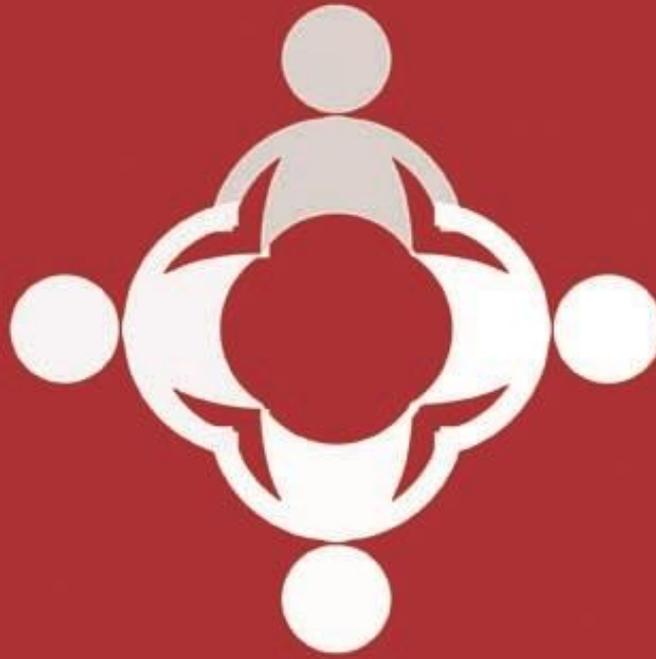# TIJSEG Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counselling

Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counseling

Volume 12 Issue 2

Prof.Dr. M. Engin DENİZ

Editor in Chief

Prof.Dr. Ferda AYSAN
Prof.Dr. Hasan AVCIOĞLU
Prof.Dr. Hakan SARI
Prof.Dr. Nerguz BULUT SERİN

Editors

Message from the Editor

I am very pleased to publish second issue in 2023. As an editor of Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counselling (TIJSEG) this issue is the success of the reviewers, editorial board and the researchers. In this respect, I would like to thank to all reviewers, researchers and the editorial board. The articles should be original, unpublished, and not in consideration for publication elsewhere at the time of submission to Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counselling (TIJSEG), For any suggestions and comments on TIJSEG, please do not hesitate to send mail. The countries of the authors contributed to this issue (in alphabetical order): Albania, Ethiopia, Iran, Nigeria, and Turkey.

Prof.Dr. M. Engin DENİZ
Editor in Chief

PhD. Gönül Kırcaali İftar, (Special Education, Anadolu University, Turkey)
Orcid Id: 0000-0001-7061-4364   Scopus ID: 14919554300   Google Scholar

PhD. Gürcan Seçim, (Guidance & Councelling, Cyprus International University, North Cyprus)
Orcid Id: 0000-0002-9520-5345   Scopus ID: 57168943200   Google Scholar

PhD. İbrahim Halil Diken, (Special Education, Anadolu University, Turkey)
Orcid Id: 0000-0002-5761-2900   Scopus ID: 10243907900   Google Scholar

PhD. Hakan Sarı, (Special Education, Necmettin Erbakan University, Turkey)
Orcid Id: 0000-0003-4528-8936   Scopus ID: 8043728500   Google Scholar

PhD. Hasan Avcıoğlu, (Special Education, Cyprus International University, North Cyprus)
Orcid Id: 0000-0002-3464-2285   Scopus ID: 54974732100   Google Scholar

PhD. Hasan Bacanlı, (Guidance & Councelling, Fatih Sultan Mehmet University, Turkey)
Orcid Id: 0000-0002-2125-0856   Scopus ID: 8544568100   Google Scholar

PhD. Kelechi U. Lazarus, (Special Education, University of Ibadan, Ibadan Nigeria)
Orcid Id: 0000-0001-8347-3206   Scopus ID: Google Scholar

PhD. Mehmet Engin Deniz, (Guidance & Councelling, Yıldız Teknik University, Turkey)
Orcid Id: 0000-0002-7930-3121   Scopus ID: 660217798   Google Scholar

PhD. Melek Kalkan, (Guidance & Councelling, Ondokuz Mayıs University, Turkey)
Orcid Id: 0000-0002-1280-5952   Scopus ID: 24587426500   Google Scholar

PhD. Muhammad Sabil Farooq, (Psychology, Nankai University Tianjin, P.R. China)
Orcid Id: 0000-0001-7034-0172   Scopus ID: 57205442426   Google Scholar

PhD. Muhammad Zaheer Asghar, (Special Education, Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, Barcelona, Spain)
Orcid Id: 0000-0003-2634-0583   Scopus ID: 57208667494   Google Scholar

PhD. Mukaddes Sakallı Demirok, (Special Education, Near East University, North Cyprus)
Orcid Id: 0000-0002-4221-3050   Scopus ID: 26657809300   Google Scholar

PhD. Mustafa Koç, (Guidance & Councelling, Düzce University, Turkey)
Orcid Id: 0000-0002-8644-4109   Scopus ID: 57226161996   Google Scholar

PhD. Müge Akbağ, (Guidance & Councelling, Marmara University, Turkey)
Orcid Id: 0000-0003-0507-9072   Scopus ID: 36026646900   Google Scholar

PhD. Nalan Kazaz, (Guidance & Councelling, AAB University, Kosova)

Orcid Id: 0000-0001-9778-5788   Scopus ID: 57446887200   Google Scholar

PhD. Seher Balcı Çelik, (Guidance & Councelling, Ondokuz Mayıs University, Turkey)

Orcid Id: 0000-0001-9506-6528   Scopus ID: 54892090500   Google Scholar

PhD. Nergüz Bulut Serin, (Guidance & Councelling, European University of Lefke, North Cyprus)

Orcid ID: 0000-0002-2074-3253 Scopus ID: 26656955100   Google Scholar

PhD. Rengin Karaca, (Guidance & Councelling, Dokuz Eylül University, Turkey)

Orcid Id: 0000-0001-5955-0603   Scopus ID: Google Scholar

PhD. Selahattin Avşaroğlu, (Guidance & Councelling, Necmettin Erbakan University, Turkey)

Orcid Id: 0000-0002-0953-2922   Scopus ID: 26424913500   Google Scholar

PhD. Sunay Doğru Yıldırım, (Special Education, Dokuz Eylül University, Turkey)

Orcid Id: 0000-0002-2750-4490   Scopus ID: 57160366600   Google Scholar

PhD. Süleyman Eripek, (Special Education, Okan University, Turkey)

Orcid Id: 0000-0001-9920-4414   Scopus ID: Google Scholar

PhD. Tevhide Kargın, (Special Education, Hasan Kalyoncu University, Turkey)

Orcid Id: 0000-0002-1243-8486   Scopus ID: 7801652354   Google Scholar

PhD. Thanos Touloupis, (Psychology, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece)

Orcid Id: 0000-0003-2951-6919   Scopus ID: 56441555400   Google Scholar

PhD. Uğur Sak, (Special Education, Anadolu University, Turkey)

Orcid Id: 0000-0001-6312-5239   Scopus ID: 15731737400   Google Scholar

PhD. Yaşar Özbay, (Guidance & Councelling, Hasan Kalyoncu University, Turkey)

Orcid Id: 0000-0001-9355-8238   Scopus ID: 16550925000   Google Scholar

Journal Cover Designer

Eser Yıldızlar, (University of Sunderland, England)

Vol 12, No 2 (2023)

Table of Contents

EFFECTIVENESS OF THREE COUNSELLING MODES ON SUICIDAL IDEATION AMONG UNDERGRADUATES IN A NIGERIAN UNIVERSITY

Mayowa A. GBORE
Department of Educational Foundations and Counselling
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun, Nigeria
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0002-3579-8529
alexiusmayowa@gmail.com

Olusegun F. ADEBOWALE
Department of Educational Foundations and Counselling
Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Osun, Nigeria
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3128-075X
oluadefat@oauife.edu.ng

Abstract

The study investigated the prevalence of suicidal ideation among the undergraduates of a Nigerian university. It determined the individual and relative effectiveness of face-to-face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation, and the moderating influences of self-concept and peer relationship. The study adopted a pre-test, post-test experimental control group design and a sample of 1200 undergraduates selected by multi stage sampling. Data were collected using the "Adult Suicidal Ideation Questionnaire" developed by Reynolds (1991) and were analyzed using Kruskal Wallis H-test, Wilcoxon ranked test, ANCOVA and Two-way ANOVA. The results showed that although, all the three counselling modes were found to be effective on suicidal ideation, the blended modes were found to be the most effective (F= 7.511, p<.05). Self-concept had a significant moderating influence on the three counselling modes (F= 8.952, p<.05) while peer relationship did not (F= 3.152, p>.05).

Keywords: Suicidal ideation, counselling modes, effectiveness, face-to-face, blended, online.

INTRODUCTION

Suicide, a multifaceted self-annihilating behaviour, has been established a key global public health concern by the World Health Organization. With a worldwide mortality rate of 16 per 100,000, suicide translates to one death every 40 seconds and results in the death of almost one million people every year (Reddy, 2010). Also, according to World Health Organization (WHO), Nigeria has the 13th highest suicide mortality rate in Africa, of 9.5 per 100,000 above the regional average of 7.4 (WHO, 2018). As a matter of fact, persistent reports about suicide cases among Nigeria youth especially University undergraduate are making the headlines in the dailies. For example, a 500-level Urban and Regional Planning student of Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho hung himself from his ceiling fan while his roommate was out. Another student of Babcock University, Ogun State, who was just 19 years old at the time of his death, committed suicide in his parents' home at Lagos (Ezeobi, 2017). In 2019 alone, reported cases of suicide death was very rampant in national dailies and other modes outfits (Stephen, 2020). Specifically, in Obafemi Awolowo University, over the last four academic sessions, about twenty-one students have reportedly committed suicide. According to the data collected from the Medical and Health services in the university, eight students were said to have committed suicide in the 2015/2016 academic session; four students in 2016/2017; three students in 2017/2018 and six students in 2018/2019. According to Cummings and Cummings (2012), every completed suicide stem from first having the thought, often referred to as suicidal ideation.

Suicidal ideation is when an individual is having the thought of killing himself/herself. Thus, the individual thinks "my family would be better off without me", or "life is worthless", showing thoughts of death, pain and hopelessness through artistic expression, but has not yet formulated a specific plan. People in this stage are vulnerable to suicide. For a person to commit or attempt suicide, the individual must have thought about doing so, planned about the execution and even sometimes, penned down note for family members or loved ones on why they are ending their life; these are suicidal ideation.

There are numerous risk factors related to suicidal ideation, attempts, and completion including depression, overweight, family socio-economic status, loneliness, insufficient social support and connectedness, conduct problems, mental ill-health, parental separation and inadequate parental attachment, adversities during childhood, being attacked and insulted, feeling hopeless and unhappy, impulsivity (Hawton, Saunders, & O'Connor, 2012; Klonsky, May, & Saffer, 2016).

One form of treatment that is often employed in modern times in treating patients with suicidal ideation is Cognitive Behavioural Therapy (CBT) (Kumar et al, 2017). Its goal is to modify pattern of thinking or behaviour that spurs individual's suicidal ideation and also change the way the person feels. Cognitive behavioural therapy can be used via face-to-face counselling, online counselling or blended medium of counselling. The face-to-face counselling is often regarded as the conventional form of counselling. It takes place when a counsellor physically interacts with a client in a private and confidential setting to explore a difficulty or challenge the client may be experiencing. Meanwhile, the online counselling which is sometimes referred to as e-counselling or internet counselling is a relationship whereby a professional counsellor provides counselling services on the internet in form of e-mail, chat, video or even internet phone (Omotehinse & Adebowale, 2020). Moreover, the combination of face-to-face counselling and online counselling gives rise to blended counselling. This often involves the physical presence of both the counsellor and the client, and also communication via online.

Despite the availability of the traditional face-to-face counselling services in many institutions, usage of mental health services among university students appears to be relatively low. For example, Okunaiya and Omovre (2021) found that there was low utilization of face-to-face counselling services among undergraduates in Nigeria universities. It should be noted that there could be many reasons why individuals might not want to seek traditional face-to-face counselling (Gilat, Tobin, & Shahar, 2011). For instance, some people are generally not comfortable with self-disclosure (Haroz *et al* 2017). It is unclear if protecting the victim's identity through online or blended counselling modes may improve the patronage of counselling services for suicidal ideation and self-disclosure.

The present study was conducted to investigate the prevalence of suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria and also to examine the individual and relative effectiveness of three counselling modes on suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students.

Research Questions
1. What is the prevalence of suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students of Obafemi Awolowo University?
2. What is the individual and relative effectiveness of face to face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students?
3. What are the moderating influences of socio-personal factors (self-concept and peer relationship) on face to face, online and blended modes of counselling?

METHOD

This study used a pre-test – post-test experimental control group design - a type of experimental design where the participants are randomly allocated to experimental groups and a control group with the experimental groups being exposed to a treatment whereas the control group is not (Dimitrov & Rumrill, 2003). The experimental group consisted of groups A, B, and C which were exposed to face-to-face,

online and blended counselling respectively while the control group D received no counselling. The population consists of all the 35,386 undergraduates during the 2018/2019 academic session. The sample comprised 1200 students selected through multi-stage sampling. For the first part, 150 undergraduates were selected by stratified random sampling from each of the eight undergraduate hostels on campus (blocks of hostels served as the strata). In other words, a total of 600 undergraduates were randomly selected from each of the female and male hostels, making up the 1200 respondents. Secondly, twenty students that scored high on suicidal were purposively selected to form the final part of the data collection.

The instrument for the study comprised four sections. Section A sought the demographic information of the respondents such as faculty, age, level, sex, etc. Section B contained 20 items on self-report suicidal ideation adapted from Adult Suicidal Ideation Questionnaire (Reynolds, 1991) and rated on a four-point Likert response scale. It was used as a pre-test in order to select those that fostered high level of suicidal ideation and again administered onto the respondents after treatment. Responses to each item on the Suicidal Ideation Scale range from Always to Never and were scored 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. In line with the procedure adopted by the developer of the original instrument, a total score was obtained across all items in the set, and those who scored 40 or less were said to exhibit low level of suicidal ideation, respondents that scored 41 to 55 were said to exhibit moderate level of suicidal ideation, while respondents who scored above 55 were adjudged to exhibit high level of suicidal ideation.

For online counselling, each participant was able to access the university's online counselling website via the link, www.onlinecounsellors.oauife.edu.ng on their e-portal page. For the Face-to-face Counselling, the face-to-face counselling sessions took place inside the counselling laboratory at the Department of Educational Foundations and Counselling and lasted for a period of six weeks. For treatment through blended counselling, Counselling sessions were held via online and face-to-face for six weeks.

