperors is addressed.

Basic features of education in Ottomans as from its establishment until innovation period, and the significant educational institutions of the Mehmed the Conqueror and Suleiman the Magnificent are emphasized. The place of primary education, ottoman elementary school, palace educational institutions, military training, public education and foundations in Ottomans are addressed in respect of Turkish education. Military and civil schools in innovation period and how the obligation of primary education developed are addressed. Education and its features, and comprehensions of training teachers in Tanzimat reform era are revealed. Education and its features in the 1st constitutional monarchy period and autocracy period, the ottoman basic law of 1876, obligation of primary education, efforts of training teachers are addressed. 2nd constitutional monarchy period and its features, and the incidents of education in the period are emphasized. It is dwelled on the features of education in republic period, law on unification of education, purposes and principles of republic period, place of Ataturk in the history of education, improvements in primary, secondary and higher education. And it is also dwelled on village institutes, teacher training and its policies, education comprehensions of significant educators, national education councils, and program development efforts. Consequently, a general assessment of Turkish education history is made. The results that can be obtained are assessed.

Data Collection Tool

Turkish Education History Achievement Test (TEHAT) is formed by 31 multiple choice questions each having 5 choices. The measurement tool is formed by 25 multiple choice questions. All the questions are formed at a knowledge and comprehension level that would cover all the subjects of Turkish Education History. The alpha value of TEHAT is found as 0.875 as the result of posttest. The opinions of specialists of Educational Sciences are also considered for the validity and reliability of the test.

In this research, TEHAT is used as both pretest and posttest. It is considered whether arithmetical averages of test group and control group were different or not in respect of pretest and posttest. Turkish Education History course is taught for a term. Posttest is applied, and it is considered whether there exists a difference in between test group and control group in respect of collective learning and traditional learning. And in case of difference, it is tried to reveal in favor of which teaching technique it was. The obtained data is analyzed by using SPSS 20.0. As the data didn't show normal distribution, Mann Whitney U test –among non-parametric tests- is applied. Mann Whitney U test is the alternative of t test being used in non-parametric analyses, and it allows determining whether the distribution of measurements of two independent samples show significant difference or not just like the t test. And in the data analysis type, alpha significance level is taken as .05.

Findings

The posttest data obtained by using Turkish Education History Achievement Test (TEHAT) –which is applied on test group and control group that are formed as per collective learning technique and teacher centered teaching method- has been analyzed by Mann Withney U test.

Table 1. *Results of normality test*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Total	,122	56	,036	,929	56	,003

As the data does not show normal distribution, Mann Withney U test –among non-parametric tests- has been applied.

Table 2. *Results of Mann Whitney U Test as per the pretest scores of test group and control group*

Groups	N	Serial Average	Serial Total	U	P
Test	26	26.92	700.00	327.000	0.839
Control	26	26.08	678.00		
P<0.05					

In the pretest study on test group and control group, statistically significant difference has not been seen among the methods applied (p>0.05).

Table 3. *Results of Mann Whitney U Test as per the posttest scores of test group and control group*

Groups	N	Serial Average	Serial Total	U	P
Test	26	25.77	670.00	319.00	0.727
Control	26	27.23	708.00		
P<0.05					

In the study pretest group and control group, statistically significant difference has not been observed between two groups' achievement scores (p>0.05). The reason of this may be related to the facts that the last year students are getting prepared for their own professional exams (central exam after the graduation) rather than the courses, that they are spending a significant part of their time outside the faculty, and that they don't allocate sufficient time in order to come together within and outside the faculty.

Result and Discussion

In this study, it has been intended to search the effect of collective learning method – being within the cooperative learning model- on the academic success of the class teacher candidates. The implementation is realized at Turkish Education History course in the spring term of 2016. Test group and control group are formed. Turkish Education History Achievement Test (TEHAT) is applied as pretest and posttest on these groups, and consequently no significant difference is found in between the groups (Table 3).

According to the obtained results, no difference in between collective learning method and teacher centered teaching method has been found in the practice in Turkish Education History course. While there are researchers in literature that are in favor of collective learning method which is within the cooperative learning model, and while this method is coming to the forefront in increasing the quality of education, in this study no difference could be found in between that and teacher centered teaching method (Yildiz, 1999). It coincides with the result of Varank and Kuzucuoglu (2007) regarding that the use of collective learning method in teaching of mathematics is not superior to traditional teacher centered teaching method.

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And similar results had also been found by similar studies performed before (Atici and Gurol, 2002; Bilgin and Akbayir, 2002; Ocal, 1996).

When cooperative learning model is applied on students of any age group, it is being seen that it plays a significant role in increasing the success of the students (Artut and Tarim, 2004; Doymus et al., 2005; Kilic, 2008). In the practices of cooperative learning model, it is being effective in increasing the communication skills of the students (Kagan and Kagan, 2009). Having no difference in between collective teaching and teacher centered teaching method in this study also indicates that cooperation is not ensured sufficiently among the students. This fact that last grade teacher candidates are getting prepared for the professional exams (public personnel selection examination) rather than their courses, and that they spend most of their time in various courses outside the faculty may have given rise to this result.

Avcioglu (2003) specifies that cooperative learning model is more effective on learning skills and social communication of students. Artut and Tarim (2004) have addressed the effect of cooperative learning on the success of students. A teacher should know the methods and techniques conforming to the cognitive structure of the students in order to realize a learning that is not rote learning (Onen, 2005; Yilmaz and Colak, 2011). The performance of practices by the teachers that conform to these methods will increase the success of the students.

As the result of this study, no difference has been found by pretest and posttest implementation in Turkish Education History course. Along with this result, it can be said that external factors are effective in not obtaining more effective and positive results on the teacher candidates through the collective learning method. These external factors may be presented as attendance of teacher candidates to courses outside of faculty etc. In effective implementation of cooperative learning, guiding and directing the teacher candidates may enable the success of this method (Acikgoz, 1992). But the most extensively used teaching method at schools is the classic plain narration method. The teachers are not extensively using teaching methods based on group study. In this study, lack of provision of sufficient and effective information to the teacher candidates regarding what the cooperative learning is, and lack of having implementation examples may also have given rise to this result.

The selection of the group members by the lecturer is able to gather students who cannot get along with each other, who don't want to study together or who have personal problems. Consequently, this condition is able to decrease the efficiency and motivation of group (Bahar, 2002). And in this research, selection of group members by the class teacher may be indicates as the cause of not having any change in the success of the students through cooperative learning method. But when the results of this study are assessed mathematically, it will be seen that success averages of the students studying through cooperative learning method is higher than the success averages of students studying through classic plain narration method. And this indicates that even if cooperative learning method is not a superior method in respect of statistical results, it may be considered as a preferable teaching method when compared with classic plain narration method.

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A Review on Accessing to Arts Education in Primary Schools: A Case Study in Turkey

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Abstract

Historical process shows that, societies have evolved to different philosophies, policies and different approaches in terms of the sense of education. Today, the sense of education, which refers to the potential of human, is based on human nature, curiosity, need to know and do, and perceives individual as a whole, has been observed to become widespread. Undoubtedly, as all rivers fall into the sea, the sense of education evolving to an approach that accepts human as a whole in cognitive, affective, and psychomotor terms stands before the "exercise for the body", "music for the soul" perception that has taken the learner and the learning process fragmentary since Plato. The main problem of the educational systems today is that they are individualist, competitive, based on over comparisons, and test-based. Inter-countries over comparisons resulted in the formation of educational programs, which are copied from each other and lack authenticity, originality, and uniqueness elements. Today, one of the learning-teaching methods that refers to the entity unity of human, and aims at developing the common faculties of human; knowing (mind), feeling (conscience and aesthetics) and doing (psychomotor) requirements together, is "drama in education". Drama should take place in education frequently as both a subject and a method in school programs and teacher training programs. The present research evaluates classroom teachers' perspectives of how art education is taken at primary schools, who conducts the education, the equipment of schools in accordance with student needs, and art education self-efficacy perceptions of teachers, in accordance with national and international regulations and in terms of children's right to access art. The main purpose of the present research is studying classroom teachers' perspectives of art education courses conducted in the province of Aydın, at schools from different socio-economic statuses. Work-group of the research consists of teachers, who teach art at twelve different primary schools in provincial centre of Aydın, Turkey. Schools were selected among low, medium and high level schools in terms of socio economic status, in accordance with purposive sampling method. Sampling method can be defined as "criterion-based sampling". The present research employed qualitative research techniques, and tried to obtain detailed data with semi-structured interviews. According to the findings obtained in the present research, classroom teachers perceive themselves as inefficient in conducting art education classes, they have problems in implementation and with time, the schools lack equipment and for this reason they have difficulty in creating authentic working environments.

Keywords :Art education, primary school, classroom teacher, qualitative research.

Introduction

Art is a means of expression and carries many messages within. Artistic activities try to tell us something. In terms of positive sciences, art is a way of obtaining information. The world of art includes information that is as beneficial for humans as the information of world of science or philosophy. However, the place of this information in human history is different from other sciences. Theoretical studies that investigate all arts and the relationships between them in intellectual dimension in the contexts of artist, audience, society, culture and education are called as "Fine Arts Education". Visual arts covers a wide area of painting, sculpture, architecture, graphic arts, industrial design, applied sciences, cinematography, photography, textile, fashion design, ceramics, and computer arts. Theoretical and applied studies on art education and teaching of all these branches from pre-school to higher

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education can be called as "Visual Arts Education" or just "Art Education" (Buyurgan and Buyurgan, 2012).

Art education refers to a concept that involves all areas of art including intramural and extra-scholastic education. Art education teaches individuals to make aesthetic judgements, perceiving new forms, and expression oneself correctly. This indicates that the purpose of art education is not raising talented students, but leading every student to creativity and meeting all their educational needs as a whole. Art education is not raising artists. In the narrow sense, art education is interested in the education and teaching of visual arts. Within the extent of this teaching exist application oriented artistic activities, studying artistic works, history of art and aesthetics. Moreover, art education includes such methodological subjects as tools and workshop equipment, curriculums, work order and evaluation (Kırışoğlu, 2002).

Benefits of arts education in curriculum

Dewey believed that arts education was a foundational part of the curriculum because it developed creativity, self-expression, and an appreciation of the expression of others (Dewey, 1919; Dewey, 1934)

One of the crucial research (Bamford 2006) indicates that any arts education is not 'good enough'. Children require high quality arts education at all levels of education and within both formal and informal education. (Bamfords' study (2006) shows that quality arts education promotes cultural identity and has a positive impact on the academic performance of children, especially in areas of literacy and the learning of second languages. Concurrently, quality arts-rich education leads to an improvement in students' attitudes towards school, on parental and community perception of schools, as well as on student interest for culture and the arts. Reported benefits of arts education include the development of the imagination (Greene, 1995), the elevation of students' intrinsic motivation to learn (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997), the improvement of children's spatial reasoning abilities (Rauscher, Shaw, Levine, Wright, Dennis, & Newcomb, 1997), and the development of higher levels of self-esteem (Sylvester, 1998). An increased academic achievement for students involved in the arts (Catterall, 1998; Luftig, 1994; Moore & Caldwell, 1993; Welch & Greene, 1995).

There is a difference between what can be termed education in the arts (e.g. teaching in fine arts, music, drama, crafts, etc.) and education through the arts (e.g. the use of arts as a pedagogical tool in other subjects, such as numeracy, literacy, and technology). In the early 1970s, Eisner (1974) suggested that special arts programs in schools should be evaluated "because it is important to know what educational impact arts initiatives have, and...when public money funds programs, there is an obligation to determine...whether the programs are effective".

Despite such statements and a long history of success in schools, over the years, the arts have often taken a backseat in educational curricula. Never has that been more the case than in the current era of high-stakes testing and accountability (Berliner 2009).

Legal Base of Arts education rights for children

The purpose of this overview is to describe some of the provisions of certain major international legal instruments on children's rights in terms of education. Children's rights are defined in numerous ways, including a wide spectrum of civil, cultural, economic, social and political rights. Rights tend to be of two general types: those advocating for children as autonomous persons under the law and those placing a claim on society for protection from harms perpetrated on children because of their dependency.

The Convention on the Rights of the Child 1989 Article 31 (2) states that "parties shall respect and promote the right of the child to participate fully in cultural and artistic life and shall encourage the provision of appropriate and equal opportunities for cultural, artistic, recreational and leisure activity." (Mangold, 2002). In the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations 1948), Article 27 (1), it was emphasized that, "Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts". This declaration was prefaced by Article 26 (2) that stipulated that "Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms."Unicef's message on the opening of the 2009-2010 school year in Turkey was "Provide a broad, relevant and inclusive curriculum: Promote a broad-based curriculum that aspires to equip children with numeracy and literacy, as well as with knowledge in science, the humanities, sport and the arts; and provide opportunities for play consistent with the right to optimum development".

A Short Review of Art Education in European Countries

General objectives of art education are more or less the same in all countries: 'artistic skills, knowledge and understanding', 'critical approach', 'cultural heritage', 'individual expression/identity', 'cultural diversity' and 'creativity'. In most countries, art education also aims at individual and affective development, because it is known that art builds social skills and individual maturation with fun and happy experiences.

Art policies and applications are not very positive in many countries. 'Basic' academic skills, such as English, Mathematics, Science and Social Sciences are considered as important and are values, while art is considered as an unnecessary subject at schools. In shortage of time or funds, art courses are the first to be excluded from the curriculum (Russell, 2004).

Music and visual arts are taught at one point of compulsory education in European countries. Handicrafts, drama and dance are also given as compulsory courses in many European countries. At the beginning, two of these are given in another non-art-focused course; these respectively are literature and physical education. In more than ten countries, courses are presented under the title of media arts. In very few of them are provided architecture courses.

According to official sources about the time allocated to art education, almost half of the European countries allocate 50 to 100 class hours of the educational time to art education. Most of the countries spend more time on art education than foreign language teaching or physical education. In various countries, cultural visits, museum visit, or visits to theatres or concert halls are defined officially in the curriculum (Eurydice, 2009).

At primary education, art teachers are generally classroom teachers, which means that these teachers teach all the subjects in the curriculum. In most of the countries, these teachers are educated in more than one field, and they are mostly educated in visual arts and music, which are compulsory in primary school curriculum of European countries. However, the issue that is increasingly debated at international level among art professional and researchers is whether primary school teachers (who don't have expert art knowledge) are aware of the potential of creative arts to be learnt at schools. One of the greatest obstacles before the teaching and learning of creative arts at primary schools is considered as the insecurity of primary school teachers. For instance, one study conducted in England reported that primary school teachers lacked confidence in music teaching and this resulted in stress in their teaching. According to some studies, teachers' self-perception of their artistic skills is directly related with their efficiency they perform as an art teacher (Alter, Hays, & O'Hara, 2009).

Some 'under-developed' countries need to develop their art education in accordance with the model used in 'developed' countries. However, art isn't present in daily life in 'developed' countries, and is under the conservation of the elite. It is critical that art and education are taken out of the limiting boxes they are in and objective and usages of traditional Asian societies are placed in the centre of the many human needs that art helps to reach (Wagner, Greef, Keenan, Pereira, 2006).

In 1930s, modern sense of education all over the world accepted that drama was a subject that should be studied regularly and systematically at schools, this idea has developed since then. Steps taken in England and America were followed by the ones in Canada and Australia, and curricula all over the world included dramatic plays and drama. Even methods and objectives varied in time, the main idea of drama education has always been the same: Children/young people and dramatic experience (role play) should be in the centre of education. Children/young people, who express themselves with a form of art, take aesthetic pleasure in this, which means making learning fun (Sarıkaya, 2009).

In the last thirty years, many investigations have been conducted on the efficiency of art education, and similar reports were presented every year. Australian Senate Investigation inquiry on art education reached at the conclusion that "Classroom teachers, who have broad world knowledge, feel insecure in art teaching, due to insufficient art experiences at their schools and insufficient teacher exercises. Consequently, there is a strong effect for isolate art in their teaching." There are deficiencies in the quality of art education at state schools.

According to Bresler (1991) report in America, "Education in art is insufficient. Teachers see art education as a difficult task." Even American schools have art in their curriculums, it is noted that emphasize is on instrumental and vocal performance in music, drawing in visual arts and producing sketches in drama. Although strong defences of art help drawing attention to the effect on art, it seems applications at schools haven't changed much. Among the taught art courses, dance and drama were the worst, music and visual arts were the most applied ones. However, art is considered more a 'production activity' than as a form of knowledge. Children and teachers in Ireland come from a rich musical and in some cases dancing background, many teachers allocate little time to playing instruments and producing music in the classroom environment, and instead they credit singing in music courses generally.

