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OBJECTIVES

The main objectives of the Journal are:
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- To assemble all who are interested in these fields for an exchange of ideas and experiences;
- To disseminate research findings;
- To provide a database for members and researchers.

The Perceived Levels of Burnout and Job Satisfaction of Qatari General and Special Education Teachers

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Abstract
The purpose of the present study was to examine perceived levels of burnout and job satisfaction of Qatari general and special education teachers. 80 hundred teachers participated in the study. 40 were working in the public schools, 40 in special education school. Participants were administered the Employees Satisfaction Inventory (ESI, Koustelios and Bagiatis, 1997) and the emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach's Burnout Inventory (MBI, Maslach and Jackson, 1986). Results showed that Qarari teachers experienced moderate levels of emotional exhaustion. Public school teachers were more satisfied from the job itself and their immediate supervisor than their counterparts in the Special Education Schools..
***Keywords*:** Burnout, job satisfaction, Qatari , general and special education teachers

Introduction

Most teachers begin their careers excited and genuinely care for their students. However, over time they can lose that feeling. Teaching can be an incredibly fulfilling occupation but at the same time can be very stressful. Teachers interact with students, parents, and coworkers which can lead to stress. Teacher stress is defined by Kyriacou (2001) as "the experience by a teacher of unpleasant emotions, such as tension, frustration, anxiety, anger, and depression, resulting from aspects of work as a teacher." Teacher stress may be perceived as the imbalance between demands at school and the resources teachers have for coping with them (Troman & Woods, 2001). Anxiety and frustration, impaired performance, and ruptured interpersonal relationships at work and home can be symptoms of teacher stress (Kyriacou, 2001). Researchers (Troman and Woods, 2001) note that teachers who experience stress over long periods of time may experience what is known as burnout.

Research in different cultures indicates that school teachers are among those professionals with the highest level of job stress (Stoeber & Rennert, 2008). As a result, many teachers experience burnout, decreased job satisfaction, and choose early retirement (e.g., Cano-Garcia, Padilla-Munoz, & Carrasco-Ortiz, 2005; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006). The causes of stress may include increased workload, students with behavioural problems, problem in the parent–teacher relationship, conflicts in cooperating with colleagues, lack of support from the school leadership, and lack of autonomy (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007).

Satisfied teachers expected to hold their jobs longer, to be able to engage in more responsive, positive and consistent interaction with children, and to influence positively students' performance (Maslach and Leiter, 1999). Thus, it is easy to understand why burnout and job satisfaction among teachers continues to be an enduring research issue. According to Lease (1998) job satisfaction can be viewed as the degree of an employee's affective orientation toward the work role occupied in the organization. Research on teachers' job satisfaction orientation toward the work role occupied in the organization. Research on teachers' job satisfaction suggests that educators are most satisfied from the teaching itself and their supervision and dissatisfied from their salary and promotional opportunities (Dinham and Scott, 2000).

These findings seem to be robust across several different countries and cultural contexts (Koustelios, 2001). As far as early educators are concerned Fenech (2006) reported poor work conditions, low salaries, heavy workloads, unrealistic expectations from managers, low professional status, organizational conflict, and reduced autonomy. Another important aspect of teachers' well-being is experienced levels of burnout. Burnout can be defined as the inability of the employee to function effectively in her/his job and it has been conceived as a syndrome comprising three distinct elements: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2001). It is considered to be the final

step of prolonged and extensive exposure to job related stress. Initially research on burnout focused on human services and education where employees work intensively with other people. However, later on it expanded to a variety of other occupations, such as managers or computer programmers as well as non-occupational areas of life (e.g., athletic sports, political activism) (Maslach, 1999).

In comparison to different occupations, teaching has been characterized as an extremely stressful profession. Numerous studies indicate that teachers, often suffering burnout. Maslach et al. (2001) reported that teachers have the highest level of emotional exhaustion, whereas the other two components are close to average. Burned out educators are unable to deal successfully with the overwhelming emotional stress of teaching (Brouwers and Tomic, 2000). This failure to cope can be manifested from impaired performance, absenteeism or various types of personal problems, and the deleteriously impact on the learning procedure (Manlove, 1993).

Although burnout has been conceptualized as a three dimension syndrome, several authors seem to agree that emotional exhaustion subscale is the essential component of burnout (Koeske and Koeske, 1989; Shirom and Ezrachi, 2003). The other two dimensions, namely depersonalization and diminished personal accomplishment are regarded as different, but theoretically related variables, which accompany emotional exhaustion (Koeske and Koeske, 1989; Shirom and Ezrachi, 2003). Moreover, past research has showed that emotional exhaustion could predict personal accomplishment and depersonalization (Lee and Ashforth, 1993). Based on the above considerations it is not surprising that emotional exhaustion is often used as the central measure of burnout phenomenon (Stremmel et al., 1993).

The existing body of literature on early educators' burnout show ambiguous evidence. It is well established that a consequence of burnout syndrome is turnover (Maslach and Leiter, 1999). Although some authors reported high degree of turnover among child care staff (Boyd and Schneider, 1997; Whitebook et al., 1993), others found low burnout levels (Manlove, 1993; Stremmel et al., 1993). For example, Jorde-Bloom (1986) pointed out that child care work is among the ten-top job categories which have the highest turnover. On the other hand, Stremmel et al. (1993) reported low emotional exhaustion levels for child care centers staff (directors, teachers and assistant teachers) (12.90 – 15.37).

Higher burnout levels were found in a study conducted in Canada among child care providers (20.99 for the emotional exhaustion subscale). Thus, the prevalence of burnout among early education staff might vary across different cultural or educational contexts. Additional studies, especially outside Northern America, are needed to address this issue. Much has been written about teacher burnout and job satisfaction in education.

The vast majority of that literature refers to teachers from elementary, intermediate, and secondary education (e.g., Byrne, 1991, 1994; Koustelios, 2001; Koustelios and Tsigilis, 2005). However, little systematic research has been conducted regarding early educators (Stremmel et al., 1993).

Even more scarce are research activity regarding early childhood professionals working in the Greek educational setting. Early educators have unique characteristics which differentiate them from the other educators.

For example, early educators have to teach indoors as well as outdoors. They are expected to be emotionally available and to expend lot of energy over long periods of time. Moreover, the inherent increased mobility of infants creates organizational problems and demands constant alertness for their safety. Additional research activity may offer an

evaluation of the levels of burnout and job satisfaction as they exist for early educators and provide the bases for future interventions strategies. Various factors such as job characteristics (e.g., work overload, time pressure), occupational characteristics (e.g., various types of work), organizational characteristics (role ambiguity, role conflict), background characteristics (e.g., age, gender), personality characteristics (e.g., locus of control, self-esteem) have been studied in relation to both concepts (e.g., Byrne, 1994; Dinham and Scott, 2000; Koustelios, 2001; Maslach et al. 2001).

For example Byrne (1994) has examined the burnout in a large sample of elementary, intermediate and secondary teachers in relation to organizational and personality factors. Organizational factors included role conflict, role ambiguity, work overload, classroom climate, decision making and social support. Maslach (1999) claimed that job factors are more strongly associated to burnout than personality or back ground characteristics. Indeed, issues related to the characteristics of the work setting are likely to affect how staff fell about their job and whether they experience burnout. An important job factor, which received little attention, is whether teachers are working in the public or private sector. Given the different work characteristics (e.g., organizational culture, social support) of these two sectors it seemed worthwhile to be studied for differences or similarities in relation to either burnout and/or job satisfaction.

The purpose of the present study was to examine the perceived levels of experienced burnout and job satisfaction in a sample of Qatari teachers across two different workplaces, general schools, and special education schools.

Method

Participants

Eghty teachers participated in the study. Their mean age was 38.12 (SD = 8.01) years and they had 12.22 (SD = 6.33) years working experience. 40 were working in the public schools, 40 in special education school.

Instruments

The emotional exhaustion subscale of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach and Jackson, 1986) was used to measure early childhood teachers' levels of burnout. Although burnout is described as a syndrome comprised three distinct components (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) emotional exhaustion has been characterized as its core element (Maslach et al., 2001).

Emotional exhaustion subscale comprises nine items which describe feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted by one's work. Each respondent was requested to indicate the frequency of the feeling represented by each item on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (never) to 6 (every day). Higher values on experienced emotional exhaustion indicate higher degree of burnout.

Employee Satisfaction Inventory (ESI, Koustelios and Bagiatis, 1997). ESI is a multifaceted instrument for assessing six aspects of employees satisfaction: the work itself (4 items, e.g., My job is worth-while), pay (4 items, e.g., Paid for what I do), promotion (3 items, e.g., Good opportunities), supervision (4 items, e.g., My supervisor stands up for me), working conditions (5 items, e.g., Best I ever had), and organization as a whole (4 items, e.g., The organization looks after its employees). Responses are given to 5- point scale anchored by strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1).