The control group comprised five participants. They were only subjected to placebo treatment. The researcher re-administered the questionnaire to the participants so as compare the result with the experimental groups in a bid to find out the effectiveness of cognitive behavioural therapy on the experimental groups. However, after the retrieving the questionnaires from the participants, there were few interactions. Data from the treatments were collected and analyzed using quantitative approaches such as Kruskal-Wallis H test, Wilcoxon ranked test, ANCOVA and Two-way ANOVA.

FINDINGS

Research Question 1: What is the prevalence of suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students?

To answer this question, the students' responses to Section B of the questionnaire on suicidal ideation were scored as described earlier. The resulting scores obtained from individual items were summed together and made to represent respondents' measure on suicidal ideation. On the scale, the minimum and maximum scores were 20 and 79 respectively, the mean value was 26.39, while the standard deviation was 10.27. On the scale, those who scored between 40 or less were said to exhibit low level of suicidal ideation, students who scored between 41 and 55 were said to exhibit moderate level of suicidal ideation, while students who scored above 55 were said to exhibit high level of suicidal ideation. These levels of suicidal ideation were subjected to descriptive analysis and the result is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Level of suicidal ideation among undergraduates of Obafemi Awolowo University

Suicidal Ideation	Frequency	Percent
Low	937	89.6
Moderate	75	7.2
High	34	3.3
Total	1046	100.0

Table 1 presents the level of suicidal ideation among undergraduates under study. From the table, majority of the respondents (89.6%) demonstrated low level of suicidal ideation, 7.2% of the respondents demonstrated a moderate level of suicidal ideation, while only 3.3% of the respondents demonstrated high level of suicidal ideation.

To further this study, students who demonstrated high levels of suicidal ideation were contacted and invited for experiment using the three counselling modes (Face-to-Face, Online and Blended counselling modes). Each of the counselling modes served as separate experimental group, while there was also the control group. In all, only twenty (20) students responded and showed willingness in participating in the experiments. Thus, research questions two and three were based on the data collected before (pre-test) and after the experiment (post-test).

Research Question 2: What is the individual and relative effectiveness of face to face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students?

To answer this question, three approaches were adopted. In the first approach, differences are sought in pre-test scores of the three groups to determine the effectiveness of the participants' assignment into experimental groupings. These were subjected to Kruskal-Wallis H-Test and the result is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Differences in the pre-test scores of the students assigned to the three counselling modes

Counselling Modes	N	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
FTF	5	9.70			
Online	5	4.70	4.107	2	.128
Blended	5	9.60			
Total	15				

*p<.05

Table 2 presented the difference in the pre-test scores of the respondents assigned to the three counselling modes (face-to-face, online and blended). The result showed that there was no significant difference in the pre-test scores of the groups as the p value is greater than .05 thresholds. Any difference observed in their mean ranked can be attributed to sampling error or mere chance. Thus, the selection of participants into groups cannot be said to be biased.

In the second approach, the individual effectiveness of each of the therapy was explored. To achieve this, the respondents' scores obtained in Section B of the questionnaire were subjected to Wilcoxon Ranked Test. That is, the individual effectiveness of face to face, online and blended counselling modes on suicide, measures before the experiment (pre-test) and measures after the experiment (post-test) were subjected to Paired Sample T-test. The result is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Individual effectiveness of face-to-face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students

Counselling Modes	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Z	Sig. (2-tailed)
Face-to-Face					
Pre-Test	50.8000	5	5.97495	-2.032[b]	.042*
Post-Test	25.2000	5	25.2000		
Online					
Pre-Test	43.2000	5	5.67450	-2.032[b]	.042*
Post-Test	26.0000	5	4.30116		
Blended					
Pre-Test	51.6000	5	9.34345	-2.023[b]	.043*
Post-Test	24.6000	5	4.97996		
Control					
Pre-Test	55.6000	5	6.26897	-1.732	.083
Post-Test	55.5400	5	6.23643		

*p<.05

Table 3 showed the individual effectiveness of face to face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students. The table also presented the relative effectiveness of the pretest and posttest for the control group. From the table, the three counselling modes were found to be effective on suicide ideation as the p values for the three modes were less than .05 significant level. For face-to-face counselling, results showed the mean for pre-test (50.8000) and post-test (25.2000), and p value <.05. This means that respondents were less at risk of having suicidal ideation after being exposed to face-to-face counselling medium. Also, for online counselling method, results showed the mean for pre-test (43.2000) and post-test (26.0000), and p value <.05. This implies that those exposed to online counselling became less prone to suicidal ideation after the experiment. The table showed the result for those exposed to blended counselling medium. The table showed the mean for pre-test (51.6000) and post-test (24.6000), and p value <.05. This also means that those exposed to blended counselling medium were less predisposed to suicidal ideation after the experiment than they were before the experiment. However, those in the control group had no improvement in suicidal ideation as the p value is greater than .05, confirmed by the little or no differences observable in the mean scores of their pretest (55.6000) and posttest (55.5400). Thus, it can be concluded that the three counselling modes had individual effectiveness in treating suicidal ideation.

In the third approach, the relative effectiveness of the counselling modes was explored, and to achieve this, the post-test data were subjected to Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) using the three counselling modes with control group as the differentiating variable and the pretest score as the covariate. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Relative effectiveness of face to face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	5506.200[a]	4	1376.550	29.426	.000*	.771
Intercept	20391.840	1	20391.840	435.909	.000*	.926
Treatment	4452.100	1	4452.100	95.171	.000*	.731
Counselling Modes	1054.100	3	351.367	7.511	.001*	.392
Error	1637.300	35	46.780			
Total	70346.000	40				
Corrected Total	7143.500	39				

*p<.05, a. R Squared = .771 (Adjusted R Squared = .745)

Table 4 showed the relative effectiveness of face to face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students. The result showed that F=7.511, p<.05 for counselling modes. This implies that there is a significant relative effectiveness of the three modes of counselling on suicidal ideation. Also, the result showed the R-squared value to be .771 but the Adjusted R-square value was at .745. This can be interpreted to mean that although, the three counselling modes can account for a maximum of 77.1% and a realistic value of 74.5% of the variance observed in respondents' suicidal ideation. Furthermore, to determine the position of the significance, a Pairwise Comparison analysis was then carried out on the three counselling modes. Result was presented in Table 5.

Table 5 revealed that there was a significant difference between students exposed to face-to-face, online and blended counselling modes as opposed to those in the control group (p<.05). It was also revealed that those exposed to face-to-face counselling medium had lesser suicidal ideation than those in control group with a mean difference of 10.300 (p<.05).

Table 5. Pairwise comparison of relative effectiveness of face to face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation

(I) Modes	(J) Modes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b]	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	FTF	10.300*	3.059	.002	4.090	16.510
	Online	13.700*	3.059	.000	7.490	19.910
	Blended	10.200*	3.059	.002	3.990	16.410
FTF	Control	-10.300*	3.059	.002	-16.510	-4.090
	Online	3.400	3.059	.274	-2.810	9.610
	Blended	-.100	3.059	.974	-6.310	6.110
Online	Control	-13.700*	3.059	.000	-19.910	-7.490
	FTF	-3.400	3.059	.274	-9.610	2.810
	Blended	-3.500	3.059	.260	-9.710	2.710
Blended	Control	-10.200*	3.059	.002	-16.410	-3.990
	FTF	.100	3.059	.974	-6.110	6.310
	Online	3.500	3.059	.260	-2.710	9.710

*The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

It was also revealed that those exposed to online counselling had lesser suicidal ideation than those in control group with a mean difference of 13.700 ($p<.05$). While those exposed to blended counselling medium also had lesser suicidal ideation than those in control group with a mean difference of 10.200 ($p<.05$). This shows that there was a significant relative effectiveness of face to face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students, with those exposed to online counselling performing better (Mean=13.700) in comparison to the control group, than those exposed to face-to-face counselling (Mean=10.300) and blended counselling (Mean=10.200). However, none of the three counselling modes was found to be better than another as the p values for their comparisons were greater than .05 threshold.

Research Question 3: What are the moderating influences of socio-personal factors (self-concept and peer relationship) on face to face, online and blended modes of counselling?

To answer this question, the moderating influences of self-concept and peer relationship were treated separately. Firstly, responses of the respondents to Section C of the questionnaire measuring self-concept were scored in such a way that Strongly Disagree was allotted 4, Agree was allotted 3, Disagree was allotted 2 and Strongly Disagree was allotted 1. These scoring procedures were reversed for negative items like items 2, 3, 4, 12, 14, 16, 17, and 18. These were summed up to represent respondents' measure on self-concept. To answer the research question, the measures on suicidal ideation, self-concept and the three counselling modes were subjected to Two Way ANOVA. The results were presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Moderating influence of socio-personal factor (self-concept) on face to face, online and blended modes of counselling

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1479.700[a]	14	105.693	16.777	.003*
Intercept	12991.043	1	12991.043	2062.070	.000*
Counselling Modes	356.657	3	118.886	18.871	.004*
Self-Concept	377.300	8	47.162	7.486	.020*
Counselling Modes * Self-Concept	169.200	3	56.400	8.952	.019*
Error	31.500	5	6.300		
Total	18564.000	20			
Corrected Total	1511.200	19			

*$p<.05$, a. R Squared = .979 (Adjusted R Squared = .921)

Table 6 presented the test of the moderating influence of self-concept on face to face, online and blended counselling modes. It can be seen from the table that the F-value obtained for the moderation was 8.952 at p-value of .019. Since the p-value is less than .05 threshold, the moderating effect can be said to be significant, that is, self-concept has significant moderating influence on the three counselling modes. Also, it can be observed that the R-squared value rose to .979 but the Adjusted R-squared value was depressed to .921. This can be interpreted to mean that, the moderation of self-concept can account for a maximum of 97.9% and a realistic value of 92.1% of the variance observed in the three counselling modes. In order to determine the position of the significance, a Multiple Comparison analysis was then carried out on the moderating influence of self-concept on the three counselling modes and the result was presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Multiple comparison of the moderating influence of self-concept on face to face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation

(I) Modes	(J) Modes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference[b] Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	FTF	15.8000*	1.58745	.001	9.9424	21.6576
	Online	15.0000*	1.58745	.001	9.1424	20.8576
	Blended	16.4000*	1.58745	.001	10.5424	22.2576
FTF	Control	-15.8000*	1.58745	.001	-21.6576	-9.9424
	Online	-.8000	1.58745	.955	-6.6576	5.0576
	Blended	.6000	1.58745	.980	-5.2576	6.4576
Online	Control	-15.0000*	1.58745	.001	-20.8576	-9.1424
	FTF	.8000	1.58745	.955	-5.0576	6.6576
	Blended	1.4000	1.58745	.815	-4.4576	7.2576
Blended	Control	-16.4000*	1.58745	.001	-22.2576	-10.5424
	FTF	-.6000	1.58745	.980	-6.4576	5.2576
	Online	-1.4000	1.58745	.815	-7.2576	4.4576

Based on observed means.
The error term is Mean Square (Error) = 6.300.
* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 7 revealed that there was a significant difference in the moderating influence of self-concept of students exposed to face-to-face, online and blended counselling modes as opposed to those in the control group (p<.05). It was also revealed that those exposed to face-to-face counselling medium had lesser suicidal ideation than those in control group with a mean difference of 15.8000 (p<.05). It was also revealed that those exposed to online counselling had lesser suicidal ideation than those in control group with a mean difference of 15.0000 (p<.05). While those exposed to blended counselling medium also had lesser suicidal ideation than those in control group with a mean difference of 16.4000 (p<.05). This shows that there was a significant moderating influence of face to face, online and blended modes of counselling on suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students. Also, it could be seen from the result that those exposed to blended counselling showed better self-concept (Mean=16.4000) in comparison to the control group, than those exposed to face-to-face counselling (Mean=15.8000) and online counselling (Mean=15.0000). However, none of the three counselling modes was found to be better than another in regards to students' self-concept as the p values for their comparisons were greater than .05 threshold.

Secondly, responses of the respondents to Section D of the questionnaire measuring peer relationship were scored in such a way that Never was allotted 1, Sometimes was allotted 2, Once or Twice a Month was allotted 3, Once a Week was allotted 4, Several Times a Week was allotted 5 and Every day was allotted 6. These were summed up to represent respondents' measure on peer relationship, after which, the measures on suicidal ideation, peer relationship and the three counselling modes were subjected to Two-Way ANOVA. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Moderating influence of socio-personal factor (peer relationship) on face to face, online and blended modes of counselling

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1480.450[a]	16	92.528	9.027	.047*
Intercept	15576.252	1	15576.252	1519.634	.000*
Modes	336.500	2	168.250	16.415	.024*
Peer Relationship Counselling	511.250	12	42.604	4.157	.134
Modes * Peer Relationship	36.000	1	36.000	3.512	.158
Error	30.750	3	10.250		
Total	18564.000	20			
Corrected Total	1511.200	19			

*p<.05, a. R Squared = .980 (Adjusted R Squared = .871)

Table 8 presents the test of the moderating influence of peer relationship on face to face, online and blended counselling modes. It can be seen from the table that the F-value obtained for the moderation was 3.512 at p-value of .158. Since the p-value is in excess of .05, the moderating effect cannot be said to be significant, that is, peer relationship has no significant moderating influence on the three counselling modes. It can be observed that although the R-square value rose to .980 but the Adjusted R-square value was depressed to .871. This can be interpreted to mean that although, the moderation of peer relationship can account for a maximum of 98.0% and a realistic value of 87.1% of the variance observed in the three counselling modes. This cannot be attributed directly to the moderation of peer relationship on the counselling modes. It may be due to sampling error or mere chance.

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION and RECOMMENDATIONS

Research question one investigated the prevalence of suicidal ideation among the undergraduate students of Obafemi Awolowo University. The result showed that suicidal ideation among the students was low, as 89.6% of the students, who form the majority had low level of suicidal ideation. This result is consistent with the one conducted among Malaysian undergraduates by Choi, Shminan, Barawi, Khan, Rathakrishnan and Choi (2021). Also, the findings of Mamun, Rayhan, Akter and Griffiths (2020) conducted among undergraduates in Bangladesh supported the findings of this current study. However, some other researches were found to negate this current study. For instance, Akram, *et al* (2020) in a UK University, revealed that majority of the students exhibited high level of suicide ideation. Also, in another study Ram, Chaudhury and Jagtap (2018) among university students in India, showed that the level of suicidal ideation was high. The dichotomies among these studies could be due to diverse reasons. However, prominent among them could be the differences in the measuring scale and level of measurements among these diverse studies. Geographical differences may also account for some of these differences. More specifically, the low level of suicidal ideation among students of Obafemi Awolowo University may be tied with the high level of religiosity among the students of the institution who are known for high level of religiosity (Abati & Elesemoyo 2019), whereas, religiosity have been found to predict lower depression and suicide level (Lester, 2017; Tettey, 2014).