In Namibia, where many people are raised in a rich art culture, ideally art is taught at schools by expert teachers, however the applicability is minimum and it is taught by classroom teachers with minimum official experience and education (Russell, 2004). Hong Kong Institute of Modern Culture established a new school for art education named as Lee Shau Kee School of Creativity. The school meets the needs of students between the secondary school and local university levels, and serves as the breeding centre of art, innovation and multimedia art centre for society. The role of its design is sensitive for the society, and it comes to forefront with its semi-public visiting spaces along with teaching blocks, multimedia theatre, library and gallery. School curriculum includes dedicating whole day to creativity in unofficial classrooms and other activities like seminars, workshops, performances, and exhibits where students display their works (Building Creative Capacities for the 21st Century, 2006)

Art Education at Primary Schools from the Foundation of Turkish Republic to Today

After the proclamation of the republic, Atatürk stated that art was a matter of general culture, and attached great importance to culture and art problems. Atatürk made interest in art a government policy. He included interest in art in the duties of the government. His

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saying "The problems of art education cannot be seen independent from the problems of national education" indicates his approach to art and education problems, and the governmental policy he formed accordingly (Pekmezci, 1997; Cited in: Saydam, 2006).

After the proclamation of the republic, revolutions in every area including art education were made in accordance with western model. Sanayi-i Nefise Mektebi (School of Fine Industry) established for art education during republican period took the name of "Devlet Güzel Sanatlar Akademisi" (State Academy of Fine Arts), and in 1926, Namık İsmail was assigned as the headmaster. Social objective of the republic is raising a rational, creative and productive generation. In order to attain this objective, importance was attached to polyphonic music, painting and western literature at schools in the early years of the Republic Boduroğlu, 2010).

Teacher training started for the implementation of painting and handicraft courses in the primary education curriculum put into effect in 1926. Famous faculty members were summoned from Europe and an in-service training on craft principles was organized for primary and secondary school teachers in Ankara.

Courses that are directly related to art education at primary education are Art and Music. Time allocated to each is two class hours at the first three grades of primary education, and one class hour after that. This time and other related elements (teacher quality, environment, number of students, materials, equipment, sources, etc.) are not enough for art education. However, in 1997-1998 school year, a new compulsory three-class hour course titled "Individual and Group Activities" was included in the primary school curriculum for the first three grades. Art educators should value this time very efficiently, because as the title suggests, many topics that can develop children's creativity and sensitivity with individual and group activities were included in the scope of this course (San, 2001).

For instance, in the first school curriculum dated 1932: there were two class hours art in the first and second semesters, handicraft at 4th and 5th grades, and handicraft two class hours a week at 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades. This movement was a milestone for Turkish Painting Art in the western sense. In this program the objectives of art course were listed in seven items; "Familiarising students with seeing shapes and colours in artificial and natural objects and views. Building students' skills of describing their observations with calligraphy, shades and paints develops students' percept, find, describe, and re-create the beauty in objects and facilitate to develop their aesthetic tastes" (Saydam, 2006).

As of 1924, many artists were sent abroad on scholarship to observe European art, and gain knowledge, accumulation and experience. When the first generation republican artists turned back to Turkey after completing their education abroad, Turkish artistic life became more alive and especially the painters started many activities.

İsmail Hakkı Baltacıoğlu's student İsmail Hakkı Tonguç was sent to Germany for getting art education. When he turned back, primary school teachers Malik Aksel, Hayrullah Örs, İsmail Hakkı Uludağ, Şinasi Barutçu and Mehmet Ali Atademir also went to Germany. When they turned back, they served at Gazi Institute of Education, where they were contributed in the establishment (Malik Aksel 1934- 1954, HayrullahÖrs 1932-1954, İsmail Hakkı Uludağ 1932-1968, Şinasi Barutçu 1933-1936, and Mehmet Ali Atademir 1932-1936). Village Institutes, founded by İsmail HakkıTonguç, was the most important development in 1940s. Because, Village Institutes offered production based craft education, art studies were very important at these schools. Village Institutes were closed in 1947, and in order to send

the talented students of school to Gazi Institute of Education, Fine Arts and Folk Arts departments were founded in Hasanoğlan Higher Village Institute (Utku, 2008).

1949, 1962, 1974 and 1981 National Education Councils studied art education. These art education studies in Turkey have an important place. In 1991, Primary Education Institutions Art Course Curriculum, developed by Private Commission of Art Curriculum Development, formed within the body of Ministry of National Education Head Council of Education and Morality, was put into practice as of 1992-1993 school year in order to be tested and developed (Aksoy, 2010). Early years of Republican Period can be considered as the golden years of founding the basis for secularity and artistic development. During this period, renovations were made in every area in western fashion. Importance was attached to education, and while art education was institutionalized on one hand, educational institutions, methods and rules were studied on the other. Unified art education model in the era of knowledge is the extension of these efforts today, and it is in close relationship with Republic (Utku, 2008).

Art Education in Turkey Today

Art education went through radical changes with the re-structuring during republican period. Contemporary approaches to art and art education aren't considered as a separate discipline with its own principles. Curriculum in which professional dimension comes forefront, and this new approach of the cooperation of faculties and schools in field education in guiding sources are the concrete indicators of change. These indicators may seem positive in terms of art education, yet the problems couldn't be solved completely. However, Turkish people are not totally ready for scientific, constructivist, productive, creative and modern approaches, which makes the negativities constant (Ünver, 2002).

Considering the educational background of Turkish people, an important part of the population was included in primary education. From this perspective, primary school teachers should be able to offer qualified art education. The responsibilities of knowing and adopting the natural and historical beauties of the area, teaching aesthetic sensitivity to an important part of the public, engraining in love for art, and laying the foundations of art education fall to primary school teachers. Considering that, teachers, who graduated from teacher's training school, founded after Village Institutes in 1940s, could play at least one musical instrument, paint, draw, and had knowledge of art history, cinema, literature, faculties of education today should be questioned in this regard (Altınkurt, 2005).

Problem Statement

The main purpose of the present research is studying classroom teachers' perspectives of art education courses conducted in the province of Aydın, at schools from different socio-economic statuses. In accordance with this purpose, the answers to the following questions are sought:

- What do classroom teachers think about the role of art education courses in primary school curriculum?
- What do classroom teachers think about the attainments and content of visual arts and music curricula?
- What are classroom teachers' self-efficacy perceptions on art education courses?
- How do classroom teachers perceive deficiencies related to art education courses, and what solutions do they present?
-

Methods

Research Model

The present research study employed descriptive survey model, and qualitative research design.

Sudy Group

Work group of the present research was formed with twelve different independent primary schools in the provincial centre of Aydın. These schools were selected in accordance with purposive sampling technique among low, medium and high level schools in terms of socio-economic status. Sampling technique can be defined as "maximum variation sampling", which is a "criterion-based sampling" technique. These criteria were that schools represented each socio-economic status and teachers carried out the art education courses. The total of 34 teachers, who served as classroom teachers at these schools, formed the work-group of the present research.

Data Collection Method and Tools

Data were obtained through interviews, which is a qualitative research technique. Semi-structured form used for interviews included 17 basic questions. In addition to these, exploratory questions were also utilized during interviews. Interview is a frequently used method in qualitative studies, as it is very effective in obtaining information on students' feelings and beliefs. Interviews provide the opportunities to see individuals' points of views on the studied subject, and to present the social construct that forms these points of views (Yıldırım and Şimşek, 1999). Moreover, as interviews is a natural way of communication and source of information, it enables asking more questions, and demanding clarification on unclear points, and also forms the basis for obtaining more and detailed information on the studied subject (Serper and Gürsakal, 1989, p.150; Kaptan, 1991, p.149). Generally, interviewer has three main purposes.

- Establishing or maintaining cooperation
- Treatment (for increasing self-confidence) and
- Collection research data.

Data collection through interviews has a broad application area, like a doctor speaking to the patient, a lawyer seeing a client, a prosecutor questioning a suspect, or a teacher listening to the students. Interviews are especially ideal for collection data from senior managers, illiterates, and children. Besides its obvious convenience, subjectivity and strength of interview result in important limitations. Without well-trained interviewers, it is very unlikely to collect data on many subjective issues, such as ideas, beliefs and attitudes (Karasar, 2015).

Data Collection

The data of the present research were collected with interviews, in 2015-2016 school year, in a 6-week period. These processes are explained step by step below.

Results

When classroom teachers were asked what they thought about the role of art education courses in primary school program, all of them stated that it had a very important place, and made important contributions to the development of children. Classroom teachers expressed that art education built children's social skills, sense of rhythm, self-expression skills, creativity, and looking from different perspectives skills. All of the teachers highlighted that art education was neglected in primary school curriculum, and class hours weren't enough. Below are presented remarks of some teachers.

"I think art education is as important as maths or Turkish courses. It contributes to the development of children. It makes children more flexible and tolerant. It makes this with personality requirements. As some schools, some teachers teach maths in visual arts classes. I think they are terribly wrong. Children need physical education, music, and visual arts courses. These contribute to the development of children" (T1).

"I think art education provides children with opportunities to see things from very different perspectives. Art education is a must. For example, I have been seeing everything differently since I have started art classes. I used to see trees as objects with green leaves. But now, I can see the green filling on those leaves, or the brown bulges on the trunk, I can see everything. Art develops perspectives from many aspects. And I think this works the same with the children" (T22).

"I think, art isn't very important for us as a nation, and therefore we are behind the rest of the world in this area. We cannot promote our country in this area. We don't attach importance to art. When Foreign tourists are visiting our country during summer first visit historical and artistic sites, while all we do is going to the seaside. I think this is very wrong. Why do we live this way as a society? Because, we cannot get the qualified education as of primary school. This is internalized, considered as realistic. However, visual arts should be seen like that, it should be considered as a normal course. Yet, if art education is to be offered as of primary school, then teachers should be trained seriously at teacher training schools. They should be experienced and skilled when they start teaching." (T13).

About the attainments and content of visual arts and music curriculum, classroom teachers stated that they couldn't fully understand the attainments in the music curriculum, and visual arts content wasn't clear, understandable and instructive. Below are presented remarks of some teachers.

"I teach art with 4th graders, for one class hour a week. I don't think this is enough, because the students love this, and want to use it during the day. There are problems resulting from both the system and the families. Parents think it is unnecessary. Even some teachers think so. Everybody wants to study maths, because the competition has started. These are wrong, because humans need more than that. Visual arts have such a great aspect that it gives joy to people. At this context, art related lessons are very different than others. Other lessons can be boring, difficult. We cannot always enjoy them. But, when I am drawing or painting a picture, time flies by. It is fun, and not tiring" (T13).

"I teach visual arts, one class hour a week. It is not enough" (T2).

"I don't think it exists in the curriculum as a separate course for art education. But the latest curriculum involves visual arts course, but only one class hour is allocated to it. Is it enough? Never. I think art aspect of the educational system stands as a lacking element" (T17).

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"Generally, visual arts curriculum includes such topics as getting to know colours, forming shapes, forming motifs, patterns etc." (T6).

Examination of classroom teachers' self-efficacy perspectives showed that, all of them emphasized the importance of art education in the curriculum. However, they reported that they perceived themselves as inefficient in especially musical notes, playing instruments and artistic techniques. They also think that pre-service education on this subject process was insufficient. Below are presented remarks of some teachers.

"I see myself inefficient especially in visual arts class. Why? Because, I think it is very important. What I mean is, we generally assess academic achievement, but because we aren't qualified enough on this, we can overlook some talented students. We certainly do. In visual arts classes, we define colours, try to teach defining objects or reflect on an imaginary situation, but we can overlook some talents in the process, as we aren't qualified enough" (T25).

"There is the notes topic in music. I don't know anything, so I don't even start teaching. There are different topics in art" (T8).

"The objectives of music curriculum are singing along a song, singing together, keeping time, etc. The objectives of art course are defined as getting to know colours, using colours appropriately, expressing feelings and ideas on two-dimensional works, etc." (T9).

Analysis of the data related to the question "How do classroom teachers perceive the deficiencies in art education, and solutions do they suggest?" showed that teachers believed physical equipment of schools was insufficient, the class hours allocated to art education in the curriculum weren't enough, and art related courses should be taught by branch teachers.

"Teaching of musical notes start at the 3rd grade, but not under the name of notes but sounds, tempo, rhythm, at the very basic level. Some teachers may not have knowledge of notes, lengths. So, some students are taught of these, while some others not, and just learn school songs. As I mentioned before, first teachers should be provided with at least basic training in accordance with the curriculum at teacher training schools. They should start teaching after that. If they aren't trained on this, they cannot teach it properly, and can only slur over courses with songs and games. But on the other hand, trained teachers can detect talented students. I think, art education shouldn't be limited to music courses. Folklore should also be taught. Teachers also should be trained on folklore, and music. They should be able to play the block flute at least. They should have some drawing skills. Teachers should be trained on both visual arts and sports as well"

"...Indeed, as classroom teachers, we couldn't receive a qualified education. There are newly graduate teachers, trainee teachers. They can teach and produce good things, but we aren't ready for this. We just try to teach the curriculum, without knowing how to do" (T8).

"Branch teachers should teach art education courses. This is a great problem for us, because we aren't qualified for this. We cannot detect talented students.

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We don't know the techniques. Additionally, course hours and equipment at schools should be enhanced" (T32).

"I think there should be a special room, with all the instruments, and there should be a music teacher. Even occasionally, students should get into that room, play and sing. The teacher should be directive. I have been teaching for 28 years. When I first started teaching, branch teachers used to teach other courses; physical education, art, music, etc. This was very beneficial for children. They did really learn. Branch teachers can detect the talented students, guide them, encourage them" (T7).

"I don't think it is enough. I think a music teacher or a real visual art teacher can be more beneficial. Branch teachers can be more effective in teaching some techniques, rules, playing musical instruments" (T15).

Discussion and Interpretation

Findings obtained with interviews with teachers of 12 schools from different socio-economic backgrounds are discusses in accordance with the related literature. Contemporary educational institutions try to offer balanced, production-oriented and organized scientific education that meets the requirements of today, and serves for social benefits. Negative findings of the recent studies conducted in Turkey indicate that we are still experiencing a rote learning based educational process. The efforts paid to develop educational programs intended for developing creativity fall short of their goals due to problems related to other elements of education. An important reason for this failure is that the required importance and time isn't allocated within the general education system to art education, which is very effective in raising creative individuals, who behave consistently and can produce values (Ersoy, 1990; Cited in: Ünver, 2002). When classroom teachers were asked what they thought about the role of art education courses in primary school program, all of them stated that it had a very important place, and made important contributions to the development of children. Classroom teachers expressed that art education built children's social skills, sense of rhythm, self-expression skills, creativity, and looking from different perspectives skills. All of the teachers highlighted that art education was neglected in primary school curriculum, and class hours weren't enough.

Art education programs should be developed in accordance with children's interests and skills, taking their individual differences into consideration. An art education that fits the needs of the children can save their inborn talents without killing them. Programs should be planned in a way to reveal children's creativity and develop their imagination. Parents should support art education, and they should be informed about the importance of art education. No individual in the society should see artistic and creative interests as a free time activity. Art education should be important at every level of education starting from pre-school (Dikici, 2001). About the attainments and content of visual arts and music curriculum, classroom teachers stated that they couldn't fully understand the attainments in the music curriculum, and visual arts curriculum wasn't clear, understandable and instructive.

Art education should be able to create the modern educator profile, for those who will establish the future. From past to present, Turkish Education History have lacked this conscience. While educational programs were organized, they lacked the meaningful and purposive unity of time, place and equipment. At this point, great responsibilities fall to university manager, because it is not possible to claim that universities contribute enough to art education. This reveals the disturbing extent of the society's insensitivity reflected on art

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and education. Educational institutions should create the real art educator identity and raise individuals who can shot their artistic sensitivity in every environment. These problems should be solves as soon as possible, and art education should be given with required equipment in sufficient time starting from pre-school, because art education is the education of humanity (Ünver, 2002). Examination of classroom teachers' self-efficacy perspectives showed that, all of them emphasized the importance of art education in the curriculum. However, they reported that they perceived themselves as inefficient in especially musical notes, playing instruments and artistic techniques. They also think that pre-service education on this subject process was insufficient.