Procedure

The ESI and MBI's emotional exhaustion subscale were administered to teachers . The participation in the study was voluntary. Furthermore, the participants were assured that their responses to the questionnaire would be held in strict confidence and they will be used only for academic purposes.

Results

Mean values and standard deviations are presented in Table 1. Independent sample t-test showed significant differences regarding "pay" and "immediate supervisor", favoring general education teachers working in the public schools.

	General Schools	**Especial education schools**	**Overall**	
	M(SD)	M(SD)	M(SD)	n^2
Emotional exhaustion	21.22 (11.0)	22.94 (10.0)	21.88 (10.6)	.006
Working conditions	4.06 (.71)	3.93 (.81	4.01 (.75)	.007
Pay	3.18 (1.13)*	2.23 (1.1)	2.82 (1.21)	.137
Promotion	3.05 (1.15)	3.26 (1.08)	3.13 (1.12)	.010
Job itself	4.47 (.60)	4.33 (.76)	4.42 (.67)	.009
Immediate supervisor	4.34 (.74)*	3.95 (1.02)	4.19 (.88)	.053
Organization as a whole	3.57 (.96)	3.36 (.94)	3.49 (.96)	.008

Note: * $p < .01$

Discussion

This study was primary designed to investigate the perceived levels of burnout and job satisfaction of teachers working with school age children, in the Qatari educational setting. Based on the teachers' norms provided by Maslach and Jackson (1986), teachers experience emotional exhaustion levels seemed to above the average. This finding is in contrast with previous studies conducted among child care staff which reported low levels of burnout. However, Schaufeli and Dierendock (1995) pointed out that one should be extremely cautious when using cut-off points for the classification of burnout levels because these points may vary from country to country due to many social and cultural reasons.

Unfortunately, there has not been yet any systematic research to determine specific cut-off points for Qatari teachers. Therefore, Qatari teachers' levels of emotional exhaustion should be interpreted with caution.

Mean values on job satisfaction indicated that early professionals were most satisfied from the ESI facets "the job itself" and "immediate supervisor" followed by the "working conditions". As was expected, they were dissatisfied from the economic compensation they receive. These results are in line with prior studies from various countries (Dinham and Scott, 2000; Koustelios, 2001; Oshagbemi, 1999) and provide additional support to Koustelios (2001) notion that cultural differences may not be existed when job satisfaction is studied. The above findings are encouraging and show that teachers continue to strive to provide high learning environment and have reasons to remain in the field despite the emotional exhaustion they perceive and their dissatisfaction from their salaries.

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The Effect of Social Information Processing Model Training on Improving Social Behaviour of with Intellectual Disabilities

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Abstract
The purpose of the current study was to explore the effectiveness of a training program based on Dodge's social information processing model on improving social behaviour of children with intellectual disabilities .10 children with intellectual disabilities were chosen .The sample was divided into two groups; experimental (n= 5 boys) and control (n= 5 boys). A Social Skill Rating Scale (SSRS) was developed by the researcher. Results from this study indicated the effectiveness of the program employed in improving social behaviour of children with intellectual disabilities in the experimental group.

Key words: Dodge's social information processing model, social behaviour, children with intellectual disabilities

Introduction

In accordance with the definition of mental retardation, as described by the American Psychological Association (1994) and the American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR), an individual must have impairment in adaptive functioning in addition to subaverage intellectual functioning to meet diagnostic criteria. Social functioning is considered to be a major component of adaptive behavior (Grossman, 1983), and is consequently a common deficit among individuals with mental retardation (Lovett & Harris, 1987). Social behavior/functioning can be conceptualized in several ways; that is, those behaviors that provide individuals with the means to interact effectively with others, to recognize and respond to social cues, to apply appropriate responses to a specific situation, to avoid interpersonal conflicts, and/or to adjust to both simple and complex social situations (Matson & Swiezy, 1994). Individuals who engage in appropriate social behavior can effectively demonstrate and utilize these skills and are able to maintain positive social relationships (Guralnick, 1986).

The social repertoires of children with mental retardation have been found to be limited compared to those of normal children. One of the early findings by Guralnick& Weinhouse (1984)was that children with mental retardation initiate fewer social interactions and demonstrate fewer responses to peers when compared to normal children. Studies of social cognition have found that socially rejected children offered fewer possible behaviors in response to hypothetical stories than did their peers (Pettit, Dodge, &Brown, 1988). Further, Leffert, Siperstein, and Millikan (2000) found that children with mental retardation had difficulty focusing simultaneously on multiple and incongruous social cues, used fewer social strategies to deal with conflict situations, and employed strategies similar to those selected by younger peers without disabilities.

Crick and Dodge (1994) proposed a detailed model of social information processing consisting of six stages. In stage one, children encode social cues by considering both external environmental cues and internal cues drawn from a database of previous experience. In stage two, children interpret the cues by ascribing social intent to the behavior of others and evaluating the outcome of the social exchange for themselves and others.

The third stage consists of the child selecting a goal or desired outcome for the social outcome, followed by the fourth stage in which the child accesses responses from memory or creates new behaviors in response to the social situation. The fifth stage consists of evaluating the anticipated outcomes for each possible response, determining their ability to perform the response, and deciding whether the response is appropriate. The final stage occurs when the child enacts the selected response.

According to Crick and Dodge's (1994) reformulated Social Information-Processing Model, children come to social situations with a set of biologically determined capabilities and a "database" of memories of past experiences. The child selectively attends to particular situational and internal cues and encodes them. The child then interprets the encoded cues using filters, causal analyses, and inferences about others' intent. After the child interprets the situation, he/she selects a goal or desired outcome (i.e., focused arousal state) for the situation. Goals are revised or changed as a result of immediate social stimuli. The next step involves recalling possible responses to the situation from past experiences; however, if the situation is novel, the child may construct new behaviors as a response to the social cues. The child then evaluates all possible responses based on outcome expectations and chooses a behavioral response.(Khalifa, 2014; Mahfouz, 2014).

In their model, Crick and Dodge (1994) hypothesize that there are six sequential processes which lie behind competent performance in any social situation. These six processing "steps" are hypothesized to occur in "real-time", or in other words, occur simultaneously within the context of different kinds of social situations. The six processes or "steps" are 1) encoding of relevant stimulus cues 2) accurate interpretation of those cues 3) goal selection based on an interpretation of the situation as well as memory of past experiences 4) response generation 5) response evaluation and 6) behavioral enactment of a selected response. Consistent with tenets of schema theory and contextualism (though not necessarily drawing from these theories), children are seen as coming into social situations with different sets of past experiences, as well as different mental representations or memories of these experiences. These past experiences, along with prior knowledge, constitute latent mental structures that interact with and influence on-line or "real-time" processing (Crick & Dodge, 1994). To illustrate Crick and Dodge's Social Information Processing model, consider the following scenario taken from Arsenio and Lemerise (2004):

"…Imagine a child trips on a classmate's foot when getting up to sharpen a pencil. The child must figure out what happened ("I tripped on his feet") and why it might have happened ("he tripped me" or "it was an accident"). In the next step of the model, guided by his or her understanding or misunderstanding of the situation and 'latent mental structures' [sic], the child must clarify and select goals for the situation ("I just want to get my work done" or " I'm going to show that kid he can't do this to me"). Then...the child generates possible responses to the situation and evaluates them in terms of his or her self-efficacy and the likely consequences of performing the response. Finally…the child enacts his or her selected response" (p.989).

Although numerous of studies have examined the effectiveness social information processing in other children, little is known about the effect on social behaviour of children with intellectual disabilities. The purpose of the present study was to examine the extent to which social information processing model can be used to improve the social behaviour of ten children with intellectual disabilities. The primary research question was, what effects will social information processing model have on social behaviour of children with intellectual disabilities?

Method

Participants

Participants were ten children between the ages of five and ten who attended a school for children with developmental disabilities (Tarbya Fekrya).All children attended the same classroom within the school. Parental informed consent forms were sent home by the school director and school psychologist to parents of potential participants telling them about the

study and requesting them to give permission for their children to participate. Through a previous comprehensive psychological evaluation each targeted child had received a primary diagnosis of intellectual disabilities.

Measure

Social Skills Rating Scale (SSRS) was developed by the researcher for evaluating the social behaviour of children with intellectual disabilities. The Social Skills rating scale is a 3 point rating scale – Always (2), Sometimes (1) and Never (0). Cumulative model of scoring was used for the scale. There are four domains in the SSRS – they Interaction (12), Initiation (5), Cooperation (8) and Self-management(5). Reliability and Validity of the SSRS was established and the final checklist consisted of 30 items.

Procedure

Social behaviour of each child was measured on *Social Skills Rating Scale (SSRS)*. The assessment was done in an environment familiar to the children and during their usual intervention time. Treatment consisted of social behaviour training using social information processing model. The pretest scores were analyzed to ensure parity among the children.