Results further showed the effectiveness of these counselling modes on suicidal ideation both on the individual and relative levels. On an individual level, the three counselling modes were found to be effective in the treatment of suicidal ideation among the students. For instance, those exposed to face-to-face counselling were found to exhibit less suicidal ideation when compared to their initial stage before the counselling. Also, those exposed to online counselling were found to exhibit less suicide ideation when compared with their entry level. This was also same for those exposed to blended counselling medium. However, when the entry level of the control group was compared with their suicidal ideation level after experiment, there was no significant difference in their suicidal ideation. Also, in the relative effectiveness of the counselling modes, results revealed that those exposed to face-to-face, online and blended counselling modes had lesser suicidal ideation than those in control group,

while none of the three counselling modes was found to be better than another as the p values for their comparisons were greater than .05 threshold. Many past researches are in line with the findings of this current study. For instance, Méndez-Bustos, Calati, Rubio-Ramírez, Olié, Courtet and Lopez-Castroman (2019) found that face-to-face CBT was significant in reducing suicidal ideation and attempt. Flynn, Kells, Joyce, Corcoran, Gillespie and Suarez (2017) also found a significant reduction in suicidal ideation as a result of the face-to-face psychotherapy. Studies suggesting face-to-face counselling ineffectiveness were not found. In addition, many studies and experiments with regard to online counselling and suicidal ideation were found to be significant. For instance, Van Spijker, van Straten and Kerkhof (2014) revealed that online counselling significantly reduced suicidal ideation among their respondents. Also, Greidanus and Everall (2010) study among adolescents using online counselling medium, showed that online counselling significantly reduces suicidal ideation and attempt among the respondents. Also, Mokkenstorm, Eikelenboom, Huisman, Wiebenga, Gilissen, Kerkhof and Smit (2016) conducted a study on the effectiveness of online suicide prevention among adolescents, the result showed that most participants in the online platforms showed significant reduction in suicidal ideations and attempts after interactions online. Also, most past studies on the effectiveness of blended counselling mode in treating suicidal ideation and attempt were in support of this present study. For instance, the findings of Seith (2013) among patients with depression and suicidal ideation using blended counselling approach found the approach to be significantly effective in reducing depression and suicide. Also, the findings of Rasing, *et al* (2021) among adolescents experiencing suicidal thoughts, depression etc. found that blended counselling approach led to significant reduction of depression among the respondents. Many other studies supported this claim (Lokkerbol, Geomini, Van Voorthuijsen, Van Straten, Tiemens, Smit, & Hiligsmann, 2018; Kobak, Mundt, & Kennard, 2015)

Results also showed the moderating influence of students' self-concept on the three counselling modes. Result showed that self-concept has significant moderating influence on the three counselling modes, implying that students' self-concept moderate on their level of suicidal ideation in the counselling relationships. Results further revealed that the moderating effects of self-concept on the students exposed to face-to-face, online and blended counselling modes were better than those in control group. This finding is supported by that of Brooks, Madubata, Jewell, Ortiz, and Walker (2021) which was conducted among young adults experiencing suicidal ideation. Participants' self-concept was found to moderate suicidal ideation among the respondents, with those possessing high self-concept reporting lower suicidal ideation level, while those with low self-concept reported high suicidal ideation. Also, in a study conducted by O'Neill (2017), respondents' concept of self was found to significantly moderate on their suicidal ideation. The study found that those with negative concept of themselves had higher risk to suicidal ideation, while respondents who had positive self-concept had lower suicidal ideation after counselling and experiment. Other findings have also been found to support the findings of this current study (Dat, Mitsui, Asakura, Watanabe, Takanobu, Fujii, Toyoshima, Kako & Kusumi, 2021; Teismann & Brailovskaia, 2019). However, the findings of Au, Lau and Lee (2009) conducted among adolescents negate this finding as the moderating effect of self-concept in the treatment of suicidal ideation and other depressive symptoms were found to be less obvious. Plausible reason while students' self-concept moderated on the counselling modes in treating suicide may be due to the fact that self-concept of individuals is developed during counselling, even if the counselling is not directly channeled towards building clients' self-concept and for a successful counselling relationship to be built, the self-concept of the clients must be built and positive (Barongo & Nyamwange, 2013).

Results finally revealed the moderating influence of peer relationship on face-to-face, online and blended modes of counselling. The results revealed that students' peer-relationship had no significant moderating influence on the three counselling modes. This is consistent with the findings of Lloyd (2014) who in her research found that peer relationship in terms of co-rumination had not moderating effects on suicidal ideation and depressive symptoms among adolescents. However, several other findings also negate this finding. For instance, researches conducted have found peer relationship to have significant moderating effects on suicidal ideation (Cui, Cheng, Xu, Chen & Wang, 2010; Heilbron

& Prinstein, 2010). Reason for this result may be due to the fact that the concept of peer relationship may not really have significant impact on clients' relationships in counselling and psychotherapy sessions. This is because the experiment and counselling sessions in this present study were done on a personal and individual basis. Thus, their interactions with peers may not really factor in, in their relationships and interactions with counsellors during the counselling sessions (Mudis & Onyango, 2015).

It is concluded that there is low level prevalence of suicidal ideation among the Undergraduate students of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria. Face-to-face counselling, online counselling and blended counselling are found to be effective modes of counselling in addressing suicidal ideation, with the online counselling being the best approach to address the social problem.

Ethics and Conflict of Interest
We declare and confirm that we have acted in accordance with ethical rules throughout the entire research. No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

REFERENCES
Abati, O., & Elesemoyo, E. (2018). Freedom of religion and freedom from religion: Perspectives from religious sound disturbances at Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria. 42nd World Congress of the International Institute of Sociology, University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa.

Akram, U., Ypsilanti, A., Gardani, M., Irvine, K., Allen, S., Akram, A., Drabble, J., Bickle, E., Kaye, L., Lipinski, D., Matuszyk, E., Sarlak, H., Steedman, E., & Lazuras, L. (2020). Prevalence and psychiatric correlates of suicidal ideation in UK university students. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 272,* 191-197.

Au, A. C., Lau, S., & Lee, M. T. (2009). Suicide ideation and depression: the moderation effects of family cohesion and social self-concept. *Adolescence. Winter, 44*(176)-851-68. PMID: 20432604.

Barongo, S., & Nyamwange, C. (2013). Contribution of self-concept in guidance and counselling among students. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences, 3*(13), 7-12.

Brooks, J. R., Madubata, I. J., Jewell, R. D., Ortiz, D. A., & Walker, R. L. (2023). Depression and suicide ideation: The role of self-acceptance for Black young adults. *Journal of Black psychology, 49*(3), 382-403.

Choi, L. J., Shminan, A. S., Barawi, M. H., Khan, R. U., Rathakrishnan, M. A., & Choi, L. J. (2021). Suicidal ideation and suicide attempts among university students: prevalence and what stopped them to actually committing suicide. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 11*(14), 256–269.

Cummings, N. A., & Cummings, J. L. (2012). *Refocused psychotherapy as the first line intervention in behavioural health.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Cui, S., Cheng, Y., Xu, Z., Chen, D., & Wang, Y. (2010). Peer relationships and suicide ideation and attempts among Chinese adolescents. *Child: Care, Health and Development, 37*(5), 692–702. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2214.2010.01

Dat, N. T., Mitsui, N., Asakura, S., Watanabe, S., Takanobu, K., Fujii, Y., Toyoshima, K., Kako, Y., & Kusumi, I. (2021). The modesting role of hopelessness in the relationship between self-esteem, social anxiety, and suicidal ideation among Japanese university students who visited a university health care center. *Journal of Affective Disorders Reports, 6, 100192.* doi:10.1016/j.jadr.2021.100192

Dimitrov, D. M., & Rumrill, P. D. (2003). Pretest-posttest designs and measurement of change. *Work, 20*(2),159-65.

Ezeobi, C. (2017). *Rising cases of Suicide.* This day newspaper. April 3, 2017. https://www.thisdaylive.com/index.php/2017/04/03/rising-cases-of-suicide.

Flynn, D., Kells, M., Joyce, M., Corcoran, P., Gillespie, C., Suarez, C. et al. (2017). Standard 12 months dialectical behaviour therapy for adults with borderline personality disorder in a public community mental health setting. *Borderline Personal Disord Emot Dysregul. 4,* 19. doi:10.1186/s40479-017-0070-8

Gilat, I., Tobin, Y., & Shahar, G. (2011). Offering support to suicidal individuals in an online support group. *Arch. Suicide Res. 15,* 195-206.

Greidanus, E., & Everall, R. D. (2010). Helper therapy in an online suicide prevention community. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, 38*(2), 191–204. doi:10.1080/03069881003600991

Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counseling   2023, volume 12, issue 2

Haroz, E. E., Ritchey, M., Bass, J. K., Kohrt, B. A., Augustinavicious, J., & Michalopoulos, L. (2017). How is depression experienced around the world? A systematic review of qualitative literature. *J. Soc. Sci. Med. 183,* 151-162.

Hawton, K., Saunders, K. E. A., & O'Connor, R. C. (2012). Self-harm and suicide in adolescents. *The Lancet, 379*(9834), 2373–82.

Heilbron, N., & Prinstein, M. J. (2010). Adolescent peer victimization, peer status, suicidal ideation, and nonsuicidal self-injury: Examining concurrent and longitudinal associations. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 56(3),* 388–419. doi:10.1353/mpq.0.0049

Klonsky, E. D, May, A. M., & Saffer, B. Y. (2016). Suicide, suicide attempts, and suicidal ideation. *Annu Rev Clin Psychol.*, 12, 307–30.

Kobak, K. A., Mundt, J. C., & Kennard, B. (2015). Integrating technology into cognitive behaviour therapy for adolescent depression: a pilot study. *Annals of General Psychiatry, 14*(1), 37.

Krishan, L. (2014). Academic stress among adolescent in relation to intelligence and demographic factors. *American International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences, 5*(1), 123-129.

Kumar, V., Sattar, Y., & Bseiso A, et al. (2017) The effectiveness of internet-based cognitive behavioral therapy in treatment of psychiatric disorders. *Cureus, 9*(8), e1626. doi:10.7759/cureus.1626

Lester, D. (2017). Does religiosity predict suicidal behavior? *Religions, 8*(11), *238.* doi:10.3390/rel8110238

Lokkerbol, J., Geomini, A., Van Voorthuijsen, J., Van Straten, A., Tiemens, B., Smit, F., & Hiligsmann, M. (2018). A discrete-choice experiment to assess treatment modality preferences of patients with depression. *Journal of Medical Economics, 22*(2), 178–186.

Lloyd, S. M. (2014). Peer influence and non-suicidal self-injury in adolescence: *exploring the role of co-rumination.* (Unpublished thesis). Trinity Western University.

Mamun, M. A., Rayhan, I., Akter, K., & Griffiths, M. D. (2020). Prevalence and predisposing factors of suicidal ideation among the university students in Bangladesh: A single-site survey. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction.* doi:10.1007/s11469-020-00403-z

Medical & Health Services, Health Centre, O.A.U (2020). Personal communication.

Méndez-Bustos, P., Calati, R., Rubio-Ramírez, F., Olié, E., Courtet, P., & Lopez-Castroman, J. (2019). Effectiveness of psychotherapy on suicidal risk: A systematic review of observational studies. *Frontiers in Psychology, 10.* doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00277

Mokkenstorm, J. K., Eikelenboom, M., Huisman, A., Wiebenga, J., Gilissen, R., Kerkhof, A. J. F. M., & Smit, J. H. (2016). Evaluation of the 113 online suicide prevention crisis chat service: Outcomes, helper behaviors and comparison to telephone hotlines. *Suicide and Life-Threatening Behavior, 47*(3), 282–296. doi:10.1111/sltb.12286

Mudis, P. A., & Onyango, Y. J. M. (2015). Role of peer counseling on the relationship between prefects and the students' body in public secondary schools in Migori Sub-County, Migori County, Kenya. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development, 4*(4), 136-148.

Okunaiya, G. A., & Omovre, C. O. (2021). Counselling services and mental health of Nigeria university students. *Covenant International Journal of Psychology (CIJP),* 2682-5368

Omotehinse, O. S., & Adebowale, O. F. (2020). Anonymity, mutual disclosure and trust in online counselling relationships among students of Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria. *African Journal of Teacher Education, 9*(2), 90-109.

O'Neill, C. F. (2017). *The Role of Self-Esteem and Self-Criticism in Suicidal Thoughts and Behaviours.* A thesis submitted to the University of Manchester for the degree of Doctor of Clinical Psychology in the faculty of Biology, Medicine and Health.

Rasing, S. P. A., Stikkelbroek, Y. A. J., den Hollander, W., Riper, H., Deković, M., Nauta, M. H., … Bodden, D. H. M. (2021). Pragmatic quasi-experimental controlled trial evaluating the outcomes of blended cbt compared to face-to-face cbt and treatment as usual for adolescents with depressive disorders. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(6), 3102. doi:10.3390/ijerph18063102

Ram, R. K., Chaudhury, S., & Jagtap, B. L. (2018). Prevalence of Suicidal Ideation among University Students. *Pravara Med Rev, 10*(3), 7-11.

Reddy M. S. (2010). Suicide incidence and epidemiology. *Indian journal of psychological medicine*, *32*(2), 77–82. https://doi.org/10.4103/0253-7176.78501

Sethi, S. (2013). Treating youth depression and anxiety: a randomised controlled trial examining the efficacy of computerised versus face-to-face cognitive behaviour therapy. *Australian Psychologist, 48*(4), 249–257.

Stephen, I. B. (2020). Suicidal ideation among undergraduates in Nigeria: The predictive role of personality traits and academic stress. *International Journal of Innovative Research & Growth*. Doi: 10.24940/ijird/2020/v9/i2/FEB20001

Teismann, T., & Brailovskaia, J. (2020). Entrapment, positive psychological functioning and suicide ideation: A moderation analysis. *Clinical psychology & psychotherapy, 27*(1), 34-41. doi:10.1002/cpp.2403

Tettey, G. E. (2014). *Exploring the role of religiosity on suicidal ideation: A study among a population-based sample of adolescents in the United States*. (Electronic Theses and Dissertations). *Paper 2393*. https://dc.etsu.edu/etd/2393

van Spijker, B. A., van Straten, A., & Kerkhof, A. J. (2014). Effectiveness of online self-help for suicidal thoughts: results of a randomised controlled trial. *PloS one, 9*(2), e90118.