It is important that art education courses are carried out in appropriate environments. Educational environment plays a motivating role in every level of education from primary education to higher education. Desks in the classrooms are not only inappropriate for artistic activities, but also limit students' movements. These deficiencies directly affect educational processes and the efficiency of art education. Modern art education cannot be offered in such environments. A great extent of the problems can be solves by spending all non-educational expenses on art education. However, the continuity of these problems is the indicator of the importance attached to art and education (Ünver, 2002). Analysis of the data related to the question "How do classroom teachers perceive the deficiencies in art education, and solutions do they suggest?" showed that teachers believed physical equipment of schools was insufficient, the class hours allocated to art education in the curriculum weren't enough, and art related courses should be taught by branch teachers.

Every state must have an art education policy. This art education policy should be reflected on the whole society. The existence of the significant relationship between the society and works of art depends on art education. The meeting of the society with art through such activities as promotion and exhibition of real works of art, and free-of-charge consumption of these can attain its objective with a conscious social attitude. Contemplation should be made on how art education should be and what should be done in Turkey, where studies on quantity and especially quality problems of art education fall short. Quantity dimension of the ones conducted so far has been more prominent than quantity dimension. And this way, wantonness and ineffectiveness became dominant in art education (Ünver, 2002).

Culture and art are essential for a comprehensive art education that can provide personal development for children, and art education is every child's right including the groups that have limited access to education. Equal benefiting from qualified art education is a universal right for every child. These rights were clearly stated in declarations of human rights and child's rights. Providing this right is the responsibility of public education, and many countries have made art education a compulsory and important part of education based on these rights. Yet, in Turkey, many children have still limited access to art and art education. Reconstruction of public education is very important in Turkey, where publicity of education has been narrowed down, issues like every born child's equal and independent self-development, democratization of education, mother tongue based education, multi-lingual education and art education should be discussed publicly, and receive their deserved value (Alakuş et al., 2014).

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Interview Questions
1. Which courses do you teach?
2. What do you think is the role of art education?
3. How many art related courses are given at your school? What are these?
4. Is drama taught at your school? If this course is included in the program, who teaches this course? What activities are conducted in this course?
5. Who teaches other art related courses (art, music, visual arts)?
6. What are the general objectives and attainments of these courses? Can you give an example?
7. What topics are included in the content of these courses?
8. Which methods and techniques are employed in these courses?
9. Where and with what equipment are these courses carried out?
10. Are students assessed in terms of artistic activities? How?
11. Do you think art education given at your school is sufficient?
12. If any, what are the deficiencies? Can you explain with examples?
13. What extra-curricular art activities are conducted? How long? Where?
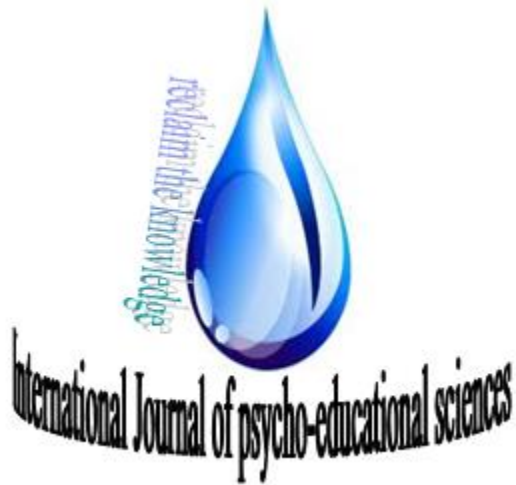
Self-Regulation Skills and Test Anxiety of Senior High School Students [1]

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to investigate the self-regulation skills of high school students and to reveal the relationship between self-regulation skills and test anxiety. In this study, a survey method was used. The "Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire" and "Test Anxiety Inventory" were used as the data collection tools. The findings of the study indicated that the self-regulation skills of students differed significantly according to the gender, the frequency of reading books, watching TV and using social media. While the test anxiety scores of the participants did not differ significantly according to frequency of watching TV and using social media but in terms of the gender and the frequency of reading books. Furthermore, current study concluded that there was a low and negative relationship between self-regulation skills and test anxiety.

Keywords : Sel-regulation, self-regulation skills, test anxiety, high school students.

Introduction

The concept of self-regulation, according to the social cognitive theory of Bandura, focuses on the deliberation of an individual about his or her behaviors and skills as well as what he or she can achieve. It is based on the self-control ability of individuals in cognitive, affective and behavioral aspects in various situations and the selection and implementation of appropriate strategies (Bandura, 1982; Zimmerman & Moylan, 2009). The information-processing theory emphasizes the metacognitive characteristics of self-regulation (Winne & Hadwin, 1998). When both are considered together, the focus is on the metacognitive regulation skills and motivational variables (Francesca, Nietfeld & Cao, 2016).

Self-regulation refers to feelings, thoughts and behaviors that an individual develops on his or her own so as to achieve the objective set by himself or herself. It is not a mental or academic skill; instead, it is a process managed by the individual in transforming his or her mental abilities into academic skills (Zimmerman, 2000). According to Pajares (2008), self-regulation is a metacognitive process where students understand and evaluate how they behave as well as plan alternative routes to success; and, according to Schunk and Ertmer (2000), self-regulation is to produce thoughts and emotions which are necessary for learning and motivation of an individual, to plan his or her behaviors based on these thoughts and emotions and to achieve them gradually.

It can be stated that the individuals with self-regulation skills are aware of their responsibilities, active and constructive in the learning process and can regulate their objectives, easily get their act together, rivet their attention and maintain their attention span. Given the impact of the factors such as the lack of organization, focus and the inefficient use of mental skills on the formation of test anxiety, it is possible to associate self-regulation skills with test anxiety (Msayar, Akhmal & Mardhiana, 2016). A high level of test anxiety has an adverse impact of the perception of self-efficacy. And, the negative perception of self-efficacy may decrease the performance of an individual in forming an active metacognitive structure, in creating planning and organizational skills (Msayar, Akhmal, Mardhiana, 2016; Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons, 1988).

The studies on the academic achievement of students indicate that self-regulation skills, defined as the use of appropriate metacognitive, motivational and behavioral processes in the process of learning, enhance achievement (Zimmerman, 2002). Although the methods of measuring the academic achievement of students vary, test method is the most common method in Turkey. The determination of the level of knowledge of students, the transfer to some levels of education, the achievement of the desired certificate or diploma depends on the

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success on exams. This situation may create a negative impact on students and cause anxiety among them.

Test anxiety is defined as the situational, psychological, behavioral anxiety reactions against a potential failure in relation to tests or examinations (Cizek and Burg, 2006). Test anxiety has an affective aspect as well such as the symptoms that occur in body due to mental and emotional tension, which originates from thoughts not relevant to test anxiety. The mental and affective aspects of test anxiety decrease student performance.

The last year in high school is the period when students prepare most for the undergraduate exam in Turkey and thus, when they have the highest level of anxiety. Many parents receive support from professionals and there are various efforts for students to cope with such anxiety. A high level of test anxiety has an adverse impact on the perception of self-efficacy (Zimmerman and Martinez-Pons, 1988), and, a negative perception of self-efficacy may decrease the performance of an individual in forming an active metacognitive structure, in creating planning and organizational skills (Msayar, Akhmal, Mardhiana, 2016).

All of these may considerably hamper the achievement of curriculum in practice. Given that the intrinsic properties rather than external factors are effective in the process of learning and considering that the self-regulation skills of students may help to reduce their feelings of stress, this study aims to analyze the self-regulation skills and test anxiety levels of senior high school students in terms of various variables, which are considered to have an effect on them and to reveal the relationship between self-regulation skills and test anxiety. It is contemplated that the findings of the study would provide data for the studies on the improvement of the self-regulation skills of students and curriculum development to enable students to cope with test anxiety. The current study aims to provide answer to the following questions:

1- Do the self-regulation skills of the participants differ significantly in terms of gender, the frequency of reading books, watching TV and using social media?
2- Do the test anxiety of the participants differs significantly in terms of gender, the frequency of reading books, watching TV and using social media?
3- Is there a relationship between the self-regulation skills of participants and their test anxiety?

Methods

Model

In this study survey method was used.

Participants

The participants of the research were composed of 611 senior high school students in 9 schools among a total of 18 high schools in a province in the western part of Turkey. There were 364 female students and 247 male students.

Data collection/analysis

The study utilized "*The Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire*" developed by Pintrich and De Groot (1990) and adapted into Turkish by Üredi (2005) so as to analyze the self-regulation skills of participants. Instead of employing the "Scale of Self-regulation" and "Scale of Cognitive Strategy Use" independently of each other in the study, a single scale of "Self-regulatory Learning Strategies" was used. The Cronbach alpha reliability value was .82. In order to determine the levels of test anxiety of the participants, "Test Anxiety

Inventory" developed by Spielberger (1980) and adapted into Turkish by Albayrak and Öner (1997) was administered. The Cronbach alpha reliability value was .93.

Data analysis

The data were analyzed through SPSS 20.0 software, t-test and one-way analysis of variance; Tukey and Dunnett C tests were performed and the effect size was calculated so as to explain the variation between groups. The correlation was calculated in order to examine the relationship between the scores obtained from the scales.

Results

The current study first examined whether the scores on the self-regulation skills of the participants differ according to gender through t-test for independent groups, and the result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *t-test result of self-regulation skills of female and male participants*

Groups	N	$\bar{X}$	S	df	t	p
Female	364	4,61	0,72	609	5,454	0,00
Male	247	4,27	0,79			

p<0,05

As seen in Table 1, the scores on the self-regulation skills of the participants differ significantly in terms of gender. Accordingly, the mean of the scores the self-regulation skills of the female students ($\bar{X}$ = 4,61) is significantly higher than that of the male students ($\bar{X}$= 4,27) [t$_{(609)}$= 5,454, p<0,05].

The study also compared the level of self-regulation skills of the participants in terms of frequency of reading books, watching TV and using social media through one way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the findings are provided in a single table, namely, in Table 2.

Table 2. ANOVA test results related to differentiation of participants' self-regulation skills in terms of the frequency of reading books, watching TV and using social media

In terms of the frequency of reading books						
Source of Variance	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p**	**Significant Difference**
Between Groups	5,299	3	1,766	2,933	0,03*	Those not reading / Those reading 2 books
Within Groups	368,617	612	0,602			
Total	373,917	615				
In terms of the frequency of watching TV						
Source of Variance	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p**	**Significant Difference**
Between Groups	5,477	3	1,826	3,028	0,02*	3 hours and more-/2 hours
Within Groups	369,020	612	0,603			
Total	374,498	615				
In terms of the frequency of using social media						
Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Significant Difference
Between Groups	8,144	3	2,715	4,542	0,00*	3 hours and more/ I do not use
Within Groups	366,372	613	0,598			/ 1 hour
Total	374,516	616				

p<0,05

Table 2 shows that self-regulation skills of the participants differ significantly in terms of the frequency of reading books, watching TV and using social media. The scores of self-regulation skills of those who do not read books and those who read one, two, three or more books in a month are found to be $\bar{X}= 4{,}38$, $\bar{X}= 4{,}52$, $\bar{X}= 4{,}65$, $\bar{X}= 4{,}44$ respectively. The Tukey's multiple comparison test performed in the study revealed that there is a significant difference between those who read two books in a month and those who do not read at all [$F_{(3-612)}= 4{,}48$, $p<0{,}033$]. The calculated effect size ($n^2=0{,}01$) indicated that the difference is significant at a very low level.

The mean score of the self-regulation skills of the participants is $\bar{X}= 4{,}45$ for those who do not watch TV, $\bar{X}= 4{,}51$ for those who watch TV for one hour, $\bar{X}= 4{,}60$ for those who watch TV for two hours, $\bar{X}= 4{,}20$ for those who watch TV for three hours or more. According to the Tukey's multiple comparison test, there is a significant difference between those who watch TV for three hours or more and those for two hours [$F_{(3-612)}= 4{,}47$, $p<0{,}05$]; however, the difference has a low effect-size ($n^2=0{,}01$). The mean score of the self-regulation skills of the participants who do not use social media is $\bar{X}= 4{,}60$; that of those who use social media for one hour is $\bar{X}= 4{,}54$; that of those who use it for two hours is $\bar{X}= 4{,}52$ and that of those who use it for three hours or more is $\bar{X}= 4{,}29$. In order to find out the source of the differences among these mean scores, Dunnett's multiple comparison test was performed given that the homogeneity of variance assumption was not met. The results of the test indicated that there is a significant difference between the scores obtained by the students who use social media for three hours or more in a day, and those who do not use it and those who use it for one hour [$F_{(3-613)}= 4{,}47$, $p<0{,}05$]. Based on the effect-size calculated ($n^2=0{,}02$), the difference is significant at a moderate level.

The study performed t-test to determine whether the test anxiety scores of the participants vary according to gender through t-test for independent groups, and the results are presented in Table 3. To determine if there is a significant difference in the level of test anxiety of the participants in terms of gender, t-test for independent groups was used, and the results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. *t-test result of test anxiety of female and male participants*

Groups	N	$\bar{X}$	S	df	t	p
Female	364	44,68	12,27	609	3,580	0,00*
Male	247	41,12	12,31			

*p<0,05

As seen in Table 3, the mean score of the test anxiety of the female students is $\bar{X}= 44{,}68$ while that of the male students is $\bar{X}= 41{,}12$. The t-test for independent groups indicated that the test anxiety level of the female students are significantly higher than those of the male students [$t_{(609)} = 3{,}580$, $p<0{,}05$].

The study analyzed whether the test anxiety scores of the participants differ in terms of the frequency of reading books, watching TV and using social media through ANOVA, and the findings are provided in Table 4, below.

Table 4. *ANOVA test results related to differentiation of participants' test anxiety in terms of the frequency of reading books, watching TV and using social media*

In terms of the frequency of reading books						
Source of Variance	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**P**	**Significant Difference**
Between Groups	1646,706	3	548,902	3,739	0,01*	Those who do not read-Those who read 3 books or more
Within Groups	89835,214	612	146,790			
Total	91481,920	615				
In terms of the frequency of watching TV						
Source of Variance	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p**	**Significant Difference**
Between Groups	925,517	3	308,506	2,093	0,10	-----
Within Groups	90196,351	612	147,380			
Total	91121,869	615				
In terms of the frequency of using social media						
Source of Variance	**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p**	**Significant Difference**
Between Groups	842,979	3	280,993	1,900	0,13	---
Within Groups	90649,413	613	147,878			
Total	91492,392	616				

*p<0,05

The mean score of the test anxiety of the students who do not read is $\bar{X}$=44,79; that of the scores of those who read one book in a month is $\bar{X}$= 42,01; that of the scores of those who read two books in a month is $\bar{X}$= 44,14; and those who read three books or more in a month is $\bar{X}$= 40,10. It is obvious that the test anxiety scores of the students who do not read are higher than the scores of the others. The results of ANOVA in Table 4 indicates that the difference between the mean scores is significant [$F_{(3-612)}$= 3,74, p<0,05]. Based on the effect-size calculated in the study (n^2=0,02), the difference is significant at a moderate level. According to the Tukey's multiple comparison test, there is a significant difference between the students who do not read books and those who read three books or more in a month against those who do not read. The mean score of the test anxiety of the participants is $\bar{X}$= 42,65 for those who do not watch TV, $\bar{X}$= 43,18 for those who watch TV for one hour, $\bar{X}$= 43,24 for those who watch TV for two hours, $\bar{X}$= 43,47 for those who watch TV for three hours or more. As seen in Table 4, the study concluded that the differences between the scores are not statistically significant [$F_{(3-612)}$= 43,26, p>0,05]. The mean score of the test anxiety of the participants is $\bar{X}$= 41,04 for those who do not use social media, $\bar{X}$= 42,71 for those who use it for one hour in a day; $\bar{X}$= 44,22 for those who use it for two hours in a day; and $\bar{X}$= 44,28 for those who use it for three hours or more; and, these differences were found not to be statistically significant [$F_{(3-613)}$= 1,90, p>0,05].