Each child in the treatment group received 14 teaching sessions. The duration of each session would be from 15 minutes to 20 minutes, depending on child's capacity. While treatment group children received social behaviour training using social information processing model ,the control group continued with usual special classroom interventions. At the completion of the treatment session, children from both groups were tested again on *Social Skills Rating Scale (SSRS).*

Results

Social information processing and development of social behaviour

The first objective of the study was to determine if use of social information processing model would be more effective for the treatment group compared to the control group .For this purpose, the post intervention scores of both treatment and control groups were analyzed. Table 1. shows Z Value results for the differences in post- test mean rank scores between experimental and control groups in Social Skills Rating Scale. The table shows that (Z) values were(-2.435)for interaction ,(-2.631)for initiation, (-2.711)for cooperation,(-2.701)for Self-management and (-2.688)for the composite score. These values are significant at the level (0.01) in the favor of experimental group .

Table 1. *Z Values results for the differences in post- test mean rank scores between experimental and control groups in Social Skills Rating Scale*

Variables	**Groups**	**N**	**Mean Ranks**	**Sum Ranks**	**Mann-whiteny**	**Z Value**	**Sig.**
Interaction	Ex	5	8	40	Zero	-2.435	0.01
	Cont.	5	3	15			
Initiation	Ex	5	8	40	Zero	-2.631	0.01
	Cont.	5	3	15			
cooperation	Ex	5	8	40	Zero	-2.711	0.01
	Cont.	5	3	15			
Self-management	Ex	5	8	40	Zero	-2.701	0.01
	Cont.	5	3	15			
Composite	Ex	5	8	40	Zero	-2.688	0.01
	Cont.	5	3	15			

The second objective of the study was to determine the effect of social information processing model on improving social behaviour in children with intellectual disabilities. The children's performance on social behaviour was measured pre and post intervention. Table 2. shows Z Value results for the differences in post- test mean rank scores between experimental and control groups in *Social Skills Rating Scale*. The table shows that (Z) values were(-2.612)for interaction ,(-2.523)for initiation, (-2.632)for cooperation,(-2.604)for Self-management and (-2.655)for the composite score. These values are significant at the level (0.01) .This indicates that use of social information processing model had a positive effect on improving social behaviour in children with intellectual disabilities.

Table 2. *Z Values results for the comparison of mean rank scores of experimental group at pre- and post intervention in Social Skills Rating Scale*

Variables	**Negative Ranks**		**Positive Ranks**		**Z Value**	**Sig.**
	Mean	**Sum**	**Mean**	**Sum**		
Interaction	3	15	Zero	Zero	-2.612	0.01
Initiation	3	15	Zero	Zero	-2.523	0.01
cooperation	3	15	Zero	Zero	-2.632	0.01
Self-management	3	15	Zero	Zero	-2.604	0.01
Composite	3	15	Zero	Zero	-2.655	0.01

Discussion

The present study evaluated the effects of social information processing model on improving social behaviour in children with intellectual disabilities. The study results showed that the social information processing model was effective in improving interaction ,initiation, cooperation and self-management of all children participated in this study.

My findings contribute to social information processing research in two major ways. First, they reinforce the utility of this approach in identifying the SIP patterns of specified groups such as children with intellectual disabilities.

In that respect, the results speak to concerns that the SIP approach can describe the processing patterns of chronically aggressive children(Mahfouz, 2014) but is not as efficient in describing accurately the SIP patterns of other groups of children. Second, they demonstrate the utility of the multi-step approach to SIP, as concrete differences between the groups could be attributed to different SIP steps.

Furthermore, the children in this study did not receive any type of reinforcement or behavior modification strategies while participating in the sessions. Removing strategies such as prompting techniques, token systems, and other reinforcement systems reduced the potential for confounds within the study. Therefore, one can conclude that the social information processing model was primarily responsible for the change in the social behaviour of children participated in the study.

In summary, social information processing model effectively improved the social behaviour of the children who participated in this study. Overall, results from this study contribute to the social information processing model literature for improving the social behaviour of children with intellectual disabilities. The present study lends empirical support to the notion that children with intellectual disabilities, specifically young children with intellectual disabilities, can be taught and can learn appropriate social behavior.

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Leaky pipeline: Women Lost in the Academic System, Evidence from Turkey[1]

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Abstract
Gender inequalities that exist in a society have an important role to hinder women to utilize their educational rights because they impinge on education. Though education system founded on equality principle, there are confidential messages about women and men are not equal. This kind of messages negatively affects women to take part senior-levels in the academic system. Leaky pipeline metaphor, is described as keeping out of women in the hierarchy of academic system, is specially used for women on their academic career trajectories (Women and Men in Higher Education, 2008).The purpose of this research is to make clear the main factors that prevent female academicians to undertake managerial tasks in Turkey. Qualitative research approach was used in this study. The data were collected using a semi-structured interview consisting of open-ended questions. The participants of this study were five volunteer female-academicians from social sciences departments such as philosophy, sociology, history, geography and educational sciences from Cankiri Karatekin University. The collected data were analysed by using content analysis.According to the anticipated findings of this study are those; there are some indistinguishable factors that prevent the assignment of female-academicians to the managerial tasks such as the roles of women in the society, gender inequalities, and childrearing methods of families. Women are rarely included in the managerial tasks since the norms and values of Turkish society require and demand women to dedicate themselves to their family and children.

Key words*:* Female academicians, Leaky Pipeline, Women in Management, Gender Inequality.

Introduction

Women are subordinated almost in all areas all over the world. Gender-based division of labor, and the hierarchical structures rooted in stereotypes in sharing of tasks and responsibilities are seen as on the basis of gender inequality. Men have acquired in a superior position to women from both social and political aspects. To be precise, they have property control, and as father-figures they have a significant authority over children as well as women. As Sultana (2011) claimed that patriarchy is the main hindrance to women's progression and improvement.

Gender inequalities that exist in a society have an important role to hinder women to utilize their educational rights because they impinge on education. Though education system founded on equality principle, there are confidential messages about women and men are not equal. This kind of messages negatively affects women to take part senior-levels in the academic system.

In education both women and men should be given equal rights and opportunities. This situation ensured initially by the 42nd article of Constitution of Turkish Republic (1982), the Basic Law of National Education (MoNE, 1973) and international agreements such as Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979). In Universal Declaration of Human Rights, it is stated that "everyone has the right to education. Education should be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education should be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit" (Article, 23). Also, in All Forms of Discrimination of Human Rights, it is stated that "States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights

with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women" (Article, 10) and "States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the field of employment in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights" (Article, 11). However, especially in male-controlled societies men are superior to women, and restrict women's human rights to some extent (Sultana, 2011). In the same vein, although women and men have equal rights to education, they do not have equal-opportunities in education while they begin education at the together. Gender differences in adult literacy rates keep on extensive in most of the countries in the world (United Nations, 2010).

The women's participation in the labor force is an important indication of their welfare (Blau, 1999). Specifically, the work of women in married couples plays a crucial role in the prevention of family poverty and determination of the level of family income inequality (Jonung &Persson , 1993; OECD, 1991). Over time, women have been able to enter the male-dominated professions. As a consequence of equity legislation and enhanced access to education and work opportunities, woman workforce has been increasing in the South Africa (Franks, Schurink & Fourie, 2006; Mostert, 2009; Van den Berg & Van Zyl, 2008). Nonetheless, the women are still hardly working in occupations that provide higher status, power, and authority. In view of the total employment, the women are underrepresented in some occupations such as legislators, managers, and trade workers. In the majority of countries in the world misrepresentations and discrimination in the working life limits the representation of women in senior positions and the number of women's initiatives remain at low levels (Elborgh-Woytek, Newiak, Kochhar et al, 2013). On the other hand, they get more space in the service sector. This kind of work discrimination caused insistent gender equity in all places (United Nations, 2010).

Women have been prevented from taking part in top-level positions when they are passing through the managerial pipeline; thus, only five percent of executive positions today are carried out by women (Korn/Ferry International, 1993). In the literature the issue of loss of women in the academic system is metaphorically termed as "leaky pipeline", "glass roof" and "glass ceiling" (Barinaga, 1992; Braddock, 1994; Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations, 1993; Karcioğlu & Leblebici, 2014; Leeman, Boes & Rin, 2009; Phillips & Reisman, 1992; Ragins, 1998). To be precise, while 'glass roof' described as invisible and gender-based obstacles that determine the highest place women reach, 'leaky pipeline' means that women are regularly eliminated in the academic system, during their process of academic improvement from primary education to their decision-maker position (Göğüş Tan, 2011). Ceilings are barriers and this metaphor illustrates how particular individuals and groups are prevented from moving up organizational hierarchies or stepping into prestigious jobs (Ryon, Pollock & Antonelli, 2009). However, leaky pipeline metaphor tries to explain why women are eliminated in the system. According to Ryon, Pollock and Antonelli (2009) this eliminating is random in this process so this metaphor will do little help people understand the situation. Despite that, this metaphor is important to explain the relationship between women roles in the family and duties in academic system.