World Health Organization (2018). *Mental health: Strengthening our response.* https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/mental-health-strengthening-our-response

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MARRIAGE SATISFACTION, SPOUSE BURNOUT AND PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING IN MARRIED INDIVIDUALS

Bülent ŞEN
Assoc.Prof.Dr., European University of Lefke, Northern Cyprus
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1752-1876
bsen@eul.edu.tr

Nergüz BULUT SERİN
Prof.Dr., Department of Guidance and Psychological Counseling,
European University of Lefke, Northern Cyprus
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2074-3253
nserin@eul.edu.tr

Kadriye KARAGÜLMEZ
European University of Lefke, Doctorate Program, Lefke, Northern Cyprus
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9040-6498
kadriyekaragulmez@outlook.com

Abstract

This research aims to examine the marital satisfaction, spouse burnout, and psychological well-being of married individuals with demographic variables and to determine the relationship between them. 183 participants (81 women and 102 men) participated in the study. The participants were administered the Demographic Information Form, Golombok-Rust Marital Status Inventory, Spouse Burnout Scale, and Psychological Well-Being Scale. The data were analyzed with the SPSS 21 program. Looking at the participants' average scores in all three variables, the participants' marital satisfaction is quite low, their spouse burnout level is at a medium level, and their psychological well-being is at a medium level. It can be accepted that psychological well-being and spouse burnout scores are not at a level that would increase marital satisfaction; therefore, marital satisfaction is low. As a result of the research, it was seen that the variables of marriage age, age of participation in the research, income, and number of children affected these variables, and there is a significant difference in all three variables. One of the results of the research is that there is no significant difference in all three variables according to the variables of gender, education level, type of marriage, year of marriage, working status, occupational status, whether or not they own a home, and whether or not they care for disabled or elderly individuals. Considering that all three variables are important for marital life and that they support and influence each other, it is recommended to conduct comprehensive research.

Keywords: Marriage satisfaction, spouse burnout, psychological well-being.

INTRODUCTION

Humans have been living as social beings since their existence. The smallest unit in which social life is experienced at a micro level is the family. The existence of the family also begins with marriage. Marriage is a cultural phenomenon that has been developing since 2000 B.C. While individuals marry to meet their needs, desires, and dreams in their bio-psycho-social dimensions, they also indirectly marry for social development and the continuation of humanity. In the family system, meeting the needs and wishes of family members, feeling safe, experiencing positive emotions, and dreaming of a happy life motivate individuals for marriage.

Marriages that took place in the protective environment of the extended family in rural areas began to take place in the nuclear family as well, with the effect of rapid urbanization that started with the Industrial Revolution. Afterwards, the acceleration of life in the context of technological developments

and the economic difficulties or other problems brought by city life put a strain on family members and the ties between them. Communication, interaction, and relationships between family members are negatively affected by this. Therefore, it can be said that while spouse burnout increases, marital satisfaction decreases. As a result, marriage union is breaking down, divorces are increasing, families are breaking up and the number of single-parent families is increasing rapidly. Children are most affected by this, and the strong structure of society is damaged.

It is seen that couples whose expectations in marriage are not met and whose marital fulfilment is low are more likely to divorce. It is considered that the most significant factor in reducing marital pleasure is spouse burnout. It is known that couples with high psychological well-being overcome difficulties more efficiently and experience spouse burnout less often. Marital satisfaction is defined as the satisfaction couples perceive with all the facts they need from their marriage experience (Johnson and Brown, 2020). The concept of spouse burnout emerges when spouses realize that, despite all their efforts, they cannot have the relationship they dream of and that the relationship cannot meet their expectations (Pines, 2017). On the other hand, couples with high levels of psychological well-being are seen to have the components of self-acceptance, meaningful and purposeful living, autonomy, positive social relations, self-esteem, mastery of the environment, competence and personal development (Chang, Huang, & Lin, 2015).

In short, it can be said that in the first place, it is seen that marital satisfaction will decrease in marriages with high spouse burnout, spouse burnout will be low, and marital satisfaction will increase in couples with high spouse burnout.

In the literature review, it is possible to find many publications explaining the strong negative relationship between marital satisfaction and spouse burnout. However, studies examining marital satisfaction, spouse burnout, and psychological well-being together are not ordinary. This study was planned by wondering about the participants' spouse burnout, psychological well-being, and marital satisfaction averages and the relationships of all three variables with demographic variables and each other.

Marital Satisfaction

Marital satisfaction is a spouse's subjective assessment of the extent to which his or her marital needs are met by the other spouse (Karney & Bradbury, 2020). According to the Social Exchange Theory, individuals evaluate the degree of satisfaction they get from their relationships based on a standard called the "comparison level.". The level of comparison reflects the individual's beliefs and expectations about how a relationship should be. If the result obtained from the relationship is above the comparison level, that relationship is satisfactory for the individual. In other words, the individual perceives that he or she gets what he or she expects or more from the relationship. However, if the result obtained by the individual from the relationship is below the comparison level, that relationship is considered unsatisfactory by the individual. The concept of satisfaction is also considered as a dimension of the concept of stability in marriage, which is related to whether the relationship will continue or not (Stafford & Kuiper, 2021; Ünal & Akgün, 2022).

Factors affecting marital satisfaction are grouped under the headings of social elements, personal elements, and familial elements. Social Elements: Social support can increase marital satisfaction. The support of family, friends, and society will be able to help resolve disputes while increasing happiness in marriage (Eisenberg & Zamostny, 2014). While gender stereotypes can be the source of disagreements and unhappiness in marriage, they can also disrupt harmony in marriage and reduce satisfaction in marriage. Differences between cultures can also affect marital satisfaction (Johnson & Brown, 2020). According to research, people who are financially satisfied exhibit more determined behavior in their married lives (Archuleta et al., 2011). Personal Elements: Personal factors such as spouses' personality characteristics, communication skills, conflict management, gender, and age, as well as other factors such as communication style, problem-solving skills, emotional bond, and financial situation, also affect marital satisfaction (Maaß et al., 2020). Familial Elements: Every individual strives to maintain the

communication styles they experienced in the family during childhood, adulthood, and marriage (Eisenberg & Zamostny, 2014).

Spouse Burnout

Spouse burnout is a state of physical, mental, and emotional fatigue that results from the difference between expectations and reality. It is a state of frustration that occurs as a result of the intensification of emotional demands in a long-term relationship. In studies on spouse burnout, it has been found that spouse burnout is associated with the following variables related to marriage and relationships, and many of these variables are significant predictors of spouse burnout: positive outlook, communication, security, self-actualization, materiality, emotional appeal, sex life, compatibility of personalities, partner attractiveness, physical attractiveness, common goals, mental attractiveness, control, sharing common, appreciation, overload, boredom, conflict of demands, achievement, independence, work-home conflict, sharing of household chores, and abuse (Pines & Nunes, 2003; Pamuk & Durmuş, 2015; Güler & Çapri, 2020).

Partner burnout occurs when the individual begins to realize that their partner is no longer exciting, unique, or perfect. The slight things that make one unhappy or dissatisfied in the relationship begin to become bigger, the anger towards the other party increases, and the relationship reaches the crisis stage and the end of the relationship (Pines, 2017).

Factors such as unrealistic beliefs, perspectives on attachment, work-family balance, lack of support, the concept of depression, anger control levels, perspectives on life, marital satisfaction, and sexual satisfaction can be considered reasons for the increase in spouses' burnout levels (Mahdavianfard et al., 2015). Factors such as not being able to spend enough time with the family and difficulties in providing support to the family, gender differences, communication problems, and role-sharing issues are also among the issues that affect spouse burnout, either positively or negatively (Çapri, 2008; Pines, 2017; Özgüven, 2020).

Psychological well-being

If marital satisfaction is considered a desired result, it can be thought that the psychological well-being of the spouses may affect marital satisfaction by decreasing or increasing the spouse's burnout.

Among the variables thought to affect marital satisfaction are depression, happiness, and psychological well-being (Pietromonaco & Overall, 2021). Although psychology was initially concerned with mental illness in recent years, it has been seen that the positive aspects of the person have begun to be examined, except the unhealthy (Reves et al., 2020). Besides, it is clear that the concept of psychological well-being generally refers to the positive characteristics of a person and a mentally healthy individual (Danijela & Obrenovic, 2020).

In its most basic sense, the concept of psychological well-being is that individuals see it as a tool to improve themselves even if they encounter difficulties. Individuals with psychological well-being become aware of the values in life and know how to add meaning to life. They also get happiness and satisfaction from this process. In addition, it can be said that individuals are aware of their potential abilities and are easily motivated to achieve self-actualization and reach their goals (Seligman 2020).

In Diener and Seligman's "extremely happy people" research, it was determined that spouses with high psychological well-being are less likely to experience depression and spousal burnout, and have higher marital satisfaction (Seligman, 2021). In studies examining the relationship between marriage and psychological well-being, it is report that married individuals with high psychological well-being levels share more economic resources, social support and emotional support with their spouses (Körük & Vapurlu, 2022). To summarize, it is considered that couples with high psychological well-being have low couple burnout levels and thus have high marital satisfaction.

The current study

Many individual, familial, environmental, and socioeconomic variables affect marital satisfaction. One of the important variables affecting marital satisfaction is spouse burnout. Variables that negatively

affect marital satisfaction also affect spouse burnout. There will always be problems in marriage, and the balance may be disrupted. The stronger the psychological well-being of married individuals and family members, the easier it will be to solve these problems and regain balance, and marital satisfaction will increase. With these thoughts, the foundation of the research was laid, and the results of a study that included psychological well-being were questioned. In addition, in the literature review, no research was found in which these three variables were used together. The purpose of this research is to determine the participants' averages of spouse burnout, psychological well-being, and marital satisfaction and to reveal how demographic variables affect all three variables and the relationship between all three variables. It is thought that the results of this research will contribute to family counselling practitioners and future research.

METHOD

Participants
In this research, the relational scanning method, one of the general scanning methods, was used. In studies that adopt the relational screening model, a situation or event is explained as it is, and the relationship and impact of the variables that cause this situation and their degrees are determined (Büyüköztürk et al., 2014). As the sampling method, simple random sampling method was used through a survey created in Google Forms and distributed through social media and communication networks. 183 married individuals participated in the research voluntarily. It is seen that 44.3% of the participants are women (81) and 55.7% are men (102). When looking at the average age of the participants, it was seen that the average was 49.26, while the oldest individual participating in the study was 63 years old and the youngest individual was 26 years old. 16.4% of the participants of the study were in the 25-35 age group, 16.4% were in the 35-45 age group, 21.3% were in the 45-55 age group and 45.9% were in the 55-65 age group. When looking at the age difference between married individuals and their spouses, it is seen that the average age difference is 3.48, while the minimum age difference is 0 and the maximum age difference is 14. It is seen that 3.8% of the married individuals included in the research have lower-middle income, 39.3% have medium income, 45.4% have upper-middle income and 11.5% have high income. In addition, when the education levels of married individuals are examined, it is seen that 1.1% have primary education, 4.4% have high school education, 52.5% have university education and 42.1% have master's/doctoral level education. It was found that 90.7% of the participants included in the study were married for the first time, while 9.3% were married for the second time. Considering the year of marriage of the participants in the research; 2.7% have been married for 1 year or less, 9.8% have been married for 1-5 years, 12.0% have been married for 5-10 years and 75.4% have been married for 10 years or more. Other findings include that 10.9% do not have children, 28.4% have only one child, 51.9% have 2 children and 8.7% have 3 or more children. While 24.0% of the participants in the research stated that the house they live in is rented, 76.0% stated that the house they stay in is their own house. In addition to all these findings, 10.7% of the participants stated that they provided care to a disabled or elderly person, while 89.3% stated that they did not provide care to a disabled or elderly person.

Data Collection Tools
Demographic information form
The Demographic Information Form consists of some demographic information, such as the participant's gender, age, education level, profession, income level, how they got married to their spouse, whether they care for a disabled or elderly family member, how many years they have been married, and the number of children.

Golombok Rust Inventory of Marital State-GRIMS
The Golombok-Rust Marital Status Inventory, a scale used to assess marital satisfaction, was used. Golombok-Rust (Golombok Rust Inventory of Marital State-GRIMS) Inventory was developed by Rust, Bennun, Crowe and Golombok in 1990 to measure marital satisfaction. It was adapted into Turkish and its validity and reliability study was conducted by Duyan and Duyan in 2014. The scale is a one-dimensional tool that does not evaluate sexual intercourse but only marital status. The scale consists of 28 statements, half of which are positive and half of which are negative, reflecting individuals' beliefs about the nature of a satisfactory marital relationship. Participants are asked to choose one of the options

"Strongly Disagree 3", "Disagree 2", "Agree 1" and "Strongly Agree 0" for each statement. The range of total scores that can be obtained is between 0 and 84 points, and low scores from the scale indicate high marital satisfaction, while high scores indicate low marital satisfaction. The classification is as follows according to the total scores received: Total score between 17 and 21 is 'very good', between 22 and 25 is 'good', between 26 and 29 is 'above average', between 30 and 33 is 'mediocre', between 34 and 37 is 'poor', 38 to 41 is 'bad', 42 to 46 is 'serious problems', and a score above 47 is 'very serious problems'. According to the results of the validity and reliability analysis, it was concluded that the inventory is a valid measurement tool and its reliability is .88 (Duyan & Duyan, 2014).

Spouse Burnout Scale
The short form consisting of 10 statements of the Spouse Burnout Scale, originally consisting of 21 statements developed by Pines et al. in 1996 (Pines, 2005), which aims to measure the burnout levels of spouses by focusing on marital stress factors, emotional exhaustion and marital anxieties, was used in the research. The Turkish validity and reliability study of the scale was conducted by Çapri in 2008. According to the results of the validity and reliability analysis, the internal consistency coefficient of the scale was found to be .94 for married women and .95 for married men (Çapri, 2013). In this study, the shM form of the Spousal Burnout Scale was used to determine the spousal burnout levels of married individuals and the resulting Cronbach Alpha value was calculated as .88. A 7-point Likert type rating was used in the scale. While it is evaluated as 'Never = 1', it is evaluated as 'Always = 7'. The total obtained scale value was divided by 10 and the average value was used in the research. The lowest score that can be obtained from the scale is 1, while the highest score is 7.

Psychological Well-Being Scale
The scale was developed by Eggleston et al. in 2001. The Turkish adaptation study of the scale was conducted by Özmete in 2016. 36 items in the scale are scored with a 5-point Likert type rating. It is scored as 'Strongly disagree = 5' and 'Strongly agree = 1'. The scale includes reverse scored items. In order to determine the reliability of the measurement tool, the internal consistency coefficient was calculated and the Cronbach Alpha value was found to be .86/.88 (Özmete, 2016). In this study, the Psychological Well-Being Scale was used to determine the psychological well-being levels of married individuals and the resulting Cronbach Alpha value was calculated as .93.

Procedure and analyses
In this study, Google Forms application was used to create the form regarding the research items on the online platform, and the link to the form was made available to the participants over the internet. In addition to the form containing questions regarding the demographic information of married individuals who voluntarily participated in the study for data collection, the forms of three scales were used. The informed consent form is located at the beginning of Google Forms, and after the participant ticks the check box, they are directed to the research statements. The IBM SPSS 21 program was used to calculate the descriptive statistics and variables collected within the scope of the research.