The current study lastly examined the relationship between the self-regulation skills and test anxiety of the participants and the correlation results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. *Correlation table for the scores of the Self-regulation and Test Anxiety*

	Self-regulation	Use of Cognitive Strategy	Self-regulation Overall	Delusion	Affective	Anxiety
Self-regulation	1	,579** ,000 617	,863** ,000 617	,047 ,247 617	,077 ,055 617	,067 ,094 617
Use of Cognitive Strategy		1	,912** ,000 617	-,120** ,003 617	-,033 ,411 617	-,072 ,075 617
Self-regulation Overall			1	-,051 ,205 617	,018 ,648 617	-,010 ,796 617
Delusion				1	,843** ,000 617	,944** ,000 617
Affective					1	,973** ,000 617
Anxiety						1

As seen in Table 5, there is a moderate positive correlation between the sub-scale of self-regulation and the sub-scale of the use of cognitive strategy [$r_{(617)}$ =.58, p=0,00 < .01], a high positive correlation between the sub-scale of self-regulation and the overall score obtained from the scale (self-regulation overall) [$r_{(617)}$=.86, p=0,00 < .01], a low positive correlation between the sub-scale of self-regulation and the sub-scale of delusion [$r_{(617)}$=.047, p=,247 >.01], a high positive correlation between the sub-scale of self-regulation and the dimension of affective [$r_{(617)}$=.077, p=,055 > .01] and a moderate positive correlation between sub-scale of self-regulation and the overall score obtained from the scale (anxiety) [$r_{(617)}$=.067, p=,094 > .01].

There is a high positive correlation between the sub-scale of the use of cognitive strategy and the overall scores obtained from the scale (self-regulation overall) [$r_{(617)}$=.912, p=,000 < .01], a low negative correlation between the sub-scale of the use of cognitive strategy and the sub-scale of delusion [$r_{(617)}$= -.120, p=,003 < .01] and also between the sub-scale of the use of cognitive strategy and the dimension of affectivity [$r_{(617)}$= -.033, p=,411 > .01], a negative high correlation between the sub-scale of the use of cognitive strategy and the overall score obtained from the scale (anxiety) [$r_{(617)}$= -.072, p=,075 > .01].

There is a moderate negative correlation between the overall score obtained from the scale (self-regulation overall) and the sub-scale of delusion [$r_{(617)}$= -.051, p=,205 > .01], a positive correlation between the overall score obtained from the scale (self-regulation overall) and the sub-scale of affective [$r_{(617)}$= .018, p=,648 > .01], and a low negative correlation between the overall score obtained from the scale (self-regulation overall) and the overall score obtained from the scale (anxiety) [$r_{(617)}$= -.010, p=,796 > .01]. There is a high positive correlation between the sub-scale of delusion and the sub-scale of affective [$r_{(617)}$= .843, p=,000 < .01], and between the sub-scale of delusion and the overall score obtained from the scale (anxiety) [$r_{(617)}$= .944, p=,000 < .01], and also between the sub-scale of affective and the overall score obtained from the scale (anxiety) [$r_{(617)}$= .973, p=,000 < .01].

Discussion and Suggestions

The current study concluded that the scores of self-regulation skills of the female students are significantly higher than those of the male students. The review on the studies on self-regulation skills in the literature in terms of gender showed that the findings are generally in favor of female students (Dadlı, 2015; Karahan, 2012; Pajares, 2010; Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990). This may stem from the different roles attributed to genders and cultural characteristics. Indeed, Pajares (2002) stated that female students are highly skilled in motivation and self-regulation skills and Philips and Zimmerman (1990) emphasized that the gender differences in self-regulation skills may originate from the expectations of the parents, which are different for their daughters and their sons, educational institutions and different messages on gender roles served through the mass media. The findings of the studies both in Turkey and in other countries produced the results similar to the results of this study. It is suggested that the impacts of the ways that the parents of and people around girls behave them on the self-regulation skills of female students are examined in qualitative and longitudinal studies and such studies are performed in different cultures.

It was revealed that the participants who read two or more books in a month have higher scores of self-regulation skills than others. This finding is similar to the findings obtained by (Karaaslan and Sungur, 2011; Sakız, 2013) that reading books and newspapers have a positive impact on self-efficacy and self-regulation skills. It is also consistent with the suggestions that self-regulated reading activities should be performed in order to improve self-regulation skills (Nilson, 2013). These findings emphasize the importance of the adoption of the reading habit at an early age. The study found that the participants with a longer TV viewing time have low self-regulation skills. As the individuals are cognitively in a passive situation, it can be stated that these findings yield an expected result. In this regard, students and parents can be provided with education on media literacy.

An important finding is that the scores of self-regulation skills of the participants who do not use social media are high. In the study by Türkyılmaz (2015) on the impact of the use of social media and mass media on the levels of awareness towards metacognitive reading strategies concluded that the metacognitive awareness scores of the students who do not have a profile on social networks vary significantly compared to those who have one. It may be interpreted that students allocate time for themselves and the activities which they are personally participated in rather than for social media and virtual environments and they are organized. It is reflected that the use of social media such as Facebook has a negative impact on the students' effective use of time, their performance in academic tasks and academic achievements (Karpinski &Duberstein, 2009; O'Brien, 2012; Rouis, Limayem & Salehi-Sangari, 2011). There are certain studies that demonstrate that young people tend to be addicted to Facebook, which adversely affect their self-regulation skills (Wanjohi, Mwebi & Nyang'ara, 2015). The contents on social media that students spend most of their time may be a subject of research, and more detailed research may be performed on the harms of the habit of use of social media to encourage them to spend their time on more beneficial areas and to raise awareness among students.

The study concluded that the test anxiety scores of female students are significantly higher than the scores of male students and there are studies to support this finding in the literature (Lashkaripour, 2006; Putwain &Daly, 2014; McDonald 2001; Putwain 2007; Duman, 2008). The finding of the study that the anxiety levels observed in female students are higher is consistent with the literature in general. This situation can be examined by means of qualitative studies and more detailed data can be obtained accordingly. The analysis of the test anxiety scores of the participants in terms of the frequency of reading books revealed that

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the test anxiety scores of the students who do not read at all are higher than others. Given that the habit of reading enhances the comprehension skills and reading comprehension is key to exam success, it can be stated that the above-mentioned finding is reasonable. The test anxiety scores of the students who watch TV for three or more hours and those who use social media for the same period of time are higher than those of others. Though the difference is not statistically significant, it may be interpreted that the students who spend such a long time for something other than studying and learning do not study daily, which increase anxiety for exams. Indeed, the study found out that the students with a high frequency of watching TV and using social media have low self-regulation skills. In this regard, it can be stated that the findings of the study are consistent within themselves.

The analysis of the relationship between the self-regulation skills and test anxiety of the participants in the study indicated that there is a low negative relationship between self-regulation skills and test anxiety. Msayar, Akhmal and Mardhiana reflected that self-regulation skills are not decisive in test anxiety in the regression model developed in their studies. The study may conclude that the higher the self-regulation skills are, the lower the test anxiety is, although there is not very strong relationship. Indeed, Ciltaş and Bektaş (2009), Sağırlı and Azapağası (2009) expressed that test anxiety is associated with self-regulation skills.

In conclusion, it can be stated that the study revealed the importance of the need for students to acquire self-regulation skills for students in the educational systems, which are generally based on exam method. The findings of the study will hopefully contribute to the studies in the field of educational sciences and curriculum development.

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Masculinity as Defined by Males Self-Advocates with Intellectual Disabilities: A Focus Group Research Report[1]

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Abstract

The paper presents the report analysis of the research undertaken in collaboration with male self-advocates with the usage of a focus group methodology. In the explanatory study the researchers explore topics of masculinity conceptualization of 9 males with intellectual disabilities. The main research question was: how do males with intellectual disabilities conceptualize masculinity? The main themes that emerged from the data collected in the interviews include: the males' identification with masculinity, their perceptions of masculinity, male role models and roles associated with it.

Introduction

In social constructionism identity is considered to be a socially produced phenomenon that arises out of our interactions with others (Burr 2003). Constructing one's identity involves his or her life experiences, relationships and connections with others (Dowling, 2011). Therefore people's identities are not stable – they are rather ever-changing and multifaceted (Azzopardi-Lane, Callus, 2015). Furthermore, their construction is based on our own perceptions, other people's perceptions of us, and our perceptions of others' perceptions (Mead 1934, in: Azzopardi-Lane, Callus, 2015). People with intellectual disabilities have often been seen, treated and called in a derogative way (Barnes, Mercer, 2008). Their social image is associated with such features as helplessness, vulnerability, unsuccessfulness, dependency and being 'eternal children' (Głodkowska, 2005; Ostrowska, 2015). These characteristics are in contrast with a commonly used, hegemonic perception of masculinity which is connected with institutional power and cultural ideal (Rushbrooke, Murray, Townsend, 2014). Although there is a growing interest of researchers in the area of masculinity and in the area of adulthood of people with intellectual disabilities, there is still little research on issues of gender in disability studies (Ćwirynkało, Borowska-Beszta, Bartnikowska, 2016. In this article we will try to contribute towards filling this gap by presenting research results on masculinity as perceived by males with intellectual disabilities.

Literature review

Self-advocacy and Disabilities

Self-advocacy of people with disabilities is a kind of disability activism. This may become a way to gain or improve some life-useful skills like: understanding one's disability, knowing one's abilities, limitations and needs, being aware of human rights, skills of effective communication of one's needs, teaching a new role. People with an intellectual disability learn to make choices, speak up for their rights, be confident, independent and responsible for their lives (Stalker, 1997, Goodley, 1998, Preston, 1998, Garcia-Iriarte, Kramer, Kramer, Hammel, 2009, Podgórska-Jachnik, Tłoczkowska, 2009, Beart et al., 2004, Gilmartin, Slevin, 2009, Roberts et al., 2014, Wamsley, 2014).

There is a growing interest in research (especially qualitative) connected with self-advocacy. Researchers show groups of self-advocates as groups which have positive impact on people with intellectual disability, their families, communities and even on policy (Gilmartin, Slevin, 2009, Tilley, 2013, Hole, Stainton, Wilson, 2013, Frawley, Bigby, 2011). Some of the research show how intellectually disabled people define and experience themselves in the context of their self-advocacy, e.g. sexual and relationship self-advocacy

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(Azzopardi-Lane, Callus, 2015, Friedman, Arnold, Owen, Sandman, 2014, Owen, Arnold, Friedman, Sandman, 2016), health and aging in the context of self-advocacy (Feldman, Owen, Andrews, Hamelin, Barber, Griffiths, 2012, Hole, Stainton, Wilson, 2013), leadership and self-advocacy (Caldwell, 2010).

Theoretical Framework of Focus Group Research

Focus groups belong to the tradition of non-positivist qualitative research. They come from the ground of sociology (Morgan, 1988; Freitas, Oliveira, Jenkins, Popjoy, 1998; Barbour 2011), especially medical sociology (Kitzinger, 1994). For the first time academics mentioned their conduct in 1920 (Kitzinger, 1994, p. 103) and in 1950 Merton (1952) made use of them. Focus group studies, according to Barbour (2011), are widely used in health sciences and social sciences. Sometimes, according to this author they are used in sociological research, particularly medical sociology (Thomas, Taylor, 2001; Cox et al., 2003), psychological research (Wilkinson, 2003), business and marketing research (Blackburn, Stokes, 2001; Maison, 2001), in the areas of interpersonal communication and analysis of public relations (Kidd, Parshal, 2000 and others). Focus research is also carried out in education (Vilson, 1997), health education (Branco, Kaskutas 2001), special education and in disability studies (Holis, Openshaw, Goble, 2002; Gajdzica, 2013; Drzażdżewska, 2014; Kowalska 2015). This type of study is, according to Kitzinger (1994), a discussion of focus groups "organised to explore a specific set of issues such as people's views and experiences" (Kitzinger, 1994, p. 103). Morgan (1988) writes, that "crucially, focus groups are distinguished from the broader category of group interviews by 'the explicit use of the group interaction' as research data" (Morgan, 1988, p. 12). According to Krueger (1994) focus groups may be appropriate in projects involving small research.

Focus Group as Method or Technique

The research involving focus groups tends to be variously defined: 1) as a group conversation with a prepared script (Gawlik, 2012), 2) a method (Barbour, 2011) or 3) a technique (Morgan, 1988). According to Barbour (2011), focus group is a qualitative and comprehensive research method that allows to go beyond description and gain a deeper explanation (Barbour, 2011). According to Flick (2010) focus group is both an analytical method and a comparative study with the participation of a group of people, where a group discussion is lead on a specific topic (Flick, 2010). Freitas et al. (1998) write that „depending on the research objective, the focus group can be used alone or in conjunction with other methods" (Freitas, Oliveira, Jenkins, Popjoy, 1998 p. 6). Morgan (1997) writes "my own preference (Morgan, 1996) is for a more inclusive approach that broadly defines focus groups as a research technique that collects data through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher. In essence, it is the researcher's interest that provides the focus, whereas the data themselves come from the group interaction" (Morgan, 1997 p. 6).

In this project, and the research report the authors adopted Morgan's (1997) definition of the focus research, as a technique of data collection, which might be part of a broader research e.g. involving team work, inter-paradigmatic and interdisciplinary work. Furthermore, Morgan (1988), Greenbaum (1993), Krueger (1994) defines focus research in the context of their use in wider projects, taking into account the quantitative research. These authors suggest three ways of connecting data collection techniques in focus groups and quantitative research. They all suggest that focus group research can precede a quantitative research method, can be used at the same time as quantitative research method, can follow a quantitative research method" Morgan, (1988); Greenbaum, (1993); Krueger, (1994).

Ethical Consideration of Data Collection

As any research in social sciences, this study was also bound to raise ethical issues, which need to be addressed. In this case they related mostly to the involvement of people with intellectual disabilities and the subject of the research, which was sensitive and deeply personal (Borowska-Beszta, 2015). According to Hammersley, Atkinson (2000), Denzin, Lincoln (2009), Flick (2010), Angrosino (2010), Barbour (2011), Jamielniak (2012), Ciuk (2012), the Ethics and ethical data collection is a key part of data collection. Rapley (2010) indicates the basic rules that must be adopted by a researcher. Flick (2010) writes about the problems broader. "Informed consent means that one should not take part in the research, without knowing it and without being able to express refusal. Researcher should avoid the hidden participant observations or providing participants with false information about the purpose of research. Researcher should respect the privacy of subjects and guarantee them full confidentiality (and keep his/her word). The accuracy of the respondents and their interpretation should put principle guiding research, and therefore are not allowed to conscious omissions or manipulation in the course of data collection and analysis. Care should be taken to study without harm considered. It should be fairly balanced the benefits and burdens binding for respondents from participating in the research."(Flick, 2010, p.123). The authors of the research accepted and implemented all ethical suggestions expressed by the above mentioned social scientists.

Data Analysis: Coding and Categorization Steps

In the analysis, the authors have used the technique of coding and categorization according to Flick (2010), Kvale (2010), Gibbs (2011). Flick (2010) writes that the aim of this technique is to find important items and then make their analysis by combining with other data and the naming and classification. The final stage of this process is a comprehensive grasp of the topic (Flick 2010). Encoding is an essential part of the analysis of the text. Analyses were carried out according to significance-oriented analysis of coding and categorization (Kvale, 2010), using the following steps:

- coding by assigning labels (basic words or group of words) as certain fragment of verbatim expression in order to later identify the expression of a subject;
- encoding process involving the segmenting of the data, comparing and conceptualizing the data segments in focus interviews
- generating the general categories (from the transcriptions) related to response to the main and detailed research questions
- categorization involving the cutting of the text (focus interviews transcriptions) into fragments entered in the research questions
- written presentation of results

Research Framework

Summary of Project

Focus groups were conducted in Poland in June 2016 in Occupational Therapy Workshops with 9 males (Peter, Andrew, Matthew, George, Damian, John, Conrad, Keith, Paul) with mild (2) and moderate (7) intellectual disabilities. The aim of the research was to find focus replying to one main research question and six detailed research questions concerning 9 males' conceptualization of masculinity. The discussion was designed to gather information from the participants of the focus group with regard to the following outcomes:

1. What concept of masculinity do the members of the focus group have?

1.1. How do the members of the focus group define themselves as males?
1.2. What is their sense of masculinity?
1.3. When, in their opinions, does one become a male?
1.4. What are the qualities of good male?
1.5. Who are the role models for the participants?
1.6. What roles of males do the participants fulfill?

The participants of the focus group provided information in one way, as oral responses in group discussion.

Purposive Sample

Freitas et al. (1998) write, that "the general characteristics of the Focus Group are people's involvement, a series of meetings, the homogeneity of participants with respect to research interests, the generation of qualitative data, and discussion focused on a topic, which is determined by the purpose of the research."(Freitas, Oliveira, Jenkins, Popjoy, 1998 p. 2) Overall, 9 self-advocates took part in the focus group research. The group consisted of males only (which was one of the criteria the researchers decided on). Their age varied from 22 to 58. Five of participants were in their twenties, one in his thirties, two in their forties and one in his late fifties. All of them were characterized as having intellectual disabilities. Although level of disability was not a formal criterion for purposive sampling, the resulting sample of participants had mild-to-moderate intellectual disabilities, sometimes accompanied by physical problems (two people on wheelchairs), and visual disability (one person – blind). All the participants used verbal communication.