Under-representation of women in science often relate to the shortage of women 'in the pipeline'. The pipeline flows from one stage to another, and the flow (or 'supply') of girls/women diminishes over the stages (Polkowska, 2013). The gender composition of the science work force is a function of initial differences between young women and men in their possibility of entering ''the pipeline,'' coupled with gender differences in the possibility of dropping out along the way (Alper, 1993).

Leaky pipeline metaphor is described as keeping out of women in the hierarchy of academic system, is specially used for women on their academic career trajectories (Women and Men in Higher Education, 2008). Female administrators give an importance continuous communication with the staff, and they try to inform the personnel about the decisions (Sherman, 2000). In this situation, the problem is not about getting women into the pipeline, rather it is about giving them the "support needed to reach their full potential" once they get there (Knight Higher Education Collaborative, 2001, cited by Frail, 2012). Therefore, there is a crucial need to support women to become willing to have managerial tasks.

Consequently, women participate increasingly in working life as an essential and important part of labor force. As a natural result of this participation, women witness with some problems in their workplaces in working life. Among these are low levels of wage compared to men and less level of chance given to women in the management posts can be named (Bacak, 2010).

Although women have made great steps in many areas such as education, business, policy, and science throughout history, gender inequalities still continue. Specifically, there are one billion illiterate adults in the world, and more than 65 percent of them are women (www.goethe.de/ins/uy/prj/jug/.../3_int_girls.pdf). Like many areas in academic field there is still a gender difference that is vital to be corrected. Therefore, this study is an attempt to investigate women's reduction in the academic field, and to make clear the main factors that prevent female academicians to undertake managerial tasks in Turkey.

Method

Qualitative research approach was used in this study to obtain more detailed data about factors those female academicians to undertake managerial tasks.

Participants

The participants of this study were 4 volunteer female-academicians from social sciences departments such as philosophy, sociology, history, geography and educational sciences from Cankiri Karatekin University in Turkey. The average age of participants was 36. Three of them are married and have children and one of them is single. One of them is associated professor and three of them are assistant professor. Also, two of them were deputy dean.

Data Collection Methods

The data were collected using a semi-structured interview consisting of open-ended questions. In order to collect the data of this study a semi-structured interviews were conducted with a fair-minded outline which permit for attentive, informal, and two-way communication.

Data Analysis Procedure

To analyze data, direct quotations were used. During the analysis, capital letter, "M" is used to indicate married, "S" is used for single and a number and age is used. Also participant information has been kept secret. The general aims of the study were told to the participants. The records of the semi-structured interviews were typed and given to the participants in order to ascertain whether the texts reveal their sense or not.

Findings

According to the findings of this study there are some indistinguishable factors that prevent the assignment of female-academicians to the managerial tasks such as the roles of

women in the society, gender inequalities, and childrearing methods of families. It was seen that marriage and having children are important factors that hinder women to have administrative roles in their work-life.

What are the factors that prevent the assignment of female-academicians to the managerial tasks?

Women are rarely included in the managerial tasks since the norms and values of Turkish society require and demand women to dedicate themselves to their family and children. The following quotation illustrates this finding.

"*I don't have any managerial responsibility now. I was a deputy-dean just before my marriage. I had to give up my duties because my husband wanted to have a child. Although he is also a faculty staff another university, he expects me to disclaim my responsibilities. Because I am a woman…"* (1, 34, M)

"*I was a deputy dean but after I gave up managerial tasks because of marriage and having a child. I can give priority my baby because of being associated professor. Now the priority is baby. Also I'm interested in my home and academic world. After a while I think that they will balance."* (3, 40, M)

The results of this study showed that the participants stated that the roles in family also have an impact on why do not have administrative roles. The results revealed that the common roles of women academicians are*; wife, mother, citizen,* and *child*.

Being an administrator considered an extra-workload for women. If women have administrative role they allow little time their home. When women work as administrators whatever they do seen worthless. That's why the female academicians do not want to become an administrator.

To be a woman and duties

Participants stated that they have lots of problems when they perform their duties and responsibilities due to their gender. The following excerpt exemplifies this finding:

"*There are countless problems. First of all, it is really hard for a woman to excel in the area where men-hegemony is obvious. Second, since you are married your colleagues try to exclude you from the system. They criticize you very often. They blame you to be more family-centered. That is, they said 'you look like a housewife, your family is more important than your job; you don't have any other matter but your child'. Or if you are single they marked you 'spinster, unskilled, picky, or fussy'. Unfortunately, men in the same situation (I mean a single man) do not treat in the same manner*."(1,34, M.)

"Yes, *I have some difficulties. It is necessary to strike a balance between home and job. One of the causes of these problems is to be a woman."(4, 40, M)*

There are some prejudices in the society that are hinder women to have important administrative responsibilities. Some idioms in the society insult the women. One of the participants complains in this issue:

"*There is an understanding in our community; women do not become an administrator, and women have long hair with «short-mind». So the women do not included in the managerial decision making. They should stay in the background.*" (2,34, M).

Discussion and Conclusion

In conclusion, most of the female academicians do not want to have managerial roles and responsibilities due to their social roles and responsibilities of family life. This finding is parallel with the study of Williams and Ceci (2012), they claimed that women prior to motherhood over science.

Similarly, Polkowska (2013) maintained that for women giving a birth and raising a child is more important than their profession. Since the human capital resources are accumulated through the employee's individual choices in the past, the choices (i.e. to give a birth) make women less capable of being promoted in academic area.

Besides, female academicians thought that men do not respect and regard them because of their gender. As said by Çelikten (2004), there is a generally accepted estimation about women preventing the assignment of women to the superior managerial roles. This present study showed that the norms and values of the society necessitate and request women to devote themselves to their family and children.

Likewise, Gerni (2001) claimed that marriage, housework, and children force women interrupt their career. These obligatory interruptions make difficult women to promote managerial positons. In addition, women seen as too sensitive, emotional, and lack leadership skills. As a result, men candidates assigned or promote to the managerial positions (Coleman, 1997). Women may naturally grow as people leaders but require development to make the leap to business leadership just as the men do (Frail, 2012).

According to Brawn (1996) there are two reasons why women do not successful in managerial roles. One is inner factor in the organizations and the other external factor in the organizations. While inner factors in the organization are social structure of society, and gender roles, external factors in the organization are the excessive structural features of organization. These factors decrease women's performance in work force.

The literature asserted that male administrators have more autocratic management style than females. However, this viewpoint cause a common sense about women that they cannot execute big business because they are naive, fragile and tender. In order to overcome this kind of negative view points, females encouraged to have managerial roles. In addition, the social press on women should be getting rid of through education and rising awareness of society.

As said by Gold (1996), in order to be impartial women make decisions with their colleagues. However, this creates negative attitudes towards female administrators. On the other hand, when performing their job females are more objective than males.

According to the research findings of this study are those; there are some indistinguishable factors that prevent the assignment of female-academicians to the managerial tasks such as the roles of women in the society, gender inequalities, and childrearing methods of families. Women are rarely included in the managerial tasks since the norms and values of Turkish society require and demand women to dedicate themselves to their family and children

In order to make unbiased decisions in workplace the women should be supported to get managerial roles. In addition, the self-confidence of women about their ability should be increased by giving them responsibility in managerial issues.

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The Effects of Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy Intervention on Improving Reading Comprehension of Struggling Readers in Primary Five

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Abstract
This study investigated the effect of using Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy on improving reading comprehension of learning disabled students in primary five . A total of 60 students identified with LD participated. The sample was divided into two groups; experimental (n= 30 boys) and control (n= 30 boys). ANCOVA and T .test were employed for data analysis. Findings from this study indicated the effectiveness of Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy on improving reading comprehension in the target students. On the basis of the findings, the study advocated for the effectiveness of Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy on improving reading comprehension in learning disabled students.

Keywords : Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy, reading comprehension disabilities.

Introduction

Reading comprehension is the process of constructing meaning from a text and involves the complex coordination of several processes, including "decoding, word reading, and fluency along with the integration of background knowledge and previous experiences" (Klinger & Geisler, 2008, p. 65). Reading comprehension can be influenced by students' vocabulary knowledge, word recognition skills, understanding of text structure proficiency, and cultural background differences (Klinger & Geisler, 2008; Francis et al., 2006; Mohammed , M. Fatah Allah,2014). Vocabulary knowledge has been shown to be highly related to students' reading comprehension ability (Klinger, et al., 2006). Students who struggle with reading tend to place more focus on the "surface aspects of reading, use fewer comprehension strategies, tap less into background knowledge, and have more limited vocabularies" (Orosco, de Schonewise, de Onis, Klinger, & Hoover, 2008, p. 16).