187 married individuals were included in the study. When the data obtained from the participants' answers were examined, the answers of 4 people were determined to be outliers and were excluded from the analysis, and analyzes were carried out with 183 participants. First, the Independent Samples t-test method was applied to examine the differences in terms of dependent variables according to the levels of the independent variables, which are included in the socio-demographic information form and have two categories. Then, differences between independent variables and scales with more than two categories were examined with One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Post Hoc tests were applied for pairwise comparisons in order to determine which variable caused the significant differences between the groups. Finally, Pearson Correlation method was used to examine the relationships between the scales used in the study.

RESULTS

In this section of the research, descriptive statistics and correlations of the variables in the research, and findings regarding whether there is a significant difference between demographic information and

marital satisfaction, spouse burnout level and psychological well-being are presented. Findings that do not have a significant difference will not be tabulated, but the findings will be shared directly.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables

Variables	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	1	2	3
1. Marriage satisfaction	183	54.88	14.07	-		
2. Spouse burnout	183	2.51	1.18	-.804***	-	
3. Psychological well-being	183	93.94	11.91	-.720***	.648***	-

***p<.001

Descriptive statistics and correlations of the variables in the research were calculated and shown in Table 1. First of all, looking at descriptive statistics, the average scores of the participants in all three variables; With 54.88, it is seen that the marriage satisfaction of the participants is quite low. Marriage satisfaction decreases as the score increases in scale systematic. According to scale scoring, points of 47 or more show that there are serious problems in marriage. With 2.51, the spouse burnout levels of the participants are moderate. The average of spouse burnout scale is between 0-7 values. With 93.94, it is seen that the psychological well being of the participants is at moderate. The psychological well being scale is between 36-180 points.

As a result of correlation analysis, statistically significant correlations between the variables. While there is a high correlation (80%) between marital satisfaction and spouse burnout, there is a 72% relationship between marital satisfaction and psychological well-being, and 65% between spouse burnout and psychological well-being.

In order to keep the article short, written information will be given about demographic variables and variables for which no significant difference can be detected.

According to the analysis results, no significant difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels according to their gender ($t_{(183)}$= -1.424, p>.05; $t_{(183)}$= 1.077, p>.05; $t_{(183)}$= 1.821, p>.05).

Looking at the research data, no significant difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels, spousal burnout levels and psychological well-being levels according to their educational status ($F_{(3,179)}$=1.782, p>.05; $F_{(3,179)}$=1.992, p>.05; $F_{(3,179)}$=1.429, p>.05).

When looking at the findings, no significant difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels depending on whether they are currently employed or not ($t_{(183)}$= .335, p>.05; $t_{(183)}$=.713 , p>.05; $t_{(183)}$= .533, p>.05).

When the data were examined, no significant difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels according to their professions ($F_{(7,175)}$=1.616, p>.05; $F_{(7,175)}$=1.514, p>.05; $F_{(7.175)}$= 1.643, p>.05).

No significant difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels depending on how they married their spouses ($F_{(3,179)}$=2.323, p>.05; $F_{(3,179)}$=.901, p>.05; $F_{(3,179)}$= 2.558, p>.05).

In the analysis, no significant difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels depending on whether it was their first marriage or not ($t_{(183)}$=-.869, p>.05; $t_{(183)}$=.192, p>.05; $t_{(183)}$= .533, p>.05).

When the findings were examined, no significant difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels depending on how long they had been married to their spouses ($F_{(3,179)}$=1.800, p>.05; $F_{(3,179)}$= .716, p>.05; $F_{(3,179)}$= .702, p>.05). When looking at the findings of the research, no significant difference was found between marital satisfaction levels, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels depending on whether the house they live in is rented or their own house ($t_{(183)}$= 1.210, p>.05; $t_{(183)}$= .035 p>.05; $t_{(183)}$= .598, p>.05).

According to the findings, no significant difference was found between marital satisfaction levels, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels according to the variable of caring for a disabled or elderly person (Yes 20) ($t_{(183)}$= -.953, p>.05; $t_{(183)}$= .968 p>.05; $t_{(183)}$= 1.139, p>.05).

Table 2. ANOVA test results regarding the differentiation of participants' marital satisfaction, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels according to income variable

MARRIAGE SATISFACTION	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	F	p
below average	7	48.57	16.09	2.119	.100
average	72	54.20	13.58		
above average	83	54.33	14.44		
high	21	61.42	12.35		
SPOUSE BURNOUT					
below average	7	2.97	1.40	2.927	.035*
average	72	2.63	1.15		
above average	83	2.54	1.20		
high	21	1.84	.94		
PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING					
below average	7	106.42	17.51	5.432	.001*
average	72	95.15	10.85		
above average	83	93.53	11.66		
high	21	87.23	10.76		

p<.05*

Table 2, no difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels according to their financial income levels ($F_{(3,179)}$=2.119, p>.05).

It is seen that there is a significant difference between spouse burnout levels of married individuals participating in the research according to their income levels ($F_{(3,179)}$=2.927, p<.05). According to the results of the Tukey comparison test; It was found that the spouse burnout levels of married individuals with moderate financial income (Mean=2.63, Std.Dev.=1.15) were higher than the spouse burnout levels of married individuals with high financial income (Mean=1.84, Std.Dev.=.94) and that there was a differentiation between the groups (p<.05).

In addition, there is a significant difference between the psychological well-being levels of married individuals according to their income levels ($F_{(3,179)}$=5.432, p<.05). According to the results of the Tukey comparison test; The psychological well-being levels of married individuals with below-middle financial income (Mean=106.42, Std.Dev.=17.51) were found to be higher than the psychological well-being levels of married individuals with above-medium (Mean=93.53, Std.Dev.=11.66) and high financial income (Mean=87.23, Std.Dev.=10.76) (p<.05).

Table 3. ANOVA test results regarding the differences in participants' marital satisfaction, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels according to which age group the individuals were when they married

MARRIAGE SATISFACTION	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	F	p
18-25	44	51.23	13.58	1.542	.205
25-35	122	56.08	14.04		
35-45	13	54.15	16.34		
45-55	4	60.75	7.32		
SPOUSE BURNOUT					
18-25	44	2.78	1.19	1.524	.210
25-35	122	2.40	1.12		
35-45	13	2.81	1.56		
45-55	4	2.15	1.29		

Table 3 (Continued). ANOVA test results regarding the differences in participants' marital satisfaction, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels according to which age group the individuals were when they married

PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	F	p
18-25	44	98.02	12.87	2.779	.043*
25-35	122	92.22	11.30		
35-45	13	95.92	12.44		
45-55	4	95.00	8.52		

*p<.05

Table 3, when the findings obtained from the research were examined, no difference was found between the groups in terms of marital satisfaction levels and spouse burnout levels depending on the age group the individuals were in when they got married ($F_{(3,179)}$=1,542, p>.05; $F_{(3,179)}$=1,524, p>.05).

When Table 3 is examined, it is seen that there is a significant difference between the groups in terms of psychological well-being levels depending on the age group the individuals were in when they got married ($F_{(3,179)}$=2.779, p<.05). According to the results of the Hochberg comparison test; The psychological well-being levels of individuals who got married when they were in the 18-25 age group (Mean=98.02, Std.Dev.=12.87) are lower than the psychological well-being levels of individuals who got married when they were in the 25-35 age group (Mean=92.22, Std.Dev.=11.30) (p<.05).

Table 4. ANOVA test results regarding the differentiation of participants' marital satisfaction, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels according to the age group variable in which they participated in the research

MARRIAGE SATISFACTION	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	F	p
25-35	30	60.23	12.10	2.600	.054
35-45	30	52.87	.07		
45-55	39	51.28	12.38		
55-65	84	55.36	13.89		
SPOUSE BURNOUT					
25-35	30	2.15	1.07	3.261	.023*
35-45	30	2.84	1.34		
45-55	39	2.85	.98		
55-65	84	2.37	1.20		
PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING					
25-35	30	92.20	11.15	3.330	.021*
35-45	30	99.03	14.62		
45-55	39	95.82	11.27		
55-65	84	91.94	10.87		

*p<.05

No significant difference was found between the marital satisfaction levels of the participants in the study according to their age group ($F_{(3,179)}$= 2.600, p>.05).

When Table 4 is examined, it is seen that there is a significant difference between the groups when the spouse burnout levels of the participants are examined according to the age group in which they participated in the research ($F_{(3,179)}$=3.261, p<.05). However, the Tukey test revealed that there was no difference between the groups (p>.05).

In addition, when the psychological well-being levels of the participants were examined according to the age group in which they participated in the research, it was found that there was a significant difference between the groups ($F_{(3,179)}$=3.330, p<.05). According to the results of the Tukey comparison test; It was found that the psychological well-being levels of the participants in the 55/65 age group (Mean=91.94, Std.Dev.=10.87) were lower than the psychological well-being levels of the participants in the 35/45 age group and there was a difference between the groups (Mean=99.03, Std.Dev.=14.62) (p<.05).

Table 5 anova test results on the differentiation of participants' marital satisfaction, spouse burnout levels and psychological well-being levels according to how many children they have

MARRIAGE SATISFACTION	n	Mean	Std.Dev.	F	p
none	20	63.75	9.30	3.902	.010*
one child	52	54.06	13.43		
two children	95	54.48	14.36		
three or more children	16	48.81	15.55		
SPOUSE BURNOUT					
none	20	1.97	.92	2.930	.035*
one child	52	2.58	1.23		
two children	95	2.49	1.15		
three or more children	16	3.11	1.32		
PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING					
none	20	88.75	9.23	4.195	.007*
one child	52	95.73	11.33		
two children	95	92.81	11.53		
three or more children	16	101.31	15.16		

*p<.05

When the results obtained from the research findings were examined, a significant difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels according to the number of children they had ($F_{(3,179)}$=3.902, p<.05). According to the results of the Hochberg Post Hoc comparison test; The marital satisfaction levels of participants with 3 or more children (Mean=48.81, Std.Dev.=15.55) are higher than the marital satisfaction levels of participants with 2 children (Mean=54.48, Std.Dev.=14.36), the marital satisfaction levels of participants with one child (Mean=54.06, Std.Dev.=13.43), and the marital satisfaction levels of participants without children (Mean=63.75, Std.Dev.=9.30) (p<.05).

Looking at Table 4, it is seen that there is a difference between the spouse burnout levels of the participants according to the number of children they have ($F_{(3,179)}$=2.930, p<.05). According to the results of the Hochberg Post Hoc comparison test; The spouse burnout levels of participants with 3 or more children (Mean=3.11, Std.Dev.=1.32) are higher than the spouse burnout levels of participants with 2 children (Mean=2.49, Std.Dev.=1.15), the spouse burnout levels of participants with one child (Mean=2.58, Std.Dev.=1.23), and the spouse burnout levels of participants without children (Mean=1.97, Std.Dev.=.92) (p<.05).

When the psychological well-being levels of the participants in the study were examined according to the number of children they had, it was concluded that there was a significant difference between the groups ($F_{(3,179)}$=3.588, p<.05). According to the results of the Hochberg Post Hoc comparison test; The psychological well-being levels of participants with 3 or more children (Mean=101.31, Std.Dev.=15.16) are higher than the psychological well-being levels of participants with one child (M=95,73, SD=11,33), the psychological well-being levels of participants with 2 children (Mean=92.81, Std.Dev.=11.53), and the psychological well-being levels of participants without children (Mean=88.75, Std.Dev.=9.23) (p<.05).

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, and SUGGESTIONS

In this study, the marriage satisfaction, spouse burnout, and psychological well-being of the participants were examined together. The findings obtained in this study are discussed below in light of literature information that supports and does not support the research results.

At first glance, it can be said that the average score of the participants in all three variables is 54.87, indicating that the marriage satisfaction of the participants is quite low. Marriage satisfaction decreases as the score increases in scale. According to scale scoring, points of 47 or more show that there are serious problems in marriage. With 2.51, the spouse burnout levels of the participants are moderate. The average spouse burnout scale is between 0 and 7. With 93.93, it is seen that the psychological well-being of the participants is moderate. The psychological well-being scale is between 36 and 180 points. Considering that all three variables are related to each other and can affect each other in a positive or

negative sense, it can be said that these results are consistent with each other. It may be accepted that the psychological well-being and spouse burnout scores are not at a level to increase marriage satisfaction and that marriage satisfaction is low.

In the analysis conducted between spouse burnout and marital satisfaction, it was determined that there was a strong negative relationship of 80.4%. This finding shows that marital satisfaction decreases as spouse burnout increases. This result obtained from the study is consistent with other studies scanned in the literature (Randall & Bodenmann, 2009; Falconier et al., 2015; McNulty et al., 2021). Similarly, Smith and Jones (2018) found that there was a negative relationship between marital satisfaction and burnout. It was observed that as the level of burnout increased, marital satisfaction decreased among the individuals participating in the research. On the other hand, Johnson and Brown (2020) revealed that the relationship between marital satisfaction and burnout level is complex in their studies. According to the research, in some cases, an increase in the level of burnout negatively affects marital satisfaction, while in other cases, it can increase marital satisfaction. This situation may vary depending on the type of burnout individuals experience and other factors in their marriage.

Apart from that, it was determined that there was a moderate relationship of 72% between psychological well-being and marital satisfaction. This result is consistent with the results of other studies examined in the literature (Shek, 2001; Kim & McKenry, 2002; Hawkins & Booth, 2005; Whisman et al., 2006; Helms & Buehler, 2007; Neff & Broady; 2011, Carr et al., 2014; Mohammed, 2016; Margelisch, et al., 2017; Perelli-Harris et al., 2019; Tadik, 2020; Toghraie et al., 2023).

In addition, in the context of the analyses, it was determined that there was a medium and strong relationship of 65% between spouse burnout and psychological well-being. This result obtained from the research is parallel to the results of related studies in the literature (Brotheridge & Lee, 2005; Demerouti et al., 2005; Savla et al., 2011; Falconier et al., 2015; Karademas & Roussi, 2016; Rehman et al., 2020; Won & Seol, 2020).

In this study, it was concluded that there was no statistically significant difference between some demographic variables and the variables examined. Moreover, what is different and important is that only three variables do not show significant differences among demographic variables.

According to the analysis results, no significant difference was found between the participants' marital satisfaction levels, spousal burnout levels and psychological well-being levels According to their gender (p>.05).

When the literature is examined, studies on women having higher levels of burnout in marriage stand out (Johnson and Greenberg, 2014; Smith et al., 2017; Pines, 2017). Pines (2017) states that the marriage process is better for men in this regard, and states that married women experience psychological problems and burnout levels more than married men. He states that the reasons for this are that women start the marriage relationship with higher expectations, that women have more roles at home, that they have difficulty in fulfilling the role of motherhood and the responsibilities that come with it, and that they try to cope with too much stress.

Jackson et al. (2014), who reached a similar conclusion to the result of this study, conducted a study to empirically test the widely accepted assumption that women's marital satisfaction is lower than men. As a result of this research, they state that there are no significant differences in the gender dimension in community-based and large-scale studies.