The sef-advocacy group involved in carrying out this research work within the Polish Association on People With Intellectual Disabilities. The meetings of self-advocates usually take place once a week in the day support center called Occupational Therapy Workshops (all of them attend the OTW every day). The entire self-advocacy group consists of twenty-five adults (males and females) with a moderate or even severe intellectual disabilities. The ages of the self-advocates vary from 21 to 58. Some of them are in part-time employment on the open market, usually with the assistance of an employee from the Occupational Therapy Workshops. The regular meetings of self-advocates are planned and led by a support member with a cooperation of the leader of the group who is a person with intellectual disability elected by the members themselves.

Data Collection

The focus group, consisting of 9 members, had undertaken meetings on three days in June 2016 (17/06/16, 23/06/16, 24/06/16). The venue was a day centre for people with intellectual disabilities (Occupational Therapy Workshops, OTW) located in a small town in north-eastern Poland, region called Warmia-Mazury where the participants regularly meet. The place of focus group meetings was a spacious room with a round table and chairs around it so that all the participants could keep an eye-contact with one another. Each session lasted approximately 60 to 90 minutes and was audio recorded.

Ethical Consideration

The participation in the focus group research was voluntary and all adult males were asked for and had to give their written consent to participate in it prior to the sessions. Therefore, not every self-advocacy member who was invited, decided to take part. All of the members of the focus group were informed about the general research aims, and assured about guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality of their personal data. Their first names were

encrypted and changed in this report. Participants of the focus group agreed about the issue that coded and transcribed data from focus meetings will be published in the research report. The male self-advocates we interviewed do not constitute a statistically representative sample so only internal generalization is possible.

Written Consent Form Content

Below we attach the content of the written consent form presented to the signing to the 9 adult males self-advocates:

- I hereby consent to participate in focus research, anonymous interviews for research tit. "Masculinity as Defined by Males with Intellectual Disabilities: A Focus Group Research Report"
- I agree to the recording and transcription of interviews in the belief that my personal data will be treated as confidential material and stored in such a way that only a person dedicated to the research project would have access to them. I understand that the original recordings will be destroyed within six weeks of making transcription.
- I agree to place the transcription of entire encrypted and anonymized interviews and posting them in the report focus
- I am aware that at any time I can withdraw from the study without giving a reason.

Results

Outcome 1.1: Understanding what personal definitions of themselves as males are held by the members of the focus group

When asked who they are, several men from the focus group explained that they fulfill two roles: of a participant of the Occupational Therapy Workshops and of a self-advocate, but – which is worth noting – they also mentioned that they 'belong' to a particular therapist (which can be associated with belonging to a certain theme workshop, like carpenter's or sculptor's):

"... I'm at Mrs. Anna's..." (Peter)

"... I am with Mrs. Sylvia..." (Andrew)

"I'm at the Occupational Therapy Workshop with Mr. Martin" (Matthew)

For two participants passion (acting, singing) appeared to be an important factor shaping the men's identity. One of them emphasized his achievements associated with it*: "Recently, there was a song contest in Warsaw and I sang very nicely. I did a good job and got the prize. I won the first prize"* (Andrew)

In two other cases filling the specific role turned out to be connected with the participants' state of health. This state determines the role - for them it was a limiting determinism, or rather deterioration of health that has become a barrier to fulfill a specific role:

"Unfortunately they suspended me on the practices because of health reasons" (George)

The participants' self-identity turns out to be related to *places* where they spend time (e.g. Occupational Therapy Workshops), *people* they keep in touch with (mainly therapists, but also a group of self-advocates, a group of actors), and *their state of health*. Interestingly enough, the feeling of 'being someone' is not necessarily dependent on the overall ability or disability of the body, but rather on experienced additional health problems.

None of the participants stated clearly that they were 'men', but – as it turned out later – they associated many features of a man with the features of a self-advocate and when asked directly whether they felt they were 'males', they all confirmed they did.

Outcome 1.2: Understanding what personal sense of maleness is held by the members of the focus group

The analysis of the participants' statements shows that they perceived themselves as men because of certain behaviors which they considered to be typical of men. These behaviors were associated with being active as opposed to being passive.

It is noticeable that the participants connected being a man with various activities: helping others, appropriate behavior (e.g. towards women) and taking on responsible tasks (e.g. looking after animals). The respondents usually referred to activities that required a relationship with another person – which might imply that they construct their identity as men through relationships with others.

It is also clear that being a self-advocate and a participant of the Occupational Therapy Workshops where they meet people in need (e.g. people moving on wheelchairs), gives a lot of other opportunities to strengthen the participants' sense of being men. The category of 'helping' appears here in the context of their own involvement and maleness:

"There are some colleagues on a wheelchair. I help them, and I feel like a man " (Peter)

"I feel as the guy, because I like to help, I like standing up for someone if they're in trouble" (George)

Since the key category that confirm someone's masculinity in the opinions of the respondents was 'helping', we can conclude that it is the environment that enhances their feeling of being men. In some cases, their family home is another living space where they can confirm their identity as men. However, the condition is that they fulfill tasks which they consider to be male and responsible there:

"I help at home. I will feed rabbits. I'll give them drink" (Conrad)

"I also help my sister with the housework" (Damian)

The category of being a man implies a great deal of activity and responsibility. In the case of our participants the feeling of being a man is – in many ways – dependent on others – to what extent the environment responds correctly to their willingness to engage and will allow them to feel like men.

"In here it's us – the guys – who prepare the room" (John)

"We go to conferences and to all the people, and fight for our rights (...) We must set an example for others. Good example. As self-advocates we need to be an example here (...) A self-advocate must know his rights and must also be familiar with the rights of others and follow the rules (...) We help a lot. We help to carry the wheelchairs of our colleagues" (Peter)

"I also fight. Everyone is fighting for their rights. I don't give up" (George)

Although the participants had no doubts about the fact that they were men, in their life they experienced certain barriers that made it difficult for them to feel like ones. In particular, the lack of a female partner seemed to be crucial:

"The man is worthless without this, I think. I think that a man is worthless when he's without a woman, for example" (Andrew)

"Yeah, we're missing these partners. Definitely missing. Being alone is damned bad. When there's a woman, you can sit and talk to her, go for a walk to church (...) And when you're all by yourself? I'm all alone and what do I do? Nothing. (...) It's good to have a friend. But you lack a woman" (Peter)

Being <u>with</u> a woman is presented here (especially in Andrew's words) as the value which creates the overall value of a man. This is the element they all miss.

Outcome 1.3: Understanding the conditions of becoming a male in the opinion of the focus group members

According to the participants there are two main elements which confirm that someone became a man: reaching the age of 18 and receiving an identity card. In other words, becoming a man equals reaching a certain age by males. They perceived it as a universal principle. It is also worth noting that the self-advocates emphasized the similarities between the process of becoming a man with the process of becoming a woman. In both cases, as they argued, a teenage girl or boy becomes a woman or a man when they attain the age of maturity (18) as specified by law. Becoming an adult was also perceived in terms of gaining 'your rights' and the seriousness that from this moment seems to be a necessary feature of a person. Such an opinion is clearly visible in Peter's statement:

"When you're in your teenage years, it is not yet. Only when you are 18 years of age, you have your rights, your own ID. When a girl is 14 or 12, then no, but when she is 18 years old, she's already an adult." (Peter)

Outcome 1.4: Understanding the qualities of a good male in the opinion of the focus group members

Among the qualities of a man mentioned by the participants there are features connected with 1) manners: politeness, modesty, courtesy, 2) appearance: being clean and well-dressed, 3) relationships with others: taking care of others, being able to make them (especially women) feel accepted or happy, 4) attitude towards life: being a long-life learner, and 5) practical skills.

"He must be polite, modest, caring. He must be careful about his look. And he must be very clean. He must take care of himself, his look. He must pay attention so that a woman looked at him" (Peter)

"I can also say – as my friend mentioned – that when a guy says something, someone must feel accepted – to make a woman happy" (George)

"You can say that he that he teaches. He is a teacher and a learner – because he teaches others but also learns himself throughout the lifetime" (Keith)

"Well, every man should know how to do things. To do them. I learnt to… for example to paint the walls, to fix a table…" (John)

What is characteristic here is the fact that the participants talked about features they can also associate with themselves. An ideal man, in their point of view, does not have to be able-bodied, strong, confident or successful at work. Instead, he should be clean, modest and caring.

Outcome 1.5: Understanding the significant masculine role models in the opinion of the focus group members

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An interesting theme that emerged in the interview was a model of a man – someone the participants wanted to follow. Two of our participants claimed that did not have such a model. Others spoke about it willingly and – in comparison to other parts of the interview – in a more vivid and engaged way. The statements of these participants indicate that usually close family members (e.g. brothers, fathers, stepfathers, grandfathers) served as such models. These were men that they had an intimate relationship with. The closeness of this relationship seemed to play a dominant role, because it allowed to experience the activities of a 'significant other' and to follow their pattern. Two elements seemed to be crucial: 1. engagement of the model man in a relationship with the participant and 2. helping the model man. These activities were accompanied by commitment and kindness (although the relationships could be rough and strict sometimes).

The respondents emphasized the importance of common activities they got involved in with the 'model men". These activities included leisure time activities (*"We go cycling together and to the swimming pool and things like that",* Mathew), teaching a disabled boy / man new knowledge and skills (some participants highlighted that these were typically male activities), as well as the introducing to the social world (*"My father took me to conferences. He took care of me and taught life",* Paul). An important element of this relationship was the opportunity to obtain physical and psychological support from the significant other, which is illustrated in the following statements:

"For me, it was my father, although now I live with two brothers. He taught me a lot of things, showed me how you can do it. He taught me so that I could put parts together to make a cabinet, how to fix a table" (John)

"… for me it was my brother. Cause he was such a heart for me… Really…" (Damian)

"I loved my father. He always supported me. He helped me a lot. Also emotionally. I was more attached to my dad than mum" (Paul)

Not all of the relationships described continued. Some ceased with the death of a 'significant other', others – after certain events in their life (e.g. moving out, divorce), but the impact on the respondents is still clear and highlighted by them:

"We no longer live together. He has his a family" (Damian)

"For me it was the grandfather. And now, after his death, it is... well... I miss him" (George)

Outcome 1.6: Understanding the masculinity roles that are already implemented by the focus group members

In one of the focus group meetings the men had a chance to say how they perceived important male roles, including the role of a father and a woman's partner. The analysis of the participants' statements shows that – according to them – features of an ideal partner and an ideal father of a child are the same. The man in these roles should be: sensitive, understanding, kind, polite, eloquent, hard-working, committed and active (to serve home, family). The ability to 'educate the family', 'feed the family', 'be the head of the family' was emphasized.

The comparison of the role of a man and a woman in a relationship and family on the one hand shows the similarity of characteristics associated with a good partner, irrespective of their sex (a woman-partner should be: caring, compassionate, intelligent, nice, polite), on the other it also shows a stereotypical differentiation (she should be 'a diligent homemaker', be neat in dress and appearance). This is well illustrated in Keith's summary:

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"[A man] must feed his family, work, support everyone in the family so that nothing was lacking. Simply the head of a family (...) women are more for washing, cooking and taking care of a child. And guys are more for work" (Keith)

Not all participants, however, shared Keith's opinion. Some expressed their strong opposition to these stereotypical beliefs. Two of them, giving examples from their personal experiences in family life, talked about the possibility of sharing responsibility (or co-responsibility) for the family and relationship by a man and a woman. Others noted that nowadays there are no universal standards for men and women both on the basis of family and professional life (*"But women also work. I know such cases (...) [a woman] can also be a breadwinner"*, Peter). The characteristic element which indicates that the participants recognized a greater responsibility of men than women in the family is, however, an opinion expressed by a few self-advocates that men should 'raise a <u>family</u>', while women should 'raise <u>children</u>'.

Outcome 1.6a: Understanding the conceptualization of being a partner of a female by the members of the focus group

A male as a partner of a female

Out of the three participants who had some experience of being in a relationship with a woman, for two of them these were negative experiences (Peter and Keith). One caught his girlfriend cheating on him, the other does not know how to interpret the ambiguous behavior of women: "... but to me, damn, [women] make a fool of me. They trick me. Simply, they make a fool of guys" (Keith). These experiences make the men reluctant to speak about their relationships.

Nonetheless, the desire to have a partner / wife was declared by all the respondents. The purpose of such a relationship may be two-fold: 1) having someone to do the housework, which is stereotypically believed to be intended for a woman (e.g. washing, cleaning, cooking, taking care of a man: "Well, it seems I can clean the flat myself and do some things, but a woman could cook dinner or supper", Peter; "She is useful... for the cleaning, cooking", Robert), 2) accompanying the man and undertaking joint activities ("... to go out for a walk and talk together, eat dinner together, watch TV, when there's a good movie", Andrew).

Outcome 1.6b: Understanding the conceptualization of being a father by the members of the focus group

A male as a father

None of the self-advocates who took part in the research was a father, but everyone declared their willingness to become one (although some – especially the younger ones – admitted that they would rather wait with the decision). Their visions in which they saw themselves as future fathers were based on the observations of their family of origin and situations in close environment. The men, however, seemed to realize that in order to be fathers, they need to fulfill certain requirements, including having a job.

The participants' statements indicate that there are two main reasons why they want to be fathers: 1) the need to fulfill oneself in a new role as well as checking whether they would cope to do it, 2) the need to provide care for themselves when they grow old.

Andrew's statement is the illustration of the first reason: *"I would like to taste fatherhood a little bit... To see how it tastes, whether it is hard or easy. And to ensure the best possible welfare for children so that they had an apartment, for example. And to work... Simply, to raise them to be good people, right?"*

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Peter's opinion can serve as an example of the second approach: *"I would take a child from an orphanage for example. I'd ensure prosperity and jobs for them. And I'd also work and help, and raise them to be good people so that when I'm in my old age... I could have someone to take care of me."*

The analysis of the men's opinions reveals that, on the one hand, fatherhood is regarded as a challenge, on the other hand, it can be perceived as a kind of "investment" for the future. Peter expects reciprocal relationships with potential children. What is also worth noting, he introduces the topic of adoption. It turns out that the aim of being a father does not necessarily have to be connected with transferring one's genes, but 'raising for oneself' a carer for their old age. Adoption and biological fatherhood became the subject of the participants' further reflections. Some of the self-advocates opted for biological fatherhood rather than fatherhood in general. In their statements, one might notice some uncertainty about the transmission of genes: *"But these [children] may, for example... You don't know what they'll be like, what they'll do..."* (Keith).

Others argued that it does not really matter whether a child was adopted or biological as what the child would be like is dependent mainly on their parents. Therefore every child should be loved in the same way.

To sum up, trying to understand the conceptualization of masculinity by the members of the focus group, we discovered that:

- the participants' self-identity is usually connected with places they stay in (e.g. OTW), people they spend time with (e.g. their therapists or trainers at Workshops), activities they are involved in (e.g. acting, singing, self-advocacy), and their state of health;
- all the participants perceive themselves as males and are aware of the features that make them 'males', e.g. being active, helpful, responsible;
- according to the participants, a boy becomes a man when he reaches the age of 18 and receives an ID;
- the distinctive features of males, in the focus group members' opinion, include characteristics connected with manners (e.g. politeness, modesty), appearance (e.g. being clean), relationships with others (e.g. taking care of others), attitude towards life, and practical skills;
- most of the participants claimed that they did have male models in their lives – usually close family members they had close, engaging and supportive relationship with;
- according to the focus group members important roles of a male are those of a partner and a father and a man fulfilling such roles should be: sensitive, understanding, polite, eloquent, hard-working, committed and active.