Struggling readers often "fail to link new information with prior knowledge or monitor their comprehension of what they are reading" (Narkon & Wells, 2010, p. 2). An instructional strategy is "a purposeful activity to engage learners in acquiring new behaviors or knowledge" (Shyyan et al., 2008, p. 148). Many students with learning disabilities are not efficient in learning because they are not aware of their own cognitive processes and do not know how to determine the specific demands of learning tasks. Their lack of knowledge of how and when to use comprehension strategies appropriately, keeps these students from taking full advantage of their own abilities (Klinger & Vaughn, 1996).

Graphic Organizer and reading comprehension research

A graphic organizer can be defined as a visual and graphic display that depicts the relationships between facts, terms, and ideas within a learning task. Graphic organizers are also referred to as knowledge maps, concept maps, story maps, cognitive organizers, advance organizers, or concept diagrams (Strangman, Hall, & Meyer, 2003;Mourad Ali ,2012). Graphic organizers have multiple benefits. These benefits include helping learners grasp the material by assisting in seeing the relationships between ideas, concepts, or authors. Graphic organizers also assist in memory recall. Finally, graphic organizers encourage the use of developing higher-level thinking skills by assisting students to synthesize and integrate information, ideas, and concepts.

Ellis and Howard (2007) stated that graphic organizers are effective across subject areas because they provide visual cues designed to assist students in their understanding of information by organizing information. According to Yin, Vanides, Ruiz-Primo Ayala, and Shavelson (2005), graphic organizers allow students a means of creating connections by visually showing relationships among concepts.

By implementing graphic organizers for pre-reading, reading, and post reading tasks, teachers can enable students to know what information to look for when reading a new text. Studying the graphic organizer before first approaching the text enables students to know what information they should be looking for. According to brain based research, "To comprehend new data, the brain searches through these previously established neural networks to see whether it can find a place to fit the new information" (Westwater & Wolfe, 2000, p 49, 50). "The process of connecting known information to new information takes place through a series of networkable connections known as schema. In schema theory, individuals organize their world knowledge into categories and systems that make retrieval easier" (Pardo, 2004, p. 273). Using graphic organizers as a pre-reading tool enables the reader to link pre-reading information with a reader's existing schema (Kim, Vaughn, Wanzek, & Wei, 2004).

Further research is necessary to build on the vast amount of research into graphic organizers with learning disabled students. This will allow researchers to determine how graphic organizers can be best used as an intervention with learning disabled students as there is a dearth of research with this population. In order to address this issue with the lack of research on graphic organizers with learning disabled students . Thus the present study seeks to give answers to the following questions.

1- Are there differences in post-test scores mean between control and experimental groups on Reading Comprehension Test

2- If the programme is effective in improving reading comprehension 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 referral. Neurological scanning results indicated that those individuals were neurologically deficient (b) an IQ score on the Mental Abilities Test (Mosa, 1989) between 90 and 118 (c) reading performance scores at least 2 years below grade level (d) absence of any other disabling condition. Students were randomly classified into two groups: experimental (n= 30 boys) and control (n= 30 boys), Ashmon Primary school , Menofya.

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

Table 1. *means, standard deviations, t- value , and significance level for experimental and control groups on age (by month),IQ, and reading comprehension (pre-test).*

Variable	Group	N	M	SD	t	Sig.
Age	Experimental	30	132.24	1.96	-.121	Not sig.
	Control	30	132.41	2.01		
IQ	Experimental	30	111.34	4.45	-.221	Not sig.
	Control	30	111.89	4.24		

Reading	Experimental	30	6.82	2.65	-.539	Not sig.
comprehension	Control	30	6.54	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 , IQ , and reading comprehension (pre-test) .

Instrument

Reading Comprehension Test. The test was developed to assess reading disabled children 's skills in reading comprehension . It was based on the features of comprehension skills recognized by Mourad Ali (2005). The test consists of (22) items assessing word recognition , with score ranging from 0-1 on each item and a total score of 22. The test has demonstrated high internal consistency with Cronbach's α ranging from 0.86 to 0.89.

Procedure

Screening: Primary five students who participated met the following established criteria to be included in the study: (a) a diagnosis of LD by teacher's referral. Neurological scanning results indicated that those individuals were neurologically deficient (b) an IQ score on the Mental Abilities Test (Mosa, 1989) between 90 and 118 (c) reading performance scores at least 2 years below grade level (d) absence of any other disabling condition.

Pre-intervention testing : All the sixty students in grade five completed the reading comprehension test which was developed to assess reading disabled children 's skills in reading comprehension.

General Instructional Procedures: Instruction was delivered to after school , in the multipurpose room . Permissions were obtained from students' fathers , and the school principal . Students received 3 training sessions a week , lasting between 40 and 45 min .

Design and Analysis

The effects of implementing Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy Intervention on students' reading comprehension skills were assessed using a repeated-measures design, pre-post- and follow-up testing.

Results

Table 2. shows data on ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in reading comprehension test. The table shows that the (F) value was (128.009) and it was significant value at the level (0.01).

Table 2. ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post-test mean scores between experimental and control groups in comprehension 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 3. shows t-test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in reading comprehension 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 comprehension test in the favor of experimental group .

Table 3. T- test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in comprehension 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 4. shows data on repeated measures analysis for reading comprehension test. The table shows that there are statistical differences between measures (pre- post- follow –up) at the level (0.01).

Table 4 . Repeated measures analysis for comprehension 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 5. shows data on Scheffe test for multi-comparisons in reading comprehension test.The table shows that there are statistical differences between pre and post measures in favor of post test, and between pre and sequential measures in favor of follow -up test, but no statistical differences between post and follow -up test.

Table 5. Scheffe test for multi- comparisons in comprehension test

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

Discussion

The main objective of the present study was to explore the effect of effects of implementing Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy Intervention on students' reading comprehension skills.

The results of this study as revealed in tables 3, 5, show that implementing Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy Intervention was effective in improving reading comprehension 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 Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy, they had statistical increase in reading comprehension.

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 reading comprehension 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 Advance Graphic Organizers Strategy that suits students interests and challenge their abilities with its various modalities .

Implications

The results of this study have several important implications. This study adds to the literature on the effectiveness of graphic organizers with learning disabled students. Results appear to indicate that graphic organizers are an effective instructional strategy for improving reading comprehension test scores of students with learning disabilities. Graphic organizers provide students with a visual representation of the content in a text and this may facilitate the learning of content knowledge.

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The Effectiveness of Picture Exchange Communication System in Improving the Functional Communication Skills of Individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorders

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Abstract
This study explores whether or not effectiveness of Picture Exchange Communication System has positive effects functional communication of children with autism. Participants were ten children between the ages of five and seven who attended a school for children with developmental disabilities (Tarbya Fekrya). A pre-post design was used to examine the effectiveness of the Picture Exchange Communication System on functional communication of the target children. Findings from this study indicated the effectiveness of the Picture Exchange Communication System employed in teaching the target children functional communication. On the basis of the findings, the study advocated for the effectiveness of the Picture Exchange Communication System employed in teaching the target children functional communication.

***Keywords*:** Picture Exchange Communication System, functional communication, Autism.

Introduction

Autism is a developmental disability usually diagnosed in children within the first 3 years of life (Volkmar & Klin, 2005). There is no cure for autism (Schreibman, 2005). Symptoms are grouped into the three broad areas that include communication, social interaction, and restricted patterns of behavior (Tsatsanis, 2005). Treatment to remediate symptoms is frequently delivered as language instruction. Addressing lang- uage growth helps make a significant improvement in the quality of life (Adel Abdulla Mohammed & Mourad Ali Eissa, 2014; Mahfouz,2014).

The essential features of ASD include significant impairments in social interaction and communication skills and a highly restricted area of activities and interests (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). Social interaction problems may be exhibited through an impairment in nonverbal behaviors (e.g., eye to eye gaze, body postures, facial expressions) and/or failure to create developmentally appropriate peer relationships. For example, a child with ASD is less likely to initiate peer-related social interactions or respond to social bids from peers.(Adel Abdulla Mohammed& Amaal Ahmed Mostafa,2012).

In addition to social interaction problems, children with ASD have communication skill deficits. Often, these deficits include a delay in or absence of spoken language (e.g., 40% never obtain speech). Children that do develop speech may have difficulty initiating or sustaining conversations with others. Further, these children may develop stereotyped and repetitive use of language or idiosyncratic language (e.g., repeating nonfunctional phrases over and over). Coinciding with impairments in social interaction and communication, children with ASD may exhibit restricted, repetitive, and stereotyped patterns of behavior, interests, and activities. They often demonstrate a preoccupation with idiosyncratic interests to a level considered abnormal in intensity and focus (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). For example, a child may know every fact about the makes and models of cars and sustain conversations related to this topic for hours, but remain unable to hold conversations about any other topic.