In the study, no statistically significant difference was detected between education levels in all three variables. However, in the literature, it is seen that the level of education has an effect on the level of spouse burnout. For example, in the studies of Smith and Jones (2018) and Johnson et al. (2020), it was found that there was a negative relationship between education level and burnout. Likewise, Zhang and Liang (2023), show in their study that the level of education has a significant positive effect on marital satisfaction. Education has an important economic and social function. Torr (2011), states in a meta-analysis that the relationship between the education and marriage rate of black and white women in the

USA shifted from negative to positive from 1940 to 2000, and that improving the level of education increased the likelihood of getting married and staying in marriage. Vikram (2023) states in his study that women with higher education can achieve more equal status and higher marriage quality in marriage.

In this study, no significant difference was found between the number of marriages and spouse burnout level. In a study by Smith (2020), it was found that the number of marriages had a significant impact on individuals' spouse burnout levels. The study states that spouse burnout levels of individuals who are married for the second time or more are higher than those who are married for the first time. These results show that the risk of burnout may increase with the repetition of marital experience. When we look at the issue in terms of marital satisfaction and divorce rates, it is understood from the literature that the divorce rates in second marriages are relatively higher than the divorce rates in first marriages. However, in his study, Widiastuti (2021), compared first marriages with later marriages in terms of marital satisfaction and concluded that there were no significant differences.

Although it was determined in the study that there was no statistical difference in the variables of spouse burnout and mariage satisfaction between age groups according to the age of marriage, there is a majority of research in the literature on the fact that marital satisfaction and spouse burnout are negatively affected when the age of marriage is early. For example, Johnson (2019) found in a study that the age at which individuals first got married had a significant impact on burnout. It is thought that early marriages may affect individuals' ability to complete their personal development and focus on career goals, and therefore increase the risk of burnout. However, the fact that those who got married in the 18-25 age group have higher averages than those who got married in the 25-35 age group in the psychological well-being variable can be examined and discussed in future studies when more data is obtained. Followed by this, it was determined that there was no statistical difference in the marriage satisfaction variable between age groups according to the age at the time of participation in the research. However, in the psychological well-being variable, it is seen that the younger 35-45 age group has higher psychological well-being scores than the 55-65 age group. Walker et al (2013), state in their research that psychological well-being depends on being involved in life and having strong social networks.

In this study, it was determined that there was no statistically significant difference between the spouse burnout variable and the current age variable. However, when the literature is examined, it is noteworthy that there are studies that conclude that this variable has an effect on spouse burnout. For example, in a study conducted by Smith and Jones (2018), it was found that age is an important factor on the level of spouse burnout and the level of burnout increases with advancing age.

At the same time, it was found that there was a statistically significant difference between socioeconomic status and spouse burnout level in this study. There are similar studies supporting this finding. For example, in the study conducted by Johnson and Smith (2018), the effect of socioeconomic factors on burnout in marriage was investigated and it was found that individuals with low socioeconomic status had higher levels of burnout in marriage. Similarly, a meta-analysis by Jones et al. (2016), found a negative relationship between socioeconomic status and marital burnout. Du, Lou and Zhou (2022), state that low socioeconomic status triggers depression and has a negative impact on burnout and marital satisfaction. Similarly, income has been found to have a significant impact on marital satisfaction, which is directly related to marital stability. It has also been confirmed that the relationship between low-income couples may be more turbulent than that of high-income couples (LeBaron-Black et al., 2022). A study on marital relationships of self-employed people found that declines in family income and social functioning levels were associated with divorce (Van Loon et al., 2020). Therefore, when a couple's income level decreases, the couple faces greater financial pressure and is more prone to experiencing fatigue, anxiety, burnout, and other negative emotions that do not help sustain the marriage.

In this study, a statistically significant difference was found between the variables of having or not having children and the number of children in all three variables. Post hoc tests showed results in favour of those with three or more children in terms of marital satisfaction and psychological well-being. However, in the spousal burnout variable, the burnout scores of those with three or more children are higher, thus contradicting these two variables. In the literature review, it is seen that the majority of

studies support the results of the research within the scope of spouse burnout. For example, in a study by Brown (2018), it was found that having children had a significant impact on individuals' burnout levels. The study revealed that the burnout levels of individuals with children are higher than those without children. It is thought that having children may increase the risk of burnout due to increased responsibility and stress factors. Similarly, the number of children had a substantial impact on the degree of burnout, according to research by Smith and Jones (2019). It was determined that among the individuals participating in the research, those who had more children had higher levels of burnout. It is thought that as the number of children increases, parents need to share their time, energy, and resources more, and this may increase the feeling of burnout. Kaya and Buğa (2021) state in their research that conflicts arising from the responsibility of raising children, as well as the effects of the presence of children on the couple's relationship, can also have an impact on the couple's satisfaction level.

Literature information that could explain the results of the study in favour of those with more children in terms of marital satisfaction and psychological well-being variables was also searched, and a meta-analysis study by Dillon and Beechler (2010) was found. According to these authors, it was determined that the studies that found results in this direction were mostly conducted in individualistic cultures. When looking at studies conducted in collectivist cultures, it is stated that, unlike studies conducted in individualistic cultures, there is a small, negative relationship between children and marital satisfaction ($d = -.11$, $r = -.05$).

After it was seen in the literature review that there was no other study examining married individuals' marital satisfaction, spouse burnout, and psychological well-being together, it is evaluated that this planned study will contribute to the literature.

Looking at the participants' average scores in all three variables, the participants' marital satisfaction is quite low, their spouse burnout level is at a medium level, and their psychological well-being is at a medium level. Considering that all three variables are interrelated and can affect each other positively or negatively, it can be said that these results are consistent with each other. It can be accepted that psychological well-being and spouse burnout scores are not at a level that would increase marital satisfaction; therefore, marital satisfaction is low. In addition, it was determined that all three variables had relationships with each other varying between high and medium levels.

Additionally, it has been determined that there is a negative and high relationship between spouse burnout and marriage satisfaction. It has been observed that there is a moderate relationship between marriage satisfaction and psychological well-being, and between spouse burnout and psychological well-being.

According to the research results, it was noticed that the variables of marriage age, age of participation in the research, income, and number of children affected these variables. These results are consistent with other studies found in the literature. One of the research results showed that there is no significant difference in all three variables of gender, education level, whether or not they care for disabled or elderly individuals, type of marriage, year of marriage, having their own home, working status, and occupational status. Finally, based on the above analyses, it can be said that this research both supported and did not support the research's results in the literature. In contrast, especially considering that all three variables are important for marital life and that they support and influence each other, it is recommended to conduct a comprehensive analysis for future research.

Ethics and Conflict of Interest
The authors have acted in accordance with ethical rules at all stages of the research, and there is no conflict of interest among the authors.

REFERENCES

Archuleta, K. L., Britt, S. L., Tonn, T. J., & Grable, J. E. (2011). Financial satisfaction and financial stressars in marital satisfaction. *Psychological Reports*, *108*(2), 563-576.

Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. (2005). Impact of work-family interference of general well-being: A replication and extension. *International Journal of Stress Management, 12*(3), 203-221.

Brown, A. (2018). The impact of parenthood on burnout levels: A comparative study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *45*(2), 167-183.

Büyüköztürk, Ş., Kılıç Çakmak, E., Akgün, Ö. E., Karadeniz, Ş., & Demirel, F. (2014). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri* [Scientific research methods]. Ankara: Pegem A.

Carr, D., Freedman, V. A., Cornman, J. C., & Schwarz, N. (2014). Happy marriage, happy life? Marital quality and subjective well-being in later life. *Journal of Marriage and Family,* 76, 930-948.

Chang, J. H., Huang, C. L. & Lin, Y. C. (2015). Mindfulness, basic psychological needs fulfillment, and well-being. *J Happiness Stud* 16, 1149-1162.

Çapri, B. (2008). *Eş tükenmişliğini yordayan değişkenlerin incelenmesi* [An investigation of the variables predicting couple burnout]. [Unpublished Doctoral Thesis], Mersin University, Turkey.

Çapri, B. (2013). The Turkish adaptation of the burnout measure-short version (bms) and couple burnout measure-short version (cbms) and the relationship between career and couple burnout based on psychoanalytic-existential perspective. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 13*, 1408-1417.

Danijela, G., & Obrenovic, B. (2020). Effects of economic uncertainty on mental health in the COVID-19 pandemic context: Social identity disturbance, job uncertainty and psychological well-being model. *International Journal of Innovation and Economic Development 6*(1), 61-74.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2005). Spillover and crossover of exhaustion and life satisfaction among dual-earner parents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 67, 266-289.

Dillon, L. M., & Beechler, M. P., (2010). Marital satisfaction and the impact of children in collectivist cultures: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Evolutionary Psychology, 8*(1), 7-22. https://doi.org/10.1556/jep.8.2010.1.3

Du, W., Luo, M., & Zhou, Z., (2022). A study on the relationship between marital socioeconomic status, marital satisfaction, and depression: Analysis based on actor–partner ınterdependence model (APIM). *Applied Research Quality Life* 17, 1477–1499 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11482-021-09975-x

Duyan, V., & Duyan Çamur, G. (2014). Golombok-Rust evlilik durumu envanteri'nin Türkçe sürümünün bir grup evli çift üzerinde geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması [Reliability and validity study of the turkish version of the golombok-rust ınventory of marital state (GRIMS) among a group of married couple], *Turkish Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, *8*(3), 82-89.

Falconier, M. K., Nussbeck, F., Bodenmann, G., Schneider, H., & Bradbury, T. J. (2015). Stress from daily hassles in couples: its effects on intradyadic stress, relationship satisfaction, and physical and psychological well-being. *Marital Fam Ther., 41*(2), 221-35. https://doi.org/10.1111/jmft.12073.

Güler, M., & Çapri, B. (2020). The relationship between couple burnout and state-trait anxiety in mothers with disabled children. *IJETSAR-International Journal of Education Technology and Scientific Researches, 5*(13), 1445-1468.

Hawkins, D. N., & Booth, A. (2005). Unhappily ever after: Effects of long-term, lowquality marriages on well-being. *Social Forces, 84*(1), 447-465.

Helms, H., M., & Buehler, C. (2007). Marital quality and personal well-being: A metaanalysis. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 69*(3), 576-593.

Jackson, J.B., Miller, R. B., Oka, M., & Henry, R. G. (2014). Gender differences in marital satisfaction: A meta-analysis, *Journal of Marriage and Family, 76*(1), 246-245, https://doi.org/10.1111/jomf.12077

Jones, L. S., Williams, M., & Smith, A. B. (2016). The association between socioeconomic status and burnout in married couples: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Marriage and Family Therapy*, *42*(4), 789–802.

Johnson, R. M., & Smith, K. P. (2018). The impact of marital definition on Total Marital Satisfaction. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *40*(2), 289-304.

Johnson, R. (2019). The influence of age difference with spouse on burnout: A cross-Sectional study. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *33*(2), 187–201.

Johnson, R. L., & Brown, S. M. (2020). Exploring the complex relationship between marital satisfaction and burnout. *Journal of Family Studies*, *25*(1), 129–144.

Johnson, L. R., & Greenberg, L. S. (2014). Gender differences in marital burnout: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *28*(5), 678-688.

TIJSEG

Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counseling   2023, volume 12, issue 2

Karademas, E. C., & Roussi, P. (2017). Financial strain, dyadic coping, relationship satisfaction, and psychological distress: A dyadic mediation study in Greek couples. *Stress Health., 33(*5), 508-517. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2735

Karney, B. R., & Bradbury, T. N. (2020). Research on marital satisfaction and stability in the 2010s: Challenging conventional wisdom. *Journal of Marriage and Family* 82, 100–116.

Kaya, A. G., & Buğa, A. (2021). Anne babaların ebeveyn davranışlarının ve evlilik doyumlarının incelenmesi. *Sosyal Politika Çalışmaları Dergisi, 21*(51), 371-410.

Kim, H. K., & McKenry, P. C. (2002). The relationship between marriage and psychological well-being: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Family Issues, 23*(8), 885–911.

Körük, S., & Vapurlu, S. (2022). The mediating role of self-forgiveness in the relationship between perceived social support and adjustment to divorce. *Journal of Divorce & Remarriage, (63)*4, 277-297.

LeBaron-Black, A. B., Matthew T., Saxey, Casey J. et al. (2022). Financial communication as a mediator between financial values and marital outcomes, *Family Relations,* https://doi.org/10.1111/fare.12786

Maaß, S., Hirschfeld, G., & Schmitt, M. (2020). The role of personality traits for marital satisfaction in long-term relationships: Findings from a representative sample of German couples. *Journal of Personality*, *88*(4), 759-774.

Mahdavianfard, R., Asghari Ebrahim Abad, M., & Ghenaat Bajgirani, S. (2015). The prediction of marital burnout through pursuing and distancing in married female students. *Research In Clinical Psychology And Counseling*, *4*(2), 122–137.

Margelisch, K., Schneewind, K. A., Violette, J., &Perrig-Chiello, P. (2017). Marital stability, satisfaction and well-being in old age: Variability and continuity in long-term continuously married older persons. *Aging & Mental Health, 21*(4), 389-398.

McNulty, J. K., Meltzer, A. L., Neff, L. A., & Karney, B. R. (2021). How both partners' individual differences, stress, and behavior predict change in relationship satisfaction: Extending the VSA model. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA., 6,118*(27), e2101402118. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2101402118

Mohammed, H. M. (2016). Resilience as moderator variable to the relationship between burnout and marital satisfaction among workers of married couples in Egypt. *Indian Journal of Health and Wellbeing, (7)*5, 493-499.

Neff, L. A., & Broady, E. F. (2011). Stress resilience in early marriage: Can practice make perfect? *J Pers Soc Psychol.,101*(5),1050-67. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0023809

Özgüven, İ. E. (2020). *Evlilik ve aile terapisi* [in Turkish]. Nobel Yayınları.

Özmete, E. (2016). Evli kadınlar ve erkekler için psikolojik iyi oluş ölçeğinin Türkçe'ye uyarlaması [A study of the adaptation of the psychological well-being scale for married women and men to Turkish], *Bilig,* 78, 361- 391.

Pamuk, M. & Durmuş, E. (2015). Investigation of burnout in marriage. *Journal of Human Sciences*, *12*(1), 162–177.

Perelli-Harris, B., Hoherz, S., Lappegård, T. *et al.* (2019). Mind the "Happiness" gap: The relationship between cohabitation, marriage, and subjective well-being in the United Kingdom, Australia, Germany, and Norway. *Demography,* 56, 1219-1246. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13524-019-00792-4

Pietromonaco, P. R., & Overall, N. C. (2021). Applying relationship science to evaluate how the COVID-19 pandemic may impact couples' relationships. *American Psychologist, 76*(3), 438–450.