Discussion

A person's identity can be linked to a variety of factors, including gender, racial and cultural heritage, age, social class or sexual preference and is constructed both by the person and through the environment (early socialization and expectations from family, friends and community) (Dowling 2011). In the present study we proved that intellectual disability does not have to be a dominant feature determining a person's self-identity. Rather, while defining who they were, the participants referred to their activities (being a self-advocate, an employee in the Occupational Therapy Workshops), places they spend time in, people they have close relationship with, and their state of physical health. Also, being a male was a significant part of the self-advocates' identity. This masculinity, however, can be argued as a *reliant masculinity* which is the antonym of hegemonic masculinity (Wilson et al., 2013). Although they did consider themselves as active, helpful, engaged (features they associated with both

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being a male and a self-advocate), they also felt some constraints connected with the desire to fulfill the roles typical of males. Being a female's partner (*"You're not fully a man without a woman"*, Andrew) and a child's father can be described here as *possible masculinity*, which is a future-oriented goal for males' identities that is based mainly on what they want to be in the future (Davies, Shen-Miller & Isaco, 2010).

Despite the benefits, the study definitely had some limitations as well. It was limited by a small sample size and as with all qualitative research its results are not generalizable. Although participants were diverse as far as their age and abilities are concerned, they were all from an organization situated in a small town in northern Poland and lived either in the town or in rural areas. It is possible that the results would be different in large urban settings with lower unemployment rates and better access to cultural facilities.

Conclusion

The findings of the study reflect a diversity of the self-advocates' views with respect to masculinity. Becoming an adult can open up a great deal of opportunities for any person, also the one with an intellectual disability. The participants of the focus group described in the study consider themselves as males for several reasons. First, they are all over 18 years of age and own their identification card. Second, they believe they can be characterized by features typical of males: being active, helpful and taking responsibility for seroius tasks. According to the members of the group an ideal male should be polite, modest, courtous (good manners), clean and neatly-dressed (the right appearance), skillful (practical skills) and take care of others (good relationships). What is also worth noting is the fact that these are the features the participants associate themeselves with so, in a sense, their perception of self is that they are masculine. There are some constraints, however, as they (usually) do not fulfill the roles which they consider to be important for males, i.e. the role of a female's partner and a child's father. Most of the participants did not have partners at the time of the interviews, although all them expressed their desire to have one. Also, none of the participants was a father and everyone declared the willingness to be one. The self-advocates believed that males fulfilling such roles should be characterized by such features as sensitivity, politeness, eloquence, diligence, commitment and activeness. These features are similar to the ones associated with the participants' role models: significant males (usually close family members – fathers, grandfathers, stepfathers) they would like to follow. Exploring this topic showed deeply personal opinions of the group on their self-identity as males and needs to fulfill the roles to maximum of their potential.

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The Effect of Metacognitive Strategy Training on Science Process Skills and Science Self-Efficacy among First Year Prep Students with Learning Disabilities

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Abstract

This *study investigated the effect of using metacognitive strategy training on science process skills and science self efficacy in learning disabled first year prep students . A total of 60 students identified with LD were invited to participate. The sample was randomly divided into two groups; experimental (n= 30 boys)and control (n= 30 boys). ANCOVA and Repeated Measures Analyses were employed for data analysis. Findings from this study indicated the effectiveness of the program employed in improving science process skills and science self efficacy in the target students. On the basis of the findings, the study advocated for the effectiveness of using metacognitive strategy training on science process skills and science self efficacy in learning disabled first year prep students .*

Key Words; metacognitive strategy training, science process skills, science self efficacy, learning disabled.

Introduction

Science is one of the great expressions of humanity. Science is simultaneously a body of knowledge and a way of gaining and using that knowledge. The accumulated and systematized body of knowledge, which is the 'product' of science, has a dynamic counterpart, the methods of inquiry, which is the 'processes' of science. Science is thus a combination of both 'processes' and 'products' related to and dependent upon each other. A Process is a series of activities or operations performed to attain certain goals or products. Science Processes are the inter-linked activities performed by any qualified person during the exploration of the universe. The meaning of the "process of science" is expressed in many ways (Sheeba, 2013).

Science process skills are the basis for scientific thinking and research (Mutlu and Temiz, 2013). Tobin and Capie (1982) define science process skills as identifying a problem, formulating a hypothesis about the problem, making valid predictions, identifying and defining of variables, designing an experiment to test the hypotheses, gathering and analyzing data and presenting rational findings that support the data.

Science process skills are a reflection of the methods used by scientists while generating information on science. The science process skills include intellectual skills, associated psychomotor and affective skills that are concerned with the learning of science in all its aspects. A review of literature enlists the skills pertaining to the various domains. The skills in the cognitive domain include comparing, communicating, inferring, predicting, using number relations, using time/space relations/making operational definitions, framing hypotheses, controlling variables, interpreting data, generalizing, raising questions, applying, quantifying, evaluating, designing investigations, finding relationships and patterns. Skills of observing, classifying, manipulating, experimenting and measuring pertain to the psychomotor domain while those in the affective level include wondering 'why', enjoying the aesthetics of discovery, 'aha' experience, suspending judgment, persevering amidst difficulty and ambiguity and the readiness to give up pet hypotheses in the face for strong evidence to the contrary. These process skills are helpful in furthering their knowledge in Science and other disciplines (Sheeba, 2013).

Self-efficacy is people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain types of performances (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Self-efficacy affects choice of activities, effort and persistence. People holding low self-efficacy

for accomplishing a task may avoid it; those who believe they are capable are likely to participate. Especially when they encounter difficulties, efficacious students work harder and persist longer than those with doubts. People acquire information to appraise self-efficacy from their actual performances, vicarious (observational) experiences, forms of persuasion and psychological symptoms (Pintrich &

Schunk, 2002).

Metacognition

Metacognition includes skills that enable learners to understand and monitor their cognitive processes (Schraw, Crippen & Hartley, 2006). According to Schraw's model (1998), there are two main subcomponents in the metacognition:

1. Knowledge of cognition refers to what individuals know about their own cognition or about cognition in general. It includes three different kinds of metacognitive awareness: declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge.

Declarative knowledge includes knowledge about oneself as a learner and about factors that influence one's performance (knowing 'about' things).

Procedural knowledge refers to knowledge about doing things. Much of this knowledge is represented as heuristics and strategies (knowing 'how' to do things).

Conditional knowledge refers to knowing when and why to use declarative and procedural knowledge (knowing the 'why' and 'when' aspects of cognition).

2. Regulation of cognition refers to a set of activities that help students control their learning. Although a number of regulatory skills have been described in the literature, three essential skills are included in all accounts: planning, monitoring and evaluation.

Planning involves the selection of appropriate strategies and the allocation of resources that affect performance. Planning includes goal setting, activating relevant background knowledge and budgeting time.

Monitoring includes the self-testing skills necessary to control learning. It refers one's on-line awareness of comprehension and task performance.

Evaluation refers to appraising the products and efficiency of one's learning. Re-evaluating one's goals, revising predictions and consolidating intellectual gains.

A research by Moghtaderi& Khanjani (2012) showed that self efficacy is related to high levels of using cognitive and meta-cognition strategies as well as involvement and sustainability in homework completion. Other researchers(Britner & Pajares, 2006; Zusho et al., 2003) assert that high self-efficacy is associated with greater metacognition, including more efficient use of problem solving strategies and management of working time, expending greater effort, and persisting longer to complete a task, particularly in the face of obstacles and adversity. Furthermore, students with high self-efficacy tend to use metacognitive strategies to generate successful performance outcomes (Braten, et al., 2004, Pintrich & De Groot , 1990).

So, present research study seeks to explore the effect of metacognitive strategy training on science process skills and science self efficacy among first year prep students with learning disabilities. It addresses the following questions:

1 -Are there differences in post – test scores mean between control and experimental groups on science process skills test ?
2- Are there differences in post – test scores mean between control and experimental groups on science self efficacy test ?

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3- If the program is effective in improving science process skills of experimental group, is this effect still evident a month later?

4- If the program is effective in improving science self efficacy of experimental group, is this effect still evident a month later?

Method

Participants

60 students participated in the present study. Each student participant met the following established criteria to be included in the study: (a) a diagnosis of LD by teacher's references, and learning disabilities screening test (Kamel, 1990) (b) an IQ score on the Mental Abilities Test (Mosa, 1989) between 90 and 118 (c) absence of any other disabling condition. The sample was randomly divided into two groups; experimental (n= 30   boys) and control (n= 30   boys)

The two groups were matched on age, IQ, science process skills and science self efficacy. Table 1 shows means, standard deviations, t- value, and significance level for experimental and control groups on age (by month) ,IQ , science process skills and science self efficacy (pre-test).

Table 1. *Means, standard deviations , t- value , and significance level for experimental and control groups on age (by month),IQ, science process skills and science self-efficacy (pre-test).*

Variable	Group	N	M	SD	T	Sig.
Age	Experimental	30	156.24	1.96	-.121	Not sig.
	Control	30	156.41	2.01		
IQ	Experimental	30	111.34	4.45	-.221	Not sig.
	Control	30	111.89	4.24		
Science process skills	Experimental	30	6.21	3.00	-.547	Not sig.
	Control	30	6.67	3.52		
Science self efficacy	Experimental	30	24.80	2.65	-.539	Not sig.
	Control	30	25.83	2.32		

Table 1. shows that all t- values did not reach significance level . This indicated that the two groups did not differ in age (by month),IQ, science process skills and science self-efficacy (pre-test).

Instruments

1- Science process skills test (SPST) consisting of (22) items that tests basic and integrated science process skills that was based on the relevant literature (Monica, 2005; Ngoh, 2009; Afif & Majdi ,2015). There are 12 items on the basic science process skills, 10 items on the integrated science process skills. Table 2 shows the respective science process skills.

Table 2. Distribution of the Science Process Skills

Science Process Skills Items	Basic	Science Process Skills Items	Integrated
1, 2 , 3	Observation	13,14	Controlling variables
4,5	Measuring	15,16	Hypothesizing
7,8	Classifying	17,18	Experimentation
9,10	Predicting	19,20	Data Interpreting
11,12	Communicating	21,22	

The Cronbach's α for the test was (0.95). This reliability made the instrument suitable for this study.

2- Me and Science : Science Self-Efficacy: Me and Science was developed for two purposes: one, to provide an intermediate rather than specific measure of math self-efficacy, and two, to provide a scale which might profile students' strong or weak self-efficacious characteristics. There are three factors: Effort, ability, and resiliency .

In completing Me and Science, students were instructed to respond by thinking how they felt about themselves with reference to math using a three point Likert scale (agree=3, Uncertain= 2 , and Disagree=1). Reliability coefficients were computed for the full scale (Science self-efficacy) and subscales (ability, effort, resiliency). These results were -91 for Social Studies self efficacy, .93 for ability, -73 for effort, and -80 For resiliency.

Procedures

Screening : Second year prep students who participated met the following established criteria to be included in the study: (a) a diagnosis of LD by teacher's references, and learning disabilities screening test (Kamel, 1990) (b) an IQ score on the Mental Abilities Test (Mosa, 1989) between 90 and 118 (c) absence of any other disabling condition.

Pre-intervention testing: All the sixty students in grade one prep completed Science process skills test , and Me and science: science Self-Efficacy, which assesses students' self efficacy in science. Thus data was reported for the students who completed the study .

General Instructional Procedures: Instruction was delivered to The first year Science teacher. Before the study started, the science teacher participated in 10 hours of training to learn how to implement the metacognitive training strategy . The teacher was provided with a notebook that contained detailed directions for implementing all activities and lessons.

The teacher; Mrs. Salma, received training and role-played implementing the strategy until she was able to do so to criterion. To help ensure complete implementation, she was provided with a checklist for each lesson. As she taught a lesson, each step was checked as it was completed.

The teacher , however, had the flexibility to respond to individual student needs, backing up and repeating a step, if necessary, or reordering steps. Students received 3 training sessions a week, lasting between 40 and 45 min . Instruction took place in the regular classroom in order to naturalize the situation.

Design and Analysis

The effects of implementing the metacognitive training strategy on students' science process skills and science self efficacy were assessed using a repeated-measures design, pre- post- and follow-up testing.

Results

Table 3. shows data on ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in Science process skills test. The table shows that the (F) value was (128.009) and it was significant value at the level (0.01).

Table 3. ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post-test mean scores between experimental and control groups in Science process skills test

Source	Type 111 sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Pre	1.725	1	1.725		
Group	217.276	1	217.276	128.009	0.01
Error	317.340	57	5.567		
Total	1067.933	59			

Table 4. shows T. test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in Science process skills test. The table shows that (t) vale was (11.67). This value is significant at the level (0.01) in the favor of experimental group . The table also shows that there are differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in Science process skills test in the favor of experimental group .

Table 4. *T-test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in Science process skills test*

Group	N	Mean	Std. deviation	T	Sig.
Experimental	30	13.50	1.10	11.67	0.01
Control	30	6.43	3.12		

Table 5. shows data on ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in Science self efficacy . The table shows that the (F) value was (131.099) and it was significant value at the level (0.01).

Table 5. *ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in Science self-efficacy*

Source	Type 111 Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Pre	17.004	1	17.004		
Group	30055.895	1	30055.895	131.099	0.01
Error	13067.862	57	229.261		
Total	43369.933	59			

Table 6. shows T. test results for the differences in post-test mean scores between experimental and control groups in science self efficacy. The table shows that (t) vale was (11.568). This value is significant at the level (0.01) in the favor of experimental group. The table also shows that there are differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in science self efficacy in the favor of experimental group.

Table 6. *T. test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in science self-efficacy*

Group	N	Mean	Std. deviation	T	Sig.
Experimental	30	83.83	1.64	11.568	0.01
Control	30	38.90	3.81		

Table 7. shows data on repeated measures analysis for Science process skills test. The table shows that there are statistical differences between measures (pre- post- sequential) at the level (0.01).

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Table 7 . *Repeated measures analysis for Science process skills test.*

Source	Type 111 sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	661.250	1	661.250		0.01
Error 1	105.611	58	1.821	363.148	
Between Measures	794.978	2	794.978	193.121	0.01
Measures x Groups	596.933	2	298.467	145.011	0.01
Error 2	238.756	116	2.058		

Table 8. shows data on Scheffe test for multi-comparisons in Science process skills test. The table shows that there are statistical differences between pre and post measures in favor of post test , and between pre and follow up in favor of follow up test , but no statistical differences between post and follow up test .

Table 8. *Scheffe test for multi- comparisons in Science process skills test*

Measure	Pre M= 6.76	Post M= 13.20	Follow up M= 12.86
Pre	--	--	--
Post	8.43*	--	--
Follow up	8.10*	.33	--

Table 9. shows data on repeated measures analysis for science self efficacy. The table shows that there are statistical differences between measures (pre- post- follow up) at the level (0.01).

Table 9. *Repeated measures analysis for science self-efficacy*

Source	Type 111 sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	50200.200	1	50200.200	590.551	0.01
Error 1	4930.333	58	85.006		
Between Measures	25297.033	2	12648.517	123.776	0.01
MeasuresxGroups	25515.700	2	12757.850	124.846	0.01
Error 2	11853.933	116	102.189		

Table 10. shows data on Scheffe test for multi-comparisons in science self efficacy test. The table shows that there are statistical differences between pre and post measures in favor of post test, and between pre and follow up measures in favor of follow up testing , but no statistical differences between post and follow up testing .

Table 10 . *Scheffe test for multi-comparisons in science self efficacy*

Measure	Pre M= 39.20	Post M= 83.83	Follow up M= 85.13
Pre	--	--	--
Post	44.633*	--	--
Follow up	45.933*	1. 300	--

Discussion

This study sought to determine the effects of the metacognitive training strategy in improving science process skills and science self efficacy of   first year prep students with learning disabilities.

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The results of this study showed that the metacognitive training strategy was effective in improving science process skills and science self efficacy of students in experimental group, compared to the control group whose individuals were left to be taught in a traditional way.

Participants of this study fall into the minimum IQ of 90, nevertheless, they have learning disability. Thus IQ score cannot account for learning disabilities. The results of the present study support that conclusion with evidence that students who participated in the study do not fall into the low IQ range, however they have learning disabilities. When designing a program based on the metacognitive training strategy, they had statistical increase in science process skills and science self efficacy. This goes in line with what Mourad Ali et al. (2006) notes that there is one problem " students who are identified as learning disabled often cover any special abilities and talents, so their weakness becomes the focus of their teachers and peers, ignoring their abilities.

Mourad Ali (2007), however, notes that" learning disabled, as well as gifted students can master the same contents and school subjects", but they need to do that in a way that is different from that used in our schools .

Experimental group gained better scores in science process skills and science self efficacy tests than did control groups in post-tests though there were no statistical differences between the two groups in pre- test. This is due to the program which met the experimental group's needs and interests. On the contrary, the control group was left to be taught in a traditional way. This goes in line with our adopted perspective which indicates that traditional methods used in our schools do not direct students as individual toward tasks and materials, and do not challenge their abilities. This may lead students to hate all subjects and the school in general. On the contrary, when teachers adopt a technique that suits students interests and challenges their abilities with its various modalities, those students had a lot of gains.