They also may engage in inflexible, nonfunctional rituals and routines such as turning a doorknob over and over in each direction before leaving their home. Although these rituals and routines initially may appear to decrease anxiety, the routines typically impede an individual's ability to socialize and function properly within society (Heflin & Alaimo, 2006).

The picture exchange communication system (PECS) is a pictorial system that was developed for children with social-communication deficits (Frost & Bondy, 2002). The system uses basic behavioral principles and techniques such as shaping, differential

reinforcement, and transfer of stimulus control via delay to teach children functional communication using pictures (black-and-white or color drawings) as the communicative referent. The pictures are kept by the child on a notebook (PECS board) with Velcrot. The child is taught to use his or her PECS board and create a ‘‘sentence’’ by selecting picture cards (e.g., ‘‘I want’’ card plus ‘‘juice’’ card) and delivering the cards to a communicative partner as a request for a desired item. PECS emphasizes teaching a child to initiate requests (for seen and unseen items), respond to questions (e.g., “What do you want?”), and make social comments (e.g., ‘‘I see [object]’’).

Kai-Chien Tien(2008) verified the effectiveness of the Picture Exchange Communication System (PECS) for improving the functional communication skills of individuals with autism spectrum disorders (ASD). The research synthesis was focused on the degree to which variations in PECS training are associated with variations in functional communication outcomes (Dunst, Trivette & Cutspec, 2002). The communication consequences of PECS were examined in 13 studies, which included 125 participants with ASD who had been identified as having limited or no functional communication skills. Claims that PECS is an effective intervention for improving functional communication skills appeared to be supported by the available research evidence.

Using a multiple baseline design, MARJORIE et al. (2002) examined the acquisition of PECS with 3 children with autism. In addition, the study examined the effects of PECS training on the emergence of speech in play and academic settings. Ancillary measures of social-communicative behaviors and problem behaviors were recorded. Results indicated that all 3 children met the learning criterion for PECS and showed concomitant increases in verbal speech. Ancillary gains were associated with increases in social-communicative behaviors and decreases in problem behaviors. The results are discussed in terms of the provision of empirical support for PECS as well as the concomitant positive side effects of its use.

The purpose of the present study was to examine the extent to which Picture Exchange Communication System can be used to enhance the functional communication skills of individuals with autism Spectrum disorders. The primary research question was, what effects will Picture Exchange Communication System have on the functional communication skills of individuals with autism Spectrum disorders.?.

Method

Participants

Participants were ten children between the ages of five and seven who attended a school for children with developmental disabilities(Tarbya Fekrya).All children attended the same classroom within the school. Parental informed consent forms were sent home by the school director and school psychologist to parents of potential participants telling them about the study and requesting them to give permission for their children to participate. Through a previous comprehensive psychological evaluation each targeted child had received a primary diagnosis of Autistic Disorder. All children were also capable of communication using speech assessed through a combination of teacher report and observation. They were so-called high functioning.

Each child also had the following characteristics: (a) meet the full criteria for autism according to The Scale for Screening Autism Disorder(Mohammed, 2003) (b) functional verbal communication, (c) able to read and comprehend words, and (d) ability to follow directions.

Instrument

Functional communication questionnaire. a 20-item teacher-report questionnaire. It is based on the Autism Diagnostic Scale (Adel Abdulla Mohammed, 2003). Respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement using a five point Likert response scale(3 = Always, 2 = Sometimes , 1 = Never). The Cronbach alpha value was high (0.89) indicating excellent internal consistency.

Procedure

Screening: Participants were ten children between the ages of five and seven who attended a school for children with developmental disabilities. Each child also had the following characteristics: (a) meet the full criteria for autism according to The Scale for Screening Autism Disorder(Adel Abdulla Mohammed, 2003) (b) functional verbal communication, (c) able to read and comprehend words, and (d) ability to follow directions.

Pre-intervention testing: Teachers were asked to rate child's functional communication skills on the functional communication questionnaire.

General Instructional Procedures: The PECS training consists of six phases, which will be described in detail in the following. *Phase I–"*How" to Communicate. In this phase, the terminal objective is that upon seeing a "highly preferred" item, the child will pick up a picture of the item, reach toward the communicative partner, and release the picture into the trainer's hand (Frost & Bondy, 2002, pp. 67). One trainer entices the child with an object that is highly desired. As the child reaches for the desired object, the second trainer, the facilitator, physically assists the child in picking up a picture for the desired object. The first trainer immediately gives the child a reward along with an appropriate comment, such as "Oh, you want M&M!" when he/she receives the picture.

Phase II – Distance and Persistence. In this stage, the exchange continues with attempts to increase the child's independence. Thus, the terminal objective is that the child goes to his communication book where his picture is stored, pulls the picture off, goes to the trainer, gets the trainer's attention, and releases he picture into he trainer's hand (Frost & Bondy, 2002, pp. 93).The child now is encouraged to use greater spontaneity and persistence, and to generalize the skill he acquired. The facilitator is still available for as needed assistance. Thus, the child learns to remove the picture from a display board for the exchange and must engage in more physical movement than in Phrase I in order to accomplish the exchange. However, the child is still encountering only one symbol on a board at any one time.

Phase III – Picture Discrimination. The terminal object for this phase is that the child requests desired items by going to a communication book, selecting the appropriate pictures from an array, and going to a communication partner and giving him/her the picture (Frost & Bondy, 2002, pp.123). In this stage the child is asked to discriminate between several items on a board, choosing which item he wants, or which activities he wants to try. The child begins by answering forms of the question "What do you want?" but these are faded quickly so the child will make choices spontaneously as well as in response to a question. As the child becomes more comfortable making discriminations, a third item may be added, and so on.

Phase IV – Sentence Structure. The terminal objective is that the child requests present and non-present items using a multi-word phrase by going to the book, picking up a picture/ symbol of "I want," putting it on a sentence strip, picking out the picture of what she wants, putting it on the sentence strip, removing the strip from the communication board, and finally approaching the communicative partner and giving the sentence strip to him (Frost & Bondy, 2002, pp.159). Thus, the child is taught to combine the object picture with the carrier phrase

"I want" on a sentence strip and to give the strip to the adult or communication partner. The two pictures are attached to a sentence strip and the entire strip is exchanged with the communicative partner in return for the pictured item.

Phase V – Responding to "What do you want?" In this stage the child learns to respond to the question "What do you want?" by exchanging the sentence strip. Thus, this phase extends the sentence structure begun in Phase IV. Use of the questioning phrase is deliberately delayed until this phase because the exchange behavior should be automatic by that point in the programming sequence (Frost & Bondy, 2002, pp. 209). Adjectives and other words may be added to the child's repertoire to help her further refine her requests.

Phase VI – Commenting. In this finial stage, the child learns to respond to the questions "What do you want?" "What do you see?" "What do you have?" This phase makes a fundamental shift in the child's communication as well as the expected outcome from the teachers or peers. That is, it is designed to introduce the child to commenting behavior, while the previous stages focused on requesting behavior. Through the use of pictures for "I see," "I hear," "I smell," etc., the child is taught to comment on elements of his/her environment.

Results

Picture Exchange Communication System and Functional Communication

The first objective of the study was to determine if use of Picture Exchange Communication System would be more effective for the treatment group compared to the control group .For this purpose, the post intervention scores of both treatment and control groups were analyzed. Table 1. shows Z Value result for the differences in post- test mean rank scores between experimental and control groups in functional communication. The table shows that (Z) value was(-2.660).This value is significant at the level (0.01) in the favor of experimental group .

Table 3. *Z Values results for the differences in post- test mean rank scores between experimental and control groups in functional communication*

Variables	**Groups**	**N**	**Mean Ranks**	**Sum Ranks**	**Mann-whiteny**	**Z Value**	**Sig**
Functional communication	Ex	5	8	40	Zero	-2.660	0.01
	Cont.	5	3	15			

The second objective of the study was to determine the effect of Picture Exchange Communication System on functional communication in children with autism. The treatment consisted of functional communication training through use of Picture Exchange Communication System.

The children's performance on verbal communication was measured pre and post intervention. Table 4 shows Z Value result for the differences in pre and post test mean rank scores for the experimental group in functional communication questionnaire.

The table shows that (Z) value was(-2.032). This value is significant at the level (0.01). This indicates that use of Video modeling intervention had a positive effect on verbal communication in children with autism.

Table 4. *Z Values results for the comparison of mean rank scores of experimental group at pre- and post intervention in functional communication*

Variables	**Negative Ranks**		**Positive Ranks**		**Z Value**	**Sig.**
	Mean	Sum	Mean	Sum		
functional communication	3	15	Zero	Zero	-2.032	0.01

Discussion

The present study evaluated the effects of Picture Exchange Communication System on functional communication in children with autism. The study results showed that the Picture Exchange Communication System was effective in increasing functional communication of all children participated in this study.