Pines, A. M., and Nunes, R. (2003). The relationship between career and couple burnout: Implications for career and couple counseling. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 40*(2), 50–64. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1920.2003.tb00856.x

Pines, A. M. (2005). The burnout measure short version (BMS). *International Journal of Stress Management,* 12, 78–88

Pines, A. M. (2017). *Çiftlerde tükenmişlik: Sebepleri ve çözümü* [in Turkish]. İletişim Publishing.

Randall, A. K., & Bodenmann, G. (2009). The role of stress on close relationships and marital satisfaction. *Clin Psychol Rev., 29*(2),105-15. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2008.10.004

Rehman, A. U., Bhuttah, T. M., & You, X. (2020). Linking Burnout to Psychological Well-being: The Mediating Role of Social Support and Learning Motivation. *Psychol Res Behav Manag., 8*(13),545-554. https://doi.org/10.2147/PRBM.S250961.

Reves M. E, Davis, D. R., Yapcengco, F. L, Mae M. C, Sylvierose C. B., Gesmundo, B., & Khryztelle M. J., (2020). Perceived parental acceptance, transgender congruence, and psychological well-being of Filipino Transgender individuals. *North American Journal of Psychology, 22*(1), 135-152.

Savla, J., Roberto, K. A., Blieszner, R., Cox, M., Gwazdauskas, F. J., & Gerontol, B. (2011). Effects of daily stressors on the psychological and biological well-being of spouses of persons with mild cognitive impairment. *Psychol Sci Soc Sci., 66*(6), 653-64. https://doi.org/10.1093/geronb/gbr041

Shek, D. T. L. (2001). Marital quality and psikological well-being of married adults ın a chinese context. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 156*(1), 45- 56.

Seligman, M. E. P. (2020). *Gerçek mutluluk* [Authentic Happiness]. İstanbul: Eksi Kitaplar Publisher.

Seligman, M. E. P. (2021). *Öğrenilmiş iyimserlik* [Learned optimism]. İstanbul: Eksi Kitaplar Publisher.

Smith, A., & Jones, B. (2018). The impact of age on burnout levels among professionals. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, *42*(3), 215–230.

Smith, A. B., Jones, H. E., & Segal, M. W. (2017). Gender differences in marital burnout: A longitudinal study, *Journal of Marriage and Family Therapy*, *43*(3), 456-469.

Smith, J. (2020). The impact of number of marriages on burnout levels: A comparative study. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *47*(3), 301–315.

Stafford, L., & Kuiper, K. (2021). Social exchange theories: Calculating the rewards and costs of personal relationships. In D. O. Braithwaite & P. Schrodt (Eds.), *Engaging theories in interpersonal* (3rd ed., p. 379–390). Sage Publications.

Tadik, Y. C. (2020). *Longitudinal associations between marital quality and maternal psychological well-being: The mediating role of coparenting in US-Born and Non-US-Born parents.* (Unpublished Dissertation). University of Georgia: USA

Toghraie, R., Daneshgar, N., Divsalar, M., & Ghezelseflo, M. (2023). Investigating the mediating role of psychological flexibility in the relationship between emotional intelligence and psychological well-being of couples. *Journal of Assessment and Research in Applied Counseling*, *5*(1), 58-64. https://doi.org/10.52547/jarac.5.1.71

Torr, B. M. (2011). The changing relationship between education and marriage in the United States, 1940–2000 *Journal of Family History, 36*(4), 483-503, https://doi.org/10.1177/0363199011416760

Ünal, Ö., & Akgün, S. (2022). Relationship of conflict resolution styles in marriage with marital adjustment and satisfaction - Evlilikte çatışma çözme stillerinin evlilik uyumu ve doyumu ile ilişkisi, *Psikiyatride Güncel Yaklaşımlar-Current Approaches in Psychiatry 14*(3), 322-330.

Vikram, K. (2023). Modern Marriage in a Traditional Society: The Influence of College Education on Marriage in India. *Journal of Family* Issues, 0192513X231155591. https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513X231155591

Van Loon, L., HeSDels, J., Rietveld, C. A., & Van Der Zwan, P., (2020). Separation from the life partner and exit from self-employment. *Front. Psychol.* 11, https://doi.org/ 10.3389/fpsyg.2020.01118.

Walker, R., Isherwood, L., Burton, C., Kitwe-Magambo, K., & Luszcz, M. (2013). Marital satisfaction among older couples: The role of satisfaction with social networks and psychological well-being. *The International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 76*(2), 123-139. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.2190/AG.76.2.b

Whisman, M. A., Uebelacker, L. A., Tolejko, N., Chatav, Y., & McKelvie, M. (2006). Marital discord and well-being in older life: Is the association confounded by personality? *Psychology and Aging, 21*(3), 626-631.

Widiastuti, D. (2021). Marital satisfaction in ındividuals who remarry after divorce, *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research,* 530, 131-137.

Won, S. K., & Seol, K. O. (2020). Actor and partner effects of couple's daily stress and dyadic coping on marital satisfaction. *J Korean Acad Nurs., 50*(6), 813-821. https://doi.org/10.4040/jkan.20162

Zhang, C., & Liang, Y. (2023). The impact of education level on marital satisfaction: Evidence from China. *Social Sciences & Humanities Open,* (7)1, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.SDaho.2023.100487

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE IMPACT OF MOTOR DEVELOPMENT ON STUDENTS' LANGUAGE AND SPEECH DEVELOPMENT

Miranda BARUTI-SYLEJMANI
PhD candidate at University "Ss. Cyril and Methodius", Faculty of Philosophy in Skopje
Department of Special education and rehabilitation, Skopje, N. Macedonia
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0574-161X
barutimiranda@gmail.com

Olivera RASHIKJ-CANEVSKA
Assoc. Professor at University "Ss. Cyril and Methodius", Faculty of Philosophy in Skopje
Institute of special education and rehabilitation, Skopje, N. Macedonia
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2385-5450
oliverarasic@fzf.ukim.edu.mk

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to understand the perceptions of teachers about the impact that motor development has on the development of language and speech in school-aged children. In this research we had 70 participants, where 97% of them were women and 3% of them were men. The instrument used for this research was a questionnaire which contained 5 demographic questions and 37 questions related to motor, language, and speech development. SPSS was used to analyze the results, where frequency analysis, Cronbach's alpha, correlation analysis and regression analysis were used. Based on the correlational analysis, we understood that the higher the motor development, the higher the speech development. We also understand that the higher the motor development in children, the higher is language development in children. Also, no less important, it should be noted that the higher the children's intelligibility, the higher the language development. At the same time, based on the regression analysis, we understand that motor development affects the positive development of language and speech.

Keywords: Teachers' perceptions, development, motor skills, language, speech.

INTRODUCTION

Language development in children begins before birth. The parent, especially the mother, must commit to a large extent to talk to her embryo during pregnancy. The embryo, even though it is in the mother's womb, is able to hear and respond to all signals or stimuli from the external environment. Motor development also begins from the birth of children, when parents commit themselves to children doing various activities that increase the possibility of developing fine, oral, and global motor skills.

Different authors (Hotulainen et al., 2010; Dodd & McIntosh, 2010; Nip, et al., 2011) have presented the importance of language and speech development based on verbal-motor development. However, the importance of understanding the connection between full motor development and the development of language and speech has been used in different literature, where the authors present a deeper understanding of this part (Son & Meisels, 2006; Iverson, 2010; Leonard & Hill, 2014).

Iverson (2010) comes to the conclusion that the idea which is about the connection between motor development and language development has to do with the advanced motor skills that babies have and gives them the opportunity to experience the world around them. Even Behrens & Hauch (2011) in their research emphasize that the development of children in the physical aspect such as; changing

their position, then their movement helps them to experience and deal with the first things in their environment, and with these skills children also improve their basic skills in the development of language and speech.

It is worth noting that we have a number of theories that talk about the topic in question. For example, the theory on the development of gestures (Iverson & Goldin-Meadow, 2005; Zambrana et al., 2012) talks about motor skills, which can be said to influence the performance or development of gestures, and various studies have shown us that children who have language and speech delays also have problems with gestures. Even from the earliest years, authors have aimed to discover the connection between these two factors (motor and speech), so Rizzolatti & Arbib (1998) have stated in cognitive motor theories, that knowledge is embedded in actions, and in this case, perception and action share common codes from the basic neural aspect. Thus, it has been suggested that the neuron is the basic neural mechanism that affects the development of language, and this system presents us with a strong connection between language and the actions that children do. The latest theory about sympathetic cognition argues that motor resonance increases language comprehension (Glenberg & Kaschak, 2002; Fischer & Zwaan, 2008).

It is indisputable that the production of speech is a motor act, and in this case the connections between oral-motor physiology and the acquisition of oral language skills are also described in articles by different authors (Thelen, 1991; Green & Wilson, 2006; Nip, Green & Marx, 2009), in this case it is understood that children who, as they learn to coordinate and control the articulation of speech, positively affect language development (Iverson, 2010).

Karasik and co-authors (2011) emphasized that children's interaction with the environment requires sensory, physical, and motor skills, which develop continuously during early childhood. For example, at the moment when children develop walking, the way in which they will share objects during the game with the mother and the verbal responses given to the children, in this aspect, is also determined. Meanwhile, Thelen (1979), did a longitudinal study, in which he reported that in babies with typical development, during the first year of life, they have a very high achievement in the frequency of rhythmic movements of the arms, such as shaking, moving, etc. While other authors (Koopmans-can Beinum & Van der Stelt, 1986; Oller & Eilers, 1988) emphasized during different years that during the first year of life, children with typical development produce repeated noises, vocalizations in which well-informed syllables are organized in an organized sequence, in regular and rhythmic time, for example "bababa".

Kuder (2012) in his research emphasized that speaking is a neuromuscular act which helps in the production of sounds, to use the language. He also pointed out that through language we communicate thoughts, ideas and meanings, but we don't always need speech to do this. Example, American Sign Language, is a language that uses different gestures that help deaf people to communicate with each other, this language can be learned even by those who are not deaf.

Kuhn et al. (2014) in a longitudinal study of 1066 children from low-income families, in the USA, with children between the ages of 15 months and 3 years, found that the increase in the use of gestures and language at a younger age was related to the most developed executive function at the age of four, although the effect was mediated through later language development (2-3 years of age). This study in a word revealed that early language development had significant positive direct and indirect effects on the later development of children's executive function.

As mentioned above, the possible effects of motor skills on language development have not yet been properly researched. Different authors tell us that the connections between motor skills and language development have been investigated when there was an existing pathology from one of these areas (Hohm et al., 2007; Rechetnikov et al., 2009; Hartman et al., 2010; Visscher et al., 2010; Westendorp et al., 2011; Iverson & Braddock, 2011; Müürsepp et al., 2012; Rintala & Loovis, 2013; Westendorp et al., 2014; Müürsepp et al., 2014).

Mulé et al. (2022) in their research excluded children with speech impediments and other medical impairments. They emphasized that inactive children had weaker results in all language development subtests, compared to children who spent more time in different activities in sports clubs during the week. It is worth noting that in this study, unstructured activities, attendance at kindergartens and sports clubs had a positive effect on language subtests that were conducted with children such as "Formation of morphological rules" and "Phonological memory for non-words".

Then, Wang and co-authors (2014) in their research found a possible positive relationship between language performance at an early age and the development of fine and global motor skills. In this research, 11,999 children between the ages of three and five were tested.

METHOD

The research approach of the paper is quantitative, where the data is obtained through surveys. If we talk about the type of research, it is of a pure research type, as it is being developed to explore an issue, and will be completed with the aim of gaining a better understanding of the general concepts. Also, based on the division of the time period, it is a cross-sectional or representative study, as it includes finding data from selected respondents due to their interest in the topic, at a certain point in time.

Research participants
The first table shows that in this research we had 70 participants, where 97% of them were women and 3% of them were men.

Table 1. Data about the gender of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	3	3	3	3
Female	67	97	97	100.0
Total	70	100.0	100.0	

Also, the second table shows that 15% of the respondents lived in the countryside, while 85% of them lived in the city.

Table 2. Data about the residence of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Rural	10	15	15	15
City	60	85	85	100.0
Total	70	100.0	100.0	

The instrument used for this research
The instrument used for this research was "Five-To-Fifteen-Revised (5-15R) (Kadesjö et al., 2017). This questionnaire contains a large number of questions, but the questions that have been necessary for this research have been used. It is worth noting that this questionnaire contained 5 demographic questions and 37 questions related to motor development, language, and speech. The questionnaire is adapted to the Albanian language.

Also, SPSS was used to analyze the results, where frequency analysis (for respondents' data), Cronbach's alpha, correlation analysis and regression analysis were used. The data of the respondents remain anonymous and confidential, also their participation in this research was voluntary.

RESULTS

Cronbach's Alpha
The reliability analysis helps us to understand that we have very high reliability of the questionnaire, based on the quality of the variables used, where Cronbach's alpha is .963.

Table 3. Reliability analysis based on questionnaire variables

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.963	36

Correlation analysis

Based on the fourth table, with the help of correlational analysis we can understand the connection between motor development, language and speech.

Thus, there is a significant positive correlation between "Motor Development" and "Speech Development", r=.848**, p<.01. There is also a significant positive correlation between "Motor Development" and "Language Development", r=.826**, p<.01.

Table 4. The relationship between motor development, language and speech

		1	2	3
Motor Development (1)	Pearson Correlation	1	.848**	.826
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	70	70	70
Speech Development (2)	Pearson Correlation	.848**	1	.828**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	70	70	70
Language Development (3)	Pearson Correlation	.826**	.828**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	70	70	70

We also have a significant correlation between "Speech Development" and "Language Development", r=.828**, p<.01.

Regression analysis

Linear regression was used to test if motor development affects children's speech development. Thus, the results presented in table 5 show us that motor development has an impact on speech development, which is also explained by the model, $F (1/68) = 3.82895$, sig.= .000.

Table 5. The influence of motor development on speech development

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig
1	.848[a]	.718	.714	3.82895	173.444	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Speech Development
b. Predictors: (Constant), Motor Development

The results presented in table 6 show us that motor development has an impact on language development, which is also explained by the model, $F (1/68) = 2.17802$, sig. = ,000.

Table 6. The influence of motor development on language development

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Sig
1	.826[a]	.682	.678	2.17802	145.983	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Language Development
b. Predictors: (Constant), Motor Development

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION and SUGGESTIONS

The purpose of this research was to understand the perceptions of teachers about the impact that motor development has on the development of language and speech in school-aged children. Based on this purpose, the variables were also analyzed, where it was understood that the higher the motor development, the higher the children's speech development. Also, based on this analysis (correlation analysis), we also understand that the higher the motor development in children, the higher the language development in children. Also, no less important, it should be noted that the higher the children's intelligibility, the higher the language development and vice versa.

Also, based on the regression analysis, we understand that motor development affects the positive development of language and speech. These analyzes are reliable, based on the result of cronbach's alpha .963, where we have high reliability of the variables used in this questionnaire.