Implications

The results of this study have several important implications. This study adds to the literature on the effectiveness of metacognitive training strategy with learning disabled students. Results appear to indicate that metacognitive training strategy is an effective instructional strategy for improving science process skills and science self efficacy test scores of students with learning disabilities.

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Student Attitudes in Inclusive Settings: Public Middle Schools[1]

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of inclusive education on the general education population of middle school students' attitudes. Therefore, a quantitative study was designed as a quasi-experimental study to measure such attitudes. The study included non-random samples of one control group (non-inclusive) and one experimental group (inclusive). This study took place in a middle school in a large urban school district in the US. The participants of this study included 20 students without disabilities in each classroom with a total number of 120 students from a total of six different middle school classrooms. The study included two classrooms (one inclusive and one non-inclusive) for each grade level (6, 7, and 8). About 60% of these students were Hispanic, 50% were male, and 80% received free or reduced lunch. In addition, ages ranged from 11 to 15 years. Inclusion Survey for Middle School Students (ISMSS), which included 30 questions was used to measure the attitudes of students without disabilities towards students with learning disabilities. SPSS was used for descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. The findings of this study indicated that inclusive education had a negative effect on the attitudes of students without disabilities towards their peers with disabilities in public middle school classrooms.

Introduction

Inclusive education is the practice of educating all or most children in the same classroom, including children with physical, mental, and developmental disabilities (McBrien & Brandt, 1997). Current reports show that students with disabilities in the U.S. are included more in mainstream classrooms and have more exposure to the general education curriculum than ever before (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). In traditional public schools, students with disabilities and their non-disabled peers develop conceptual understanding and positive attitudes in inclusive classrooms (Baker, Wang, & Walberg, 1994). Furthermore, students with disabilities who have access to general education classrooms make more academic progress than those students in special education settings (Peetsma, Roeleveld, & Karsten, 2001).

Failing to incorporate students with learning disabilities into inclusive classrooms may result in school dropouts and increased unemployment rates due to lack of conceptual understanding in core subjects. According to the Twenty Fourth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (U.S Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs 2003), graduation rates for students with disabilities, although increasing, continue to be significantly lower than graduation rates of students without disabilities in traditional public schools. The report indicates that 62% of students with learning disabilities graduated with a diploma and 79% of students without disabilities graduated with a diploma. In other reports (Wagner, 1991), 28% of students with learning disabilities dropped out of high school before their fourth year. The dropout rate of students with learning disabilities are connected with factors such as lack of comprehension in core subjects and attitudinal issues (Dunn, Chambers, & Rabren, 2004; Kortering & Braziel, 2002). In addition, research shows that although employment rates for students with disabilities are increasing (45%), they continue to lag behind the rates of students without disabilities (63%) (Wagner, 2005).

Schools use different methods and educational philosophies to close the achievement gap between students with disabilities and their non-disabled peers. Federal enactments have mandated public schools to provide free and appropriate education for all students to prevent issues such as high dropout rates, low comprehension of core topics, and negative attitudes in the US (Kortering & Braziel, 2002; Wagner, 2005). However, most public schools have had difficulty improving such issues for students with disabilities (Dunn et al., 2004).

Researchers had different findings about the effects of inclusive education on both students with and without disabilities. Smoot (2011) conducted a study to measure how much general education peers socially accepted the students with disabilities in the general education setting. The participants of the study included 61 students with disabilities and their 286 general education peers. The findings indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in acceptance by gender of the student. In addition, only 43% of the students with disabilities were chosen by a non-disabled peer to work together. The study also suggested that having peer interactions resulted in higher understanding of students with disabilities as well as lower levels of negative attitudinal incidents in inclusion.

Conversely, Kalambouka, Farrell, Dyson, and Kaplan (2007) conducted research to examine manuscripts published on the impact of inclusive education (conceptual understanding, attitudes, and social outcomes) on students without disabilities. Researchers initially had a pool of 7,137 papers, which were identified through electronic databases. After having screened all journal titles and abstracts, they marked out 119 journal articles. They then conducted further examination and reduced the numbers of articles to 26. After all extraction and synthesis process of articles, researchers obtained 71 findings from 26 different studies. The results indicated that there were no adverse effects of inclusion on students without disabilities and their disabled peers. Overall results suggested that 81% of the outcomes of inclusion were positive or neutral on attitudes and social outcomes of all students. However, 9% of findings suggested that inclusive education had a negative impact on attitudes and social outcomes of all students.

Siperstein, Parker, Bardon, and Widaman (2007) conducted a study to investigate the attitudes of students without disabilities toward inclusion of peers with intellectual disabilities. The participants included 5,837 middle school students from 47 school districts from 26 states. The findings suggested mixed results about the impact of inclusion on the population of students without disabilities. Researchers claimed that students without disabilities viewed inclusion as having both positive and negative effects on their comprehension and attitudes. Only 38% of these students reported having a schoolmate with disabilities, and about 10% of them reported having a current classmate with disabilities. In addition, students without disabilities had limited contact with students with disabilities, did not want to socially interact with them outside school, and exhibited negative attitudes towards them.

Smoot (2004) conducted a study that involved a simple sociometric assessment technique - a measurement that measures social interactions and relationships within a peer group - to measure how much students without disabilities socially accepted the students with disabilities in general education settings. The participants included 61 students with disabilities and 286 students without disabilities from five middle schools, two high schools, one elementary school, and one preschool. The total population in all five schools was 18,112 students. The findings suggested that only 43% of the students with disabilities were being preferred by their non-disabled peers. Conversely, students without disabilities preferred each other 85% of the time in inclusive settings.

Social Learning Theory

In formulation of a theoretical perspective for studying the attitudes of students without disabilities in inclusion, social learning theory provides a useful prototype. Basically, this unified theoretical framework approaches the explanation of human attitudes in terms of reciprocal (continuous) interaction between cognitive, attitudinal, and environmental determinants (Bandura, 1989). Social learning theory posits that human agents learn from each other by imitation, modeling, and observation (Bandura, 1989). Bandura (2001) stated that individuals do not need to learn everything directly because they can learn many things by observing other people's experiences. After the observation, the information gained through modeling and imitations are restored in a timely manner to serve as a guide for our actions (Grusec, 1992). By applying social learning theory to this scholarly research, environmental determinants of continuous human interactions will be explained according to the social interactions among students (with and without disabilities) in an inclusive setting, in which they may result either in positive or negative social attitudes.

Although several studies have been conducted on inclusive education and its effects on students with disabilities in public schools, research that examines the effects of inclusive education on the population of students without disabilities in such schools is limited. The absence of research on how inclusive education affects the general education population in public middle schools is worthy of study and analysis. The purpose of this study is to analyze the effects of inclusive education on the general education population of middle school students' attitudes. Therefore, a quantitative study was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. How does inclusive education affect the attitudes of general education students toward students with learning disabilities in 6th grade classrooms?

2. How does inclusive education affect the attitudes of general education students toward students with learning disabilities in 7th grade classrooms?

3. How does inclusive education affect the attitudes of general education students toward students with learning disabilities in 8th grade classrooms?

Methods

Model

The research sample was selected using a non-equivalent groups design such that participants of the study were not randomly assigned to conditions (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006). This design was considered to be quasi-experimental rather than experimental because it included non-random samples of one control group (non-inclusive) and one experimental group (inclusive) (Gay et al., 2006). In the study, the researcher manipulated the classroom arrangements by assigning 20 students without disabilities to non-inclusive classrooms and 20 students without disabilities and two students with disabilities to inclusive classrooms. The researcher collected data from both students without disabilities and students with learning disabilities.

Setting and Participants

This study took place in a middle school in a large urban school district in the US. The school was composed of 479 students of which 63% of the population was Hispanic and 12% was African-American. The school was also listed as 83% economically disadvantaged (on free and reduced lunch due to qualifying with limited income). The school included

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approximately 4% of students with special needs. It implemented inclusion in a few classes. Most of the students with special needs received their education in a resource room. For the inclusive and non-inclusive science classrooms, the researcher manipulated the classroom arrangements for this study. The study was implemented in two Grade 6, two Grade 7, and two Grade 8 science classrooms. For each grade level, there was one inclusive science classroom and one non-inclusive science classroom. The participants of this study included 20 students without disabilities in each classroom with a total number of 120 students from a total of six different middle school classrooms. The study included two classrooms (one inclusive and one non-inclusive) for each grade level (6, 7, and 8). About 60% of the participants were Hispanic, 50% were male, and 80% received free or reduced lunch. In addition, participants' ages ranged from 11 to 15 years.

Data Collection Tools

The attitudes of students without disabilities towards students with disabilities were measured by the *Inclusion Survey for Middle School Students* in inclusive classrooms in a public middle school. The instrument was developed by Aragon (2007) to assess the attitudes of students without disabilities towards students with disabilities in inclusive middle school classrooms. The survey was pilot-tested with 15 middle school students to determine the readability and suitability for middle school students. Aragon (2007) calculated the coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) to assess the reliability of the instrument with her sample and found it as 0.73. The researcher of this study also conducted a pilot testing and found that the Cronbach's alpha (α) value for this survey was .83, which indicated a strong reliability ($\alpha \geq 0.70$). Including the first two questions that solicited students' demographic information and the next two questions that asked for students' previous experiences with students with disabilities either in their home or school settings, the survey included a total of 30 questions. The remaining 26 questions were written as statements using a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 indicating strong disagreement, 2 indicating disagreement, 3 indicating neither disagreement or agreement, 4 indicating agreement, and 5 indicating strong agreement.

Data Analysis

For the data collection, answer sheets were used for both students with and without disabilities during the 2013-2014 school year. The researcher collected data from both students without disabilities and students with learning disabilities. The researcher did not analyze data and communicate the findings from students with learning disabilities because this study focused on the effect of inclusive education on students without disabilities. SPSS 20.0 was used for descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. First, the researcher ran an independent-samples *t*-test to determine the sample mean differences on attitudes (pre-test) in both groups. Second, a paired samples (dependent) *t*-test was conducted to examine significant differences on attitudes (pre-test and post-test) within inclusive classrooms and independently for non-inclusive classrooms. Third, a multivariate group analysis test was conducted to investigate significant differences in attitudes (pre-test and post-test) of students between inclusive and non-inclusive classrooms.

Results

Twenty students without disabilities from each classroom were tested on the survey for each grade level. Table 1 shows mean scores on the pre-survey and post-survey measures. The mean score for the students in the 6th grade inclusive science classroom was 3.60 (*SD = .57*) on pre-survey test and 3.42 (*SD = .55*) on the post-survey test. Students in the 6th grade non-inclusive classroom had a lower mean score of 3.38 (*SD = .45*) on both pre-survey test

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and 3.22 (*SD* = *.42*) post-survey test compared to students in the 6th grade inclusive science classroom. Students in the 7th grade inclusive science classroom had a mean score of 3.55 (*SD* = *.37*) on pre-survey test and 3.41 (*SD* = *.56*) on the post-survey test. Alternatively, students in the 7th grade non-inclusive classroom had a lower mean score of 3.52 (*SD* = *.25*) on both pre-survey test and 3.32 (*SD* = *.33*) post-survey test compared to students in the 7th grade inclusive science classroom. Students in the 8th grade inclusive science classroom had a mean score of 3.47 (*SD* = *.44*) on the pre-survey test and 3.19 (*SD* = *.44*) on the post-survey test. Students in the 8th grade non-inclusive classroom had a higher mean score of 3.66 (*SD* = *.33*) on both the pre-survey test and 3.21 (*SD* = *.54*) post-survey test compared to students in the 8th grade inclusive science classroom.

Table 1. *Summary of ranges, means, and standard deviations for ISMSS scores*

Group	*n*	Pre		Post	
		Min-Max	*M (SD)*	Min-Max	*M (SD)*
6th Inc.	20	2.77-4.65	3.60 (.57)	2.50-4.54	3.42 (.55)
6th Non-inc.	20	2.69-4.27	3.38 (.45)	2.62-4.15	3.22 (.42)
7th Inc.	20	2.92-4.19	3.55 (.37)	2.12-4.46	3.41 (.56)
7th Non-inc.	20	3.15-4.08	3.52 (.25)	2.77-4.54	3.32 (.33)
8th Inc.	20	2.69-4.58	3.47 (.44)	2.46-4.27	3.19 (.44)
8th Non-inc.	20	3.04-4.23	3.66 (.33)	2.23-4.50	3.21 (.54)

Note. ISMSS = The Inclusion Survey for Middle School Students. This construct consisted of 26 Likert scale items with a possible score of 1-5, Inc. = Inclusive, Non-inc. = Non-inclusive.

6th Grade Inclusive and Non-Inclusive Classrooms

The independent samples *t* test showed whether there were any significant changes between 6th grade students without disabilities in an inclusive classroom and those in a non-inclusive classroom about their attitudes towards students with disabilities on pre-survey tests. Levene's test resulted in no violations being observed among sample variances about the experiences of students without disabilities towards students with disabilities (*p* = .21). This test showed that the variances from different groups were normally distributed and that we can have confidence in the validity of our *t* test result for pre-survey test and post-survey test.

A paired samples *t* test was conducted to examine significant differences on attitudes (pre-survey test and post- survey test) of 6th grade students without disabilities within inclusive and independently for non-inclusive classrooms. The test results indicated that there was not a significant difference in the scores of 6th grade students without disabilities within inclusive science classrooms for pre-survey (*M* = 3.60, *SD* = *.57*) and post-survey (*M* = 3.42, *SD* = *.55*) conditions, *t*(19) = 1.82, *p* = .08. In addition, a paired samples *t* test was conducted to examine significant differences on attitudes (pre-test and post-test) of 6th grade students in non-inclusive classrooms. There was not a significant difference in the scores of 6th grade students without disabilities within non-inclusive science classrooms for pre-survey (*M* = 3.38, *SD* = *.45*) and post-survey (*M* = 3.22, *SD* = *.42*) conditions, *t*(19) = 1.19, *p* = .25. Figure 1 shows the comparison in mean scores between students in 6th grade inclusion and 6th grade non-inclusion on surveys.
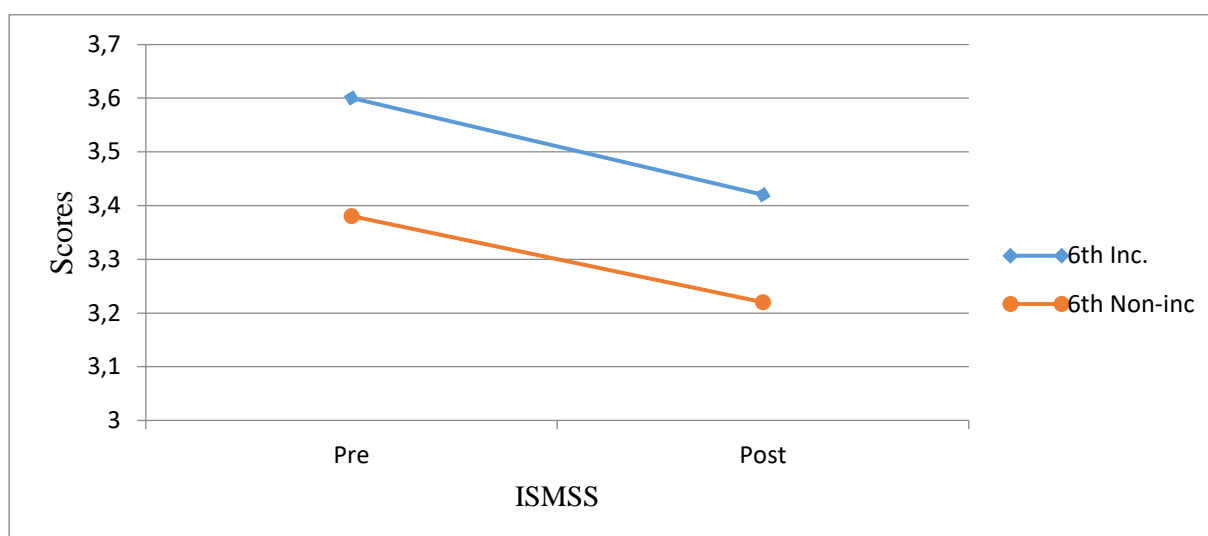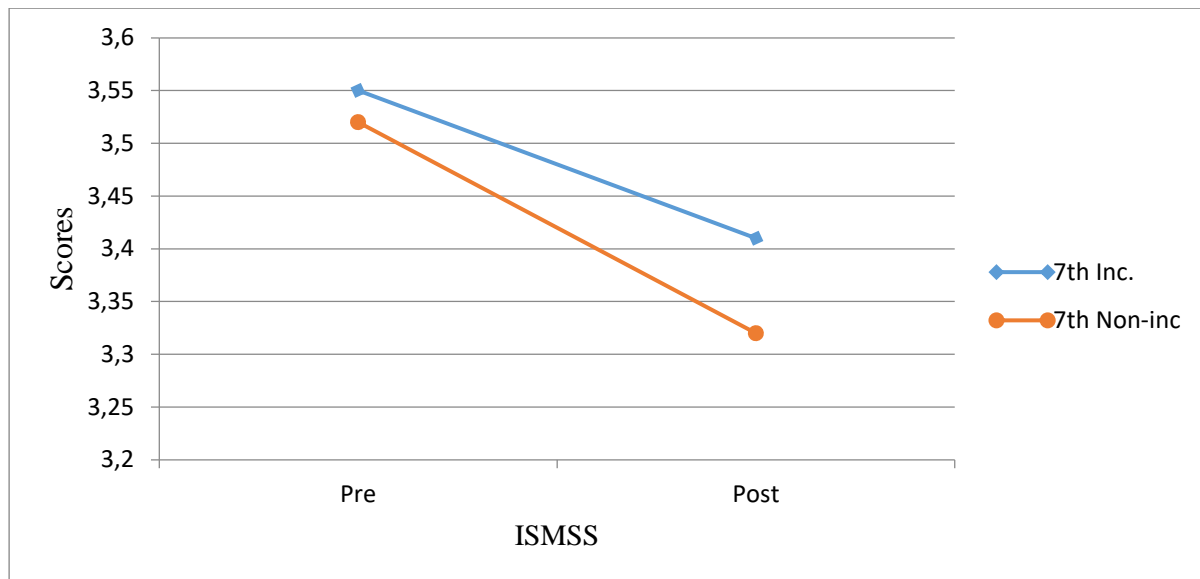
Figure 1. *Comparison in mean scores between students in 6th grade inclusion and 6th grade non-inclusion on ISMSS scores*