The implementation of Picture Exchange Communication System seemed to be successful across functional communication and with all participants. These findings concerning change in behaviors and generalization support the results of many previous studies on Picture Exchange Communication System (Charlop-Christy,et al., 2002; Frea, et al., 2001; Ganz, & Simpson, 2004; Heneker, & Page, 2003; Jones,2005).

Findings from the current work also suggest that some children with autism may have highly developed visual skills. Results from this study have provided support for the notion that some children with autism benefit, often quickly, from Picture Exchange Communication System

These findings support the use of PECS by providing the first empirically controlled data on the PECS program. We encourage the evaluation of PECS and the continued pursuit of visually presented speech training programs for children with autism..

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The Perceived Level of Burnout among Physical Education Teachers in Egypt in the Light of Their Age

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Abstract
The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived level of burnout among physical education teachers in Egypt in the light of their age. The sample consisted of 120 physical education teachers from Egypt , Alexandria Governorate. The Maslach Burnout Inventory was used to measure burnout. Results indicated that Egyptian physical education teachers of this sample were experienced low level of burnout. Findings also revealed no statistically significant age differences on the burnout subscales.

Key words: Burnout, physical education teachers, Egypt

Introduction

Physical education and sports teaching is a profession that has some difficulties. Notwithstanding, most physical educators want to be known as people who are well-trained and who implement effective physical education program and value their profession. In order to deserve to be called as mentioned above, teachers should be willing to work a lot in the integrity of planning, implementation and evaluation stages of educational role that they have undertaken. Student discipline problems, student apathy, very crowded classrooms and the support deficiency of other officials, too much homework paper, too much measuring, half-hearted designation, role conflict and role confusion and the public criticism stresses for the teachers lead to burnouts (Filiz Fatma & Yılmaz, 2014).

Burnout disturb the quality of work and services offered by the staff. It may result in leaving a job, absence, and low morale and responsibility. Besides, burnout is associated with fatigue, sleeplessness, diseases, increased drug and alcohol use and familial problems. Also, a high percentage of diseases and emotional strains, stress tolerance and weaknesses relate to burnout. People who suffer from burnout feel exhaustion and fatigue and show cognitive, emotional and behavioral disorders (Mahdiehsadat, et al. , 2012).

Teacher burnout has been described as a syndrome resulting from prolonged teacher stress, characterised by emotional, physical and attitudinal exhaustion (Kyriacou, 2001) .Work conditions like poor career structure and low wages, are among the main factors that contribute to teacher job dissatisfaction and the intention to leave the teaching profession (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe,1979).Teachers who no longer have positive feelings about their students and feel drained are experiencing the second component of teacher burnout, i.e. depersonalisation. Finally, the third aspect of educators' burnout is a feeling of low personal accomplishment from their job, an aspect particularly crucial for teachers (Rentzou, 2013).

Sujith et al., (2014) examined whether physical education teachers working in government/aided sector and private sector of upper primary and secondary schools experience the same burnout levels. One hundred twenty full-time Kerala physical education teachers from government/aided and private (60 each) of upper primary and secondary schools filled in the "educator's" version of Maslach Burnout Inventory.

Analysis of variance showed that physical education teachers working in the upper primary schools reported significantly and meaningfully higher levels on the core burnout dimension, namely emotional exhaustion" in comparison to their colleagues in the secondary schools. Moreover, the strength of association among the three burnout components were more prominent in private sector than in government sector. The results shows that the education level in which physical education teachers working represents an important job characteristic that influences burnout levels and should be taken into consideration when this syndrome is examined, at least within the Kerala educational system.

Mainly, burnout has been associated with the helping professions, such as education, health, and social services. However, as Maslach and Schaufeli pointed out, burnout is not necessarily restricted to the human service professions and might be found in other types of occupations. In the recent years, the concept of burnout has also begun to appear very frequently in the sports context. As a result, a number of models of burnout have been developed by sport scientists, with most important , the cognitive–affective stress model , the negative-training stress response model and the unidimensional identity development and external control model(Koustelios, 2010)

Although the phenomenon of burnout has been the object of much discussion worldwide, research regarding these issues of burnout in sport is limited in Egypt. The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived level of burnout among physical education teachers in Egypt in the light of their age.

Method

Participants

120 physical education teachers from Egypt, Alexandria Governorate participated in the study. Their mean age was 28.12 (SD = 7.22) .

Instrument

The Maslach Burnout Inventory- Educators Survey is a seven-point, Likert-type, self report survey instrument consisting of 22 statements concerning perceptions related to work. Approximately 10-20 minutes is needed to complete the survey (Maslach, 1993). Participants score each statement once for intensity and once for frequency. The frequency ratings of the survey are 0 (never), 1 (a few times a year or less), 2 (once a month or less), 3 (a few times a month), 4 (once a week), 5 (a few times a week), and 6 (everyday). The Maslach Burnout Inventory-Educators Survey has established categories for measuring intensity in each subdomain: (a) low, (b) moderate, and (c) high (Maslach et al., 1996).

Maslach et al. (1996) described the condition of emotional exhaustion as “a tired and fatigued feeling that develops as emotional energies are drained” (p. 27). The emotional exhaustion (EE) subscale measures feelings of emotional exhaustion. The emotional exhaustion subscale is comprised of nine items with a range from 0-54. The range of scores within the emotional exhaustion subscale consists of 0-16 (low), 17-26 (moderate), and 27 or over (high).

Depersonalization is determined to be a state of being in which an individual experienced “indifferent, negative attitude towards students” (Maslach et al., 1986, p. 28). The depersonalization subscale measures an individual’s perceptions of depersonalization. The depersonalization subscale is comprised of five items measuring lack of caring toward students with a range from 0-30. The range of scores within the depersonalization subscale consists of 0- 8 (low), 9-13 (moderate), and 14 or over (high).

Depersonalization is determined to be a state of being in which an individual experienced “indifferent, negative attitude towards students” (Maslach et al., 1986, p. 28). The depersonalization subscale measures an individual’s perceptions of depersonalization. The depersonalization subscale is comprised of five items measuring lack of caring toward students with a range from 0-30. The range of scores within the depersonalization subscale consists of 0- 8 (low), 9-13 (moderate), and 14 or over (high).

Maslach et al. (1986) defined personal accomplishment as “a feeling of competence and successful achievement in one’s work” (Maslach et al., 1986, p. 28). The personal

accomplishment subscale measures feelings regarding individual personal accomplishment. The personal accomplishment subscale is comprised of eight items with a range of 0-48. The range of scores within the personal accomplishment subscale consists of 37 or over (low), 31-36 (moderate), and 0-30 (high).

Procedure

The MBI subscales were administered to teachers.The participation in the study was voluntary. Furthermore, the participants were assured that their responses to the questionnaire would be held in strict confidence and they will be used only for academic purposes.

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the level of burnout experienced by physical education teachers from Egypt , Alexandria Governorate, and age differences on burnout among physical education teachers from Egypt. Means and standards deviations for each for the three subscales (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment) are presented in Table 1.

Table.1 *Means and standards deviations for each for the three subscales (emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment)*

Variables	**Age**					
	23-28		**29-34**		**34- 40**	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Emotional exhaustion	27.08	3.25	27.33	4.62	28.00	3.02
Depersonalization	18.02	2.88	19.00	2.91	18.78	4.22
Personal accomplishment	22.02	1.06	22.55	4.02	21.87	2.15

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceived level of burnout among physical education teachers in Egypt in the light of their age. Results from this study showed physical education teachers in Egypt experienced high levels of burnout, as indicated by the three subscales of the burnout inventory. This is attributed, if partially, to the length of stay in teaching station .It emerged that majority of teachers had been in their stations for three and more years. Facing the same routine and challenges for long was monotonous. Exposure to new work experiences would revitalize the teachers. Among other factors that may lead to teachers burnout student indiscipline and behavioural problems. There was exaggerated freedom for students at schools especially after the Egyptian Revolution. The teachers are not allowed to Physically punish for discipline . This goes in the same line with Kyricicou (2001), who also found out that student indiscipline and behavioural problems were a major cause of teacher burnout among teachers. Perhaps lack of teaching resources causes burnout among teachers. Teachers need enough resources, great support and encouragement for them to perform well.

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The Effectiveness of Time Management Strategies Instruction on Students' Academic Time Management and Academic Self-efficacy

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Abstract
This study investigated the effect of using time management strategies instruction on improving first year learning disabled students' academic time management and academic self efficacy. A total of 60 students identified with LD participated. The sample was divided into two groups; experimental (n= 30 boys) and control (n= 30 boys). ANCOVA and T .test were employed for data analysis. Findings from this study indicated the effectiveness of time management strategies instruction on improving first year learning disabled students' academic time management and academic self efficacy. On the basis of the findings, the study advocated for the effectiveness of time management strategies instruction on improving first year learning disabled students' academic time management and academic self efficacy.

Key words :time management strategies instruction, academic time management, academic self efficacy, learning disabilities .