The multivariate group analysis tests indicated whether there were any significant changes in means on pre-survey and post-survey tests on attitudes between 6th grade students in inclusion and students in non-inclusion. The results suggested that there was no significant change on pre-survey $F(1, 38) = 1.74$, $M\Delta = .21$, $p = .19$, $\eta^2 = .04$ with observed power of .25 and post-survey tests on attitudes $F(1, 38) = 1.71$, $M\Delta = .20$, $p = .19$, $\eta^2 = .04$ with observed power of .25 between 6th grade students in inclusion and students in non-inclusion.

7th Grade Inclusive and Non-Inclusive Classrooms

The researcher conducted an independent samples t test to show whether there were any significant changes between 7th grade students without disabilities in inclusion and those in non-inclusion about their attitudes towards students with disabilities on pre-survey tests. The Levene's test indicated that equality of variances were not assumed on pre-survey tests on attitudes ($p=.01$) for 7th grade students without disabilities in inclusive science classroom and students without disabilities in non-inclusive science classroom. The Levene's test showed that the variances from different groups were not normally distributed and that we should proceed with caution to analyze further data.

A paired samples t test was conducted to examine significant differences on attitudes (pre-test and post-test) of 7th grade students without disabilities within inclusive and independently for non-inclusive classrooms. The results suggested that there was not a significant difference in the scores of 7th grade students without disabilities within inclusive science classrooms for pre-survey ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .37$) and post-survey ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .56$) conditions, $t(19) = .90$, $p = 0.38$. In addition, the paired samples t test indicated that there was a significant difference in the scores of 7th grade students without disabilities within non-inclusive science classrooms for pre-survey ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .25$) and post-survey ($M = 3.32$, $SD = .33$) conditions, $t(19) = .3.22$, $p = 0.004$. Figure 2 shows the comparison in mean scores between students in 7th grade inclusion and 7th grade non-inclusion on surveys.

Note. ISMSS = The Inclusion Survey for Middle School Students, Pre = Pre-survey, Post = Post-survey, Inc. = Inclusive, Non-inc. = Non-inclusive.
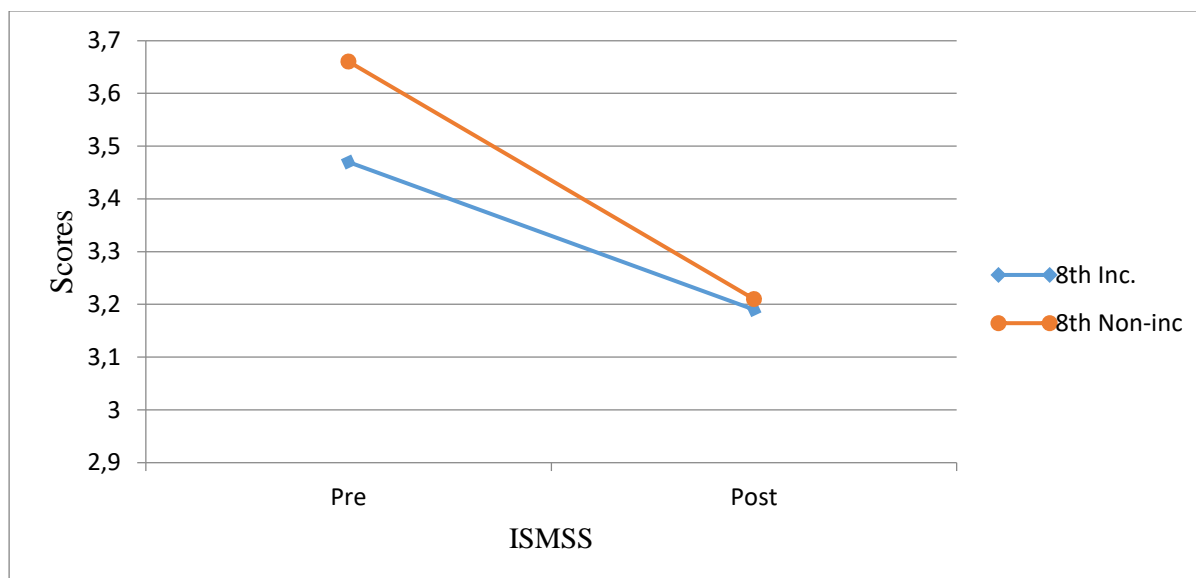
Figure 2. *Comparison in mean scores between students in 7th grade inclusion and 7th grade non-inclusion on ISMSS scores*

The multivariate group analysis tests suggested that there was not a significant change in means on pre-survey test $F(1, 38) = .04$, $M\Delta = .02$, $p = .83$, $\eta^2 = .00$ with observed power of .05 on attitudes between 7th grade students in inclusion and students in non-inclusion. The mean scores on pre-survey test was the lower than post-survey. In addition, there was no significant change in means on post-survey test $F(1, 38) = .42$, $M\Delta = .09$, $p = .52$, $\eta^2 = .01$ with observed power of .09 on attitudes between 7th grade students in inclusion and students in non-inclusion.

8th Grade Inclusive and Non-Inclusive Classrooms.

The independent samples *t* test showed that Levene's test for equality of variances were assumed on pre-survey test scores on attitudes ($p = .35$) for 8th grade students without disabilities in inclusive science classroom and students without disabilities in non-inclusive science classroom. This test showed that the variances from different groups were normally distributed and that we can have confidence in the validity of our *t* test result for pre-survey tests and post-survey tests.

A paired samples *t* test was conducted to examine significant differences on attitudes (pre-test and post-test) of 8th grade students without disabilities within inclusive and independently for non-inclusive classrooms. The results suggested that there was a significant difference in the scores of 8th grade students without disabilities within inclusive science classrooms for pre-survey ($M = 3.47$, $SD = .44$) and post-survey ($M = 3.19$, $SD = .44$) conditions, $t(19) = 6.06$, $p < .001$. In addition, the paired samples *t* test results showed that there was a significant difference in the scores of 8th grade students without disabilities within non-inclusive science classrooms for pre-survey ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .33$) and post-survey ($M = 3.21$, $SD = .54$) conditions, $t(19) = .3.06$, $p = 0.006$. Figure 3 shows the comparison in mean scores between students in 8th grade inclusion and 8th grade non-inclusion on surveys.

Note. ISMSS = The Inclusion Survey for Middle School Students, Pre = Pre-survey, Post = Post-survey, Inc. = Inclusive, Non-inc. = Non-inclusive.

Figure 3. *Comparison in mean scores between students in 8th grade inclusion and 8th grade non-inclusion on ISMSS scores*

The multivariate group analysis tests showed the mean scores on attitudes between 8th grade students without disabilities in inclusion and students without disabilities in non-inclusion on pre-survey and post-survey test. The multivariate group analysis tests indicated that there was no significant difference in mean scores on pre-survey test $F(1, 38) = 2.64$, $M\Delta = .20$, $p = .11$, $\eta^2 = .06$ with observed power of .35 on attitudes of students without disabilities. Results also indicated that there was no significant difference in mean scores on post-survey test $F(1, 38) = .01$, $M\Delta = .02$, $p = .91$. $\eta^2 = .00$ with observed power of .05 on attitudes between students without disabilities in inclusion and those in non-inclusion.

Discussion

This quantitative study focused on the attitudes of students without disabilities towards students with disabilities in the same setting through three research questions. The overall range of mean scores on attitudes for all students in both inclusive science classrooms and those in non-inclusive science classrooms was 3.38 – 3.66 from pre-survey test and 3.19 – 3.42 from post-survey test. Considering a score of 3.00 on attitudes as a neutral point on the Likert scale, all students without disabilities from both inclusive classrooms and non-inclusive classrooms from each grade level demonstrated slightly positive attitudes towards students with learning disabilities on pre-survey test and post-survey test. The researcher/teacher observed that students without disabilities in both classroom settings exhibited social embracing towards students with learning disabilities. This finding supports the study of Kalambouka et al. (2007) on the impact of placing students with special education needs in general education classrooms and their effect on the attitudes of students without disabilities. They found that the effect of students with disabilities on their non-disabled peers was neutral or positive 81% of the time.

With respect to student attitudes, 6th grade students without disabilities in the inclusive science classroom had a lower mean score ($p = .08$) between pre-survey test and post-survey

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test. This result showed that there was a non-significant relationship between the effect of inclusive science education and attitudes of general education students toward students with learning disabilities. In addition, 6th grade students without disabilities in non-inclusive science classroom had a lower mean score ($p = .25$) between the same measures. The researcher/teacher observed that although students without disabilities did not have negative attitudes towards those with learning disabilities regardless of classroom setting, they preferred to establish interactions with students with the same abilities. This finding supports the study of Agne (1999). She found that students without disabilities remained under-challenged, bored, and disengaged when the teacher spend most of his time and effort to provide assistance to students with learning disabilities. The researcher/teacher observed that this may be the reason why students without disabilities did not prefer to work with students with learning disabilities in scientific learning activities.

It was interesting to find that 6th grade students without disabilities in the inclusive science classroom had a higher mean score in attitudes ($p = .19$) on post-survey test compared to those in the 6th grade non-inclusive science classroom. The researcher/teacher observed that although students without disabilities did not establish a meaningful engagement in science lessons, they exhibited positive social interactions with their disabled peers in the inclusive science classroom compared to students without disabilities in non-inclusive science classroom. This supports the findings of Downing and Peckham-Hardin (2007). They found that inclusive education is beneficial for students without disabilities as it improves their attitudes towards students with learning disabilities. Another reason observed by the researcher/teacher was that students without disabilities knew that they had to construct social relationships with their disabled peers as they all had to work together and communicate while in groups conducting experiments in inclusive science classroom. This finding follows the study of Ferguson, Hanreddy, and Draxton (2011). They found that students without disabilities improved their social skills with their disabled peers as they all took part in everyday learning experiences.

Students without disabilities in the 7th grade inclusive science classroom had a lower mean score ($p = .38$) between the pre-survey test and post-survey test. This result showed that there was a non-significant relationship between the effect of inclusive science education and attitudes of general education students toward students with learning disabilities. In addition, 7th grade students without disabilities in the non-inclusive science classroom had a lower mean score ($p = 0.004$) between the same measures. The researcher/teacher observed that students without disabilities preferred to engage in learning activities with their non-disabled peers than their disabled friends regardless of the classroom setting. This finding supports the study of Agne (1999). She found that students without disabilities preferred maintaining more social interactions with their non-disabled friends than those with disabilities in learning via group work.

An interesting finding was that 7th grade students in the inclusive science classroom had a higher mean score on attitudes ($p = .52$) from post-survey test compared to those in the 7th grade non-inclusive science classroom. The researcher/teacher observed that although students without disabilities were less engaged in science learning, they established more friendships with students with learning disabilities than those in non-inclusive science classrooms. This follows the findings of Ferguson et al. (2011). They found that students without disabilities in inclusive settings construct more meaningful relationships with their disabled peers than comparable students in non-inclusive settings.

Analyzing the student attitudes, 8th grade students without disabilities in the inclusive science classroom had a lower mean score ($p < .001$) between the pre-survey test and post-

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survey test. This significant result showed that there was a significantly negative relationship between the effect of inclusive science education and attitudes of general education students toward students with learning disabilities in an inclusive classroom. The researcher/teacher observed that engaging in science learning with disabled students did not positively change the feelings of students without disabilities toward students with learning disabilities in the inclusive classroom. This finding supports the study of Siperstein et al. (2007). They found that although students without disabilities and their non-disabled peers worked together in classroom activities, only 10% of them established friendships in the inclusive classroom. Moreover, they did not want to socially interact outside of their classrooms. In addition, 8th grade students without disabilities in non-inclusive science classroom had a lower mean score ($p = 0.006$) between the same measures. The researcher/teacher observed that non-disabled students' lack of knowledge about their disabled peers might have contributed to their negative feelings towards disabled students. This finding supports the study of Marchant (1990) on useful resources for learning disabled students. He found that lack of knowledge about students with learning disabilities may dictate negative feelings of fellow students toward them.

It was interesting to find that 8th grade students in the inclusive science classroom had a slightly lower mean score on attitudes ($p = .91$) compared to those in the 8th grade non-inclusive science classroom. The researcher/teacher observed that due to classrooms procedures, students without disabilities in the inclusive science classroom had to work and collaborate with students with learning disabilities in classroom activities even though they preferred working with their non-disabled peers. This finding supports the study of Downing, Spencer, and Cavallaro (2004) on the development of an inclusive elementary school. They found that although inclusive education improved the conceptual understanding of students without disabilities, it did not improve their attitudes towards students with learning disabilities.

This study includes several limitations. Consideration must be given to limitations of the study and the impact it may have had on the results. The first limitation involves the lack of random sampling. This limitation was evident as this study was a nonequivalent quasi-experimental study. The failure to randomize in sampling can cause a researcher not to be able to create a true experimental study environment that includes internal validity threats. A second limitation involves a limited number of students with disabilities in the inclusive science classrooms. Increasing the number of students with disabilities in inclusive classrooms might have a positive or a negative effect on the conceptual understanding and attitudes of students without disabilities (Mastropieri et al., 2006). In their study, Downing et al. (2004) found that inclusion of students with disabilities did not improve the attitudes of students without disabilities. However, Ferguson et al. (2011) indicated that it may create positive social relationships among all students. The third limitation includes the reality that the size of the study precludes some generalization regarding the study. The relatively small sample and the fact that the sample was recruited from a single public school limits generalization somewhat, although it was representative of the schools in the Midwestern U.S. The ability to generalize may have been limited further as the sample size was reduced to create greater uniformity between the comparison and sample groups.

Some recommendations for this study the following suggestions: research how using a population of students with moderate or severe disabilities in inclusive classrooms may affect the conceptual understanding and attitudes of students without disabilities; research using a larger sample size to be able to generalize the findings; research using a mixed methodology for more detailed effects of inclusive education; and compare the effect of inclusive education on students without disabilities between elementary and middle levels at public schools.

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In conclusion, the literature review for this scholarly research indicated that students without disabilities and those with disabilities may have a positive or a negative effect on one another's attitudes. However, the overall findings of this study itself indicated that inclusive education had a negative effect on the attitudes of students without disabilities towards their peers with disabilities in public middle school classrooms.

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