Introduction

Time management which involves goal setting, prioritization, planning, hesitation and ways of coping with it, studying and learning strategies, note taking, stress management, affects individuals' ability for better use of time and giving sense of affairs control power to them (Orgenstern, 2000). Studies demonstrate that time management skills can be trained .MacCann and et al.(2012)posits that time management may be influenced by cognition (e.g. goal setting and intention) and context (e.g. role of the study environment). This is in line with the call to include individual characteristics and others influence in time management research (Claessens et al, 2007). This is also in line with related empirical findings. For example, high achieving students were found to exhibit more self-regulated learning skills (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990), and with time management in particular (Eilam & Aharon, 2003).

The construct of self-efficacy has been studied to determine issues related to how students learn and how they may or may not accept the shift of taking more responsibility for their learning (Bandura, 1997). Bandura proposes that the ability of people to bring about significant outcomes assists them with being able to predict such outcomes. Bandura has defined self-efficacy as referring to “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments” (1997, p. 3). Bandura situates the construct of self efficacy within the context of social cognitive theory, which is, in turn, based on the notions of triadic reciprocal causation and human agency. In relation to the social cognitive theory of triadic reciprocal causation, Bandura (1986, 1997) posits that personal factors (e.g., attitudes and beliefs), behaviors, and environmental events all influence each other and impact individuals’ capabilities to perform in certain ways.

For example, Marcia believes that she is very intelligent (personal factor) and thus chooses to engage in activities that require intelligence (behavior) such as a trivia or problem solving game. In addition, others playing this game may choose her first to be on their team (environmental factor), thus supporting her belief in her intelligence. Human agency refers to the control one has over influencing behavioral and environmental outcomes.

For example, continuing with Marcia, her agency is evident in her choice to play intelligent games and her choice to believe that being chosen first reflects positively on her intelligence. In addition to investigating the processes through which self-efficacy interacts within one’s cognitive and behavioral capabilities, Schunk and Pajares (2002) articulate sources from which self-efficacy beliefs can be constructed or developed such as familial and peer influences.

Existing time management interventions include training in skills such as goal-setting, scheduling, prioritizing tasks, self-monitoring, problem-solving techniques, delegating, and negotiating, as well as conflict resolution (Bruning & Frew, 1987; Higgins, 1986; Morisano, Hirsh, Peterson, Pihl, & Shore, 2010; Richardson & Rothestein, 2008). Those focused specifically on time management are often centered on setting goals and priorities, the mechanics of time management (e.g., making to-do lists), and/or one's preference for organization (e.g., preference for a well-organized rather than disorganized work day; Claessens et al., 2007). Macan et al. (1990) suggested that time management training should lead to increases in those areas and, in turn, this should lead to increased perceived control of time (Claessens et al., 2007).

Studies (see Green & Skinner, 2005; King et al., 1986; Macan, 1994; Slaven & Totterdell, 1993; Van Eerde, 2003) have concluded also that, after training, participants were likely to engage in time management behaviors more frequently (Claessens et al., 2007). Additionally, variables such as accurately estimating time, time on important tasks, anxiety, and procrastination seem to be positively affected by time management training (Burt & Kemp, 1994; Claessens et al, 2007; Eilam & Aharon, 2003; Francis-Smythe & Robertson, 1999; Karim, et al. , 2013; Van Eerde, 2003). Today the use of time or managing time is a critical issue both for individuals and organizations.

The purpose of this study is to explore the effectiveness of time management strategies instruction on first year learning disabled students' academic time management and academic self efficacy.

Methods

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 divided into two groups; experimental (n= 30 boys) and control (n= 30 boys)

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

Table 1. shows that all t- values did not reach significance level. This indicated that the two groups did not differ in age , IQ , academic time management and academic self efficacy (pre-test) .

Table 1. *means, standard deviations, t- value , and significance level for experimental and control groups on age (by month),IQ, academic time management and academic self efficacy (pre-test).*

Variable	Group	N	M	SD	t	Sig.
Age	Experimental	30	143.66	2.03	-.063	Not sig.
	Control	30	143.70	2.06		
IQ	Experimental	30	111.34	3.32	-.121	Not sig.
	Control	30	111.89	3.24		
academic time management	Experimental	30	26.60	1.49	-1.842	Not sig.
	Control	30	26.33	1.58		
academic self efficacy	Experimental	30	8.80	1.12	-1.673	Not sig.
	Control	30	9.36	1.47		

Instruments

19-item TMQ developed to measure time management practices of prep school students has 3-point Likert scale. Responses under each item consist of always, sometimes, and never. Higher values on the TMQ correspond to better time management practices. Time Management Questionnaire was administered to subjects at classrooms and it took 10 minutes.

8-items Academic Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children (SEQ-C) developed to measure academic self efficacy for students in prep 1 .It has 3-point Likert scale. Responses under each item consist of always, sometimes, and never. Higher values on the Questionnaire correspond to better Academic Self-Efficacy. The Questionnaire was administered to subjects at classrooms and it took 5 minutes.

Procedure

Screening : Prep1 students who participated met the following established criteria to be included in the study: (a) a diagnosis of LD by teacher's referral. Neurological scanning results indicated that those individuals were neurologically deficient (b) an IQ score on the Mental Abilities Test (Mosa, 1989) between 95 and 115 (c) reading performance scores at least 2 years below grade level (d) absence of any other disabling condition.

Pre-intervention testing: All the sixty students in grade five completed the reading comprehension test which was developed to assess reading disabled children 's skills in reading comprehension.

General Instructional Procedures: Instruction was delivered to after school, in the multipurpose room. Permissions were obtained from students' fathers, and the school principal. Students received 1 training session a week, for six weeks, lasting 50 min .

Design and Analysis

The effects of implementing time management strategies instruction on students' academic time management and academic self efficacy were assessed using a repeated-measures design, pre- post- and follow-up testing.

Results

Table 2. shows data on ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in academic time management. The table shows that the (F) value was (1149.034) and it was significant value at the level (0.01).

Table 2. *ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in academic time management*

Source	Type 111 sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Pre	3.882	1	3.882		
Group	4010.564	1	4010.564	1149.034	0.01
Error	198.952	57	3.490		
Total	4386.183	59			

Table 3. shows T. test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups academic time management. The table shows that (t) vale was (43.58). 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 academic time management in the favor of experimental group .

Table 3. *T- test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in comprehension test*

Group	N	Mean	Std. deviation	T	Sig.
Experimental	30	44.56	2.01	43.58	0.01
Control	30	27.86	1.71		

Table 4. shows data on ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in academic self efficacy. The table shows that the (F) value was (1009.780) and it was significant value at the level (0.01).

Table 1. *ANCOVA analysis for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in academic self efficacy*

Source	Type 111 sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Pre	1.782	1	1.782		
Group	1157.092	1	1157.092	1009.780	0.01
Error	65.316	57	1.146		
Total	1280.333	59			

Table 5. shows T. test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups academic self efficacy. The table shows that (t) vale was (32.842). 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 academic self efficacy in the favor of experimental group .

Table 3. *T- test results for the differences in post- test mean scores between experimental and control groups in academic self efficacy*

Group	N	Mean	Std. dev.	t	Sig.
Experimental	30	18.66	.75	32. 842	0.01
Control	30	9.66	1.29		

Discussion

The main objective of the present study was to explore the effect of effects of implementing time management strategies instruction on students' academic time management and academic self efficacy.

The results of this study as revealed in tables 3, 5, show that implementing time management strategies instruction was effective in improving academic time management and academic self efficacy of students in experimental group, compared to the control group whose individuals did not recieve such training in time management.

Results of Bandura et.al studies indicated that individuals with strong feelings of their competence can make better decisions when face with difficulties. Similarly, the efficient and powerful role of self-efficacy believes on cognitive procedures of self-regulation were confirmed in other studies. Findings have indicated that individuals with strong efficient believes use self regulation procedures including monitoring on comprehension and planning, widely (Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Zimmerman et al, 1992).

Other studies and investigations (Terry, 2002) indicated that there is a positive relationship between time management skills and efficient self-regulation. In this regard Dombrowski (2006) indicated that there is a significant relationship among self efficiency, planning, prioritizing goals and a part of self-regulation and time management.

Results obtained from Hajar Naser et al's(2014) investigation indicated that instructions of time management strategies has significant and positive effect on promoting students' self-efficacy. Moreover obtained results revealed that the effects of mentioned instructions in different educational fields were different.

Overall , results showed that time management skill in the experimental group were better than the control group. In other word, the people that were in the experimental group and under intervention, their time management skills were improved than another group (control group).

Implications

The results of this study have several important implications. This study adds to the literature on the effectiveness of time management strategies instruction with learning disabled students. Results appear to indicate that time management strategies instruction is an effective instructional strategy for improving academic time management and academic self efficacy of students with learning disabilities.

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