Iverson (2010) tells us that the acquisition of motor skills in babies offers opportunities to practice skills related to language acquisition. The rhythmic movements of the arm, which babies make, enable them to perform actions organized in a rhythmic way, which later affect the development of language and speech. Thus, according to this research, before and during the period of saying the first word, babies practice different actions; they play, manipulate and act with toys in a progressive and specific way. They progressively name and assign more specific meanings by extending the common meaning to a variety of referents. In a word, all these forms of action are closely related to the appearance of the early moments of language, which depends on the progress in motor skills.

Bishop (2002) has argued that co-occurring motor and language difficulties may have a genetic basis, with genes that put a child at risk for communication impairment also affecting motor development.

Thus, it is worth noting that Bishop's viewpoint is supported by a large number of authors from their prospective studies of infants at risk for a range of communication disorders, including autism spectrum disorder (Iverson & Wozniak, 2007) and dyslexia (Viholainen, Ahonen, Cantell, Lyytinen & Lyytinen, 2002; Viholaneny, Ahonen, Cantell, Tolvanen, & Lyytinen, 2006), for whom the achievement of early motor milestones (e.g. independent sitting) lags behind that of infants of risk-free comparison.

Based on the findings of the research, the following conclusions emerge:

- ✓ the higher the motor development, the higher the speech development of the children,
- ✓ the higher the motor development in children, the higher the language development in children,
- ✓ the higher the children's intelligibility, the higher the language development and vice versa, motor affects the positive development of language and speech.

Ethics and Conflict of Interest
As the authors of this article, we have acted in accordance with ethical rules at all stages of the research. We also declare that there is no conflict of interest among the authors.

REFERENCES

Behrens, M., & Hauch, J. (2011). *Motor development influence language development*. Marquette University.

Bishop, D. V. M. (2002). Motor immaturity and specific speech and language impairment: Evidence for acommon genetic basis. *American Journal of Medical Genetics (Neuropsychiatric Genetics), 8*(114), 56–63. doi: 10.1002/ajmg.1630

Dodd, B., & McIntosh, B. (2010). Two-year-old phonology: impact of input, motor and cognitive abilities on development. *Journal of Child Language, 37*(5), 1027–1046. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0305000909990171

Fischer, M. H., & Zwaan, R. A. (2008). Embodied language: a review of the role of the motor system in language comprehension. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology, 61*(6), 825-850. 10.1080/17470210701623605.

Green, J. R., & Wilson, E. M. (2006). Spontaneous facial motility in infancy: A 3D kinematic analysis. *Developmental Psychobiology, 48*(1),16-28. doi: 10.1002/dev.20112

Hartman, E., Houwen, S., Scherder, E., & Visscher, C. (2010). On the relationship between motor performance and executive functioning inchildren with intellectual disabilities. *J. Intellect. Disabil. Res. 54*(5), 468-477. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2788.2010.01284.x

Hohm, E., Jennen-Steinmetz, C., Schmidt, M. H., & Laucht, M. (2007). Language development at ten months. Predictive of languageoutcome and school achievement ten years later? *Eur. Child Adolesc. Psychiatry, 16*(3), 149-156. doi: 10.1007/s00787-006-0567-y

Hotulainen, R., Lappalainen, K., Ruoho, K., & Savolainen, H. (2010). Pre-school verbosensory motor status as a predictor of educational life-courses and self-perceptions of young adults. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education, 57*(3), 299–314. https://doi.org/10.1080/1034912X.2010.501205

TIJSEG

Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counseling   2023, volume 12, issue 2

Iverson, J. M., & Braddock, B. A. (2011). Gesture and motor skill in relation to language in children with language impairment. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research, 54*(1), 72-86. doi: 10.1044/1092-4388(2010/08-0197)

Iverson, J. M., & Wozniak, R. H. (2007). Variation in vocal-motor development in infant siblings of children withautism. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders, 37*(1),158-170. doi: 10.1007/s10803-006-0339-z

Iverson, J. M., & Goldin-Meadow, S. (2005). Gesture paves the way for language development. *Psychological Science, 16*(5), 367-371. 10.1111/j.0956-7976.2005.01542.x.

Kadesjö, B., Janols. L-O, Korkman, M., Mickelsson, K., Strand, G., Trillingsgaard, A., Lambek, R., Øgrim, G., Bredesen, A. M., & Gillberg, C. (2017). Five-To-Fifteen-Revised (5-15R). Available at www.5-15.org

Karasik, L. B., Tamis-LeMonda, C. S., & Adolph, K. E. (2011). Transition from crawling to walking affects infants' social actions with objects. *Child Development, 82*(4),1199-209. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-8624.2011.01595.x

Koopmans-van Beinum, F. J., & van der Stelt, J. M. (1986). Early stages in the development of speech movements. In: Lindbom, B., Zetterstrom, R., editors. *Precursors of early speech*. New York: Stockton Press; p. 37-50.

Kuder, S. J. (2012). *Teaching students with language and communication disabilities*. (4 th ed.) New York: Pearson.

Kuhn, L. J., Willoughby, M. T., Wilbourn, M. P., Vernon-Feagans, L., & Blair, C. B. (2014). Early communicative gestures prospectively predict language development and executive function in early childhood. *Child Development, 85*(5), 1898-1914. doi: 10.1111/cdev.12249

Leonard, H. C., & Hill, E. L. (2014). Review: The impact of motor development on typical and atypical social cognition and language: A systematic review. *Child and Adolescent Mental Health, 19*(3), 163–170. https://doi.org/10.1111/camh.12055

Müürsepp, I., Aibast, H., Gapeyeva, H., & Pääsuke, M. (2014). Sensorimotor function in preschool-aged children with expressive languagedisorder. *Res. Dev. Disabil. 35*(6), 1237–1243. doi: 10.1016/j.ridd.2014.03.007

Müürsepp, I., Aibast, H., Gapeyeva, H., & Pääsuke, M. (2012). Motor skills, haptic perception and social abilities in children with mildspeech disorders. *Brain Dev. 34*(2), 128–132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.braindev.2011.02.002

Nip, I. S., Green, J. R., & Marx, D. B. (2011). The co-emergence of cognition, language, and speech motor control in early development: A longitudinal correlation study. *Journal of Communication Disorders, 44*(2), 149-160. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcomdis.2010.08.002

Oller, D. K., & Eilers, R. E. (1988). The role of audition in infant babbling. *Child Development, 59*(2), 441-466.

Rintala, P., & Loovis, E.M. (2013). Measuring motor skills in Finnish children with intellectual disabilities. *Percept. Mot. Ski. 116*(1), 294-303. doi: 10.2466/25.10.PMS.116.1.294-303

Rizzolatti, G., & Arbib, M. A. (1998). Language within our grasp. *Trends in Neurosciences, 21*(5), 188-194. Doi:10.1016/S0166-2236(98)01260-0.

Son, S. H., & Meisels, S. J. (2006). The relationship of young children's motor skills to later reading and math achievement. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 52*(4), 755-778. https://doi.org/10.1353/mpq.2006.0033

Thelen, E. (1991). *Motor aspects of emergent speech: A dynamic approach*. In: Krasnegor, N., editor. Biobehavioral foundations of language. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum. p. 339-362.

Thelen, E. (1979). Rhythmical stereotypies in normal human infants. *Animal Behaviour, 27*(3), 699-715. doi: 10.1016/0003-3472(79)90006-x

Visscher, C., Houwen, S., Moolenaar, B., Lyons, J., Scherder, E. J. A., & Hartman, E. (2010). Motor proficiency of 6- to 9-year-old childrenwith speech and language problems. *Dev. Med. Child Neurol. 52*(11), e254-e258. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8749.2010.03774.x

Viholainen, H., Ahonen, T., Cantell, M., Lyytinen, P., & Lyytinen, H.(2002). Development of early motor skills andlanguage in children at risk for familial dyslexia. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurolog, 44*(11), 761–769. doi: 10.1017/s0012162201002894

Viholainen, H., Ahonen, T., Lyytinen, P., Cantell, M., Tolvanen, A., & Lyytinen, H. (2006). Early motor developmentand later language and reading skills in children at risk of familial dyslexia. *Developmental Medicine & Child Neurology, 48*(5), 367-373. doi: 10.1017/S001216220600079X

Wang, M. V., Lekhal, R., Aaro, L. E., Holte, A., & Schjolberg, S. (2014). The developmental relationship between language and motorperformance from 3 to 5 years of age: A prospective longitudinal population study. *BMC Psychol, 2*(34), 1-10, https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-014-0034-3

Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counseling   2023, volume 12, issue 2

Westendorp, M., Hartman, E., Houwen, S., Huijgen, B. C. H., Smith, J., & Visscher, C. (2014). A longitudinal study on gross motordevelopment in children with learning disorders. *Res. Dev. Disabil. 35*(2), 357-363. doi: 10.1016/j.ridd.2013.11.018.

Westendorp, M., Houwen, S., Hartman, E., & Visscher, C. (2011). Are gross motor skills and sports participation related in children withintellectual disabilities? *Res. Dev. Disabil. 32*(3), 1147-1153. doi: 10.1016/j.ridd.2011.01.009.

Zambrana, I. M., Ystrom, E., & Pons, F. (2012). Impact of gender, maternal education, and birth order on the development of language comprehension: a longitudinal study from 18 to 36 months of age. *Journal of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, 33*(2), 146-155. doi: 10.1097/DBP.0b013e31823d4f83.

READING AUTONOMY AND TRANSLATION ABILITY: UNFOLDING THE ELEMENT OF TEXTS FOR ESP STUDENTS

Naser MALEKPARVAR
Islamic Azad University, Quchan, Iran
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0008-3179-900X
malekparvarnaser@gmail.com

Mostafa JAFARZADEH
Islamic Azad University, Quchan, Iran
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6156-7308
mostafa.jafarzadeh2008@gmail.com

Suggested Citation:
Malekparvar, N., & Jafarzadeh, M. (2023). Reading autonomy and translation ability: Unfolding the element of texts for ESP students. *Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counselling (TIJSEG), 12*(2), 128-139.

Abstract

The present study mainly aimed to investigate the extent to which ESP students employ the elements of text analysis for translation and examine if knowledge of text analysis enhances the reading autonomy of ESP students. In so doing, a sample of 34 homogeneous ESP university students studying Computer Engineering participated in this study based on convenient sampling, and six students were selected to participate in the interview phase of the study based on data saturation methods. The researchers taught the elements of text analysis for translation suggested by Nord (1991) to the students in the experimental group, helping them to analyze the texts and become independent in interpreting the texts and translating the texts more naturally. The study results confirmed that translation students could employ the elements of text analysis in their translations following the treatment phase. The results obtained from one-way ANCOVA revealed a significant difference between the control and experimental groups concerning their reading autonomy scores, with the latter having scores. Finally, the results of the interviews revealed that students were satisfied with the text analysis elements, and it was a novel experience for them. ESP students should know that they should not only gain knowledge of text structure but also resort to other elements such as presupposition and visual images like diagrams and pictures to create good translation.

Keywords: Text analysis, reading autonomy, translation ability, ESP students.

INTRODUCTION

In the modern era, translation has emerged as a growing profession. Hatim and Munday (2004) state that the previous two decades have seen the growth of Translation Studies as an academic area. Similar to how Snell-Hornby (1990) described Translation Studies as "a sub-discipline of applied linguistics," the concept of translation strategy quickly became central to the field. Until the twentieth century, Western Europeans argued about whether or not literal or figurative translation was preferable (Munday, 2016). Finding differences between aspects of each language in the translating process is one of the keys that may unlock doors toward research on the translation of all languages. Therefore, the connection between linguistic competence and translation is one of the most essential insights in Translation Studies. Reading is a separate and crucial ability in this respect (Bakker et al., 1998). Scholars generally agree, as Pang (2008) points out, that reading is essential for second language learners. Reading, as Nuttal (1996) points out, is both the "most researched" and "least understood" educational process. Although most people agree that reading is essential, there are many different perspectives on what reading is. The current literature acknowledges the potential for translation to help students increase their vocabulary and reading comprehension (Jalilzadeh et al., 2020; Rouhani & Modarresi, 2023).

Precisely, the ability to create and re-construct meaning from texts using various skills and knowledge constitutes reading comprehension (National et al., 2000; Blachowicz & Ogle, 2001). Although English-medium education presents hurdles to ESP (Zhang & Chan, 2017), ESP students often learn English for academic or professional goals, requiring extensive reading. There is no denying that the importance of translation as a teaching tool has grown in recent years in language classrooms (Duff, 1994). According to Beeby (1996), many of the writing community is vocally advocating for a return to translation practice in second language education, particularly in ESP reading classes.

Ross (2000) argues that translation is the ultimate social ability since it fosters understanding and communication. Effectively moving from the early efforts of learning to read to the later purpose of reading is a natural progression for readers as they develop their comprehension abilities (Yovanoff et al., 2005). Although the use of translation in ESP classrooms has been on the wane among language professionals, students continue to find value in the practice. There has been debate concerning the efficacy of using translation as a teaching tool in the second language teaching/learning process for quite some time now (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Furthermore, recent research (Modarresi, 2019; Khakshour et al., 2018) demonstrates a link between translation and participation and vocabulary usage.

Both instructors and students may benefit significantly from using translation in ESP classes. There are better approaches than distributing a material and then having students translate it (Dagiliene, 2012). English as a Second Language (ESL) classes might benefit from using translation methodologies by introducing their students to the academic processes involved in translating materials. Strategies may be overt and covert, mental and physical, conscious and unconscious (Séguinot, 1991). The phrase has specific, intended connotations in this analysis. The process of translation may provide scaffolded reading comprehension instruction. According to Leonardi (2007), before attempting to translate a text, students should analyze it closely to establish what it is about.

When translating from English into Persian, students studying fields related to engineering need help with producing a natural and fluent translation because they are unaware of translation strategies and believe that translation is simply a matter of selecting equivalences from their specialized dictionary. Their lessons do not emphasize reading the content in its original language and translating it into another language, even though this is the key to producing a competent translation. They need to learn how to examine the material or what method to use. Little is known about how text analysis for translation might help second-language learners.

The present study makes a significant contribution to ESP courses by emphasizing the significance of translation strategies for students majoring in Engineering disciplines, which can help them learn how to analyze the text before doing translation, motivate them to become autonomous in their reading skills, and produce more natural translations. For ESP students to take ownership of their work and improve their translations, it is essential to foster an environment of independence (Ross, 2000). Regarding reading and translation, Fener and Newby (2000) claim that independence eliminates comprehension issues. According to them, genuinely autonomous ESP students challenge themselves to grow in their capacity for reflective self-management of their educational processes.

Several factors affect a person's reading comprehension, say Sweet and Snow (2003). Learner autonomy is one such factor, despite being a method of interaction between the writer and reader rather than the end objective of reading itself. According to Zarei and Ghahremani (2010), few researchers have concentrated on establishing autonomous reading, which is one of the severe gaps in the literature on reading comprehension and learner autonomy. Although Rivers (1987) states that reading comprehension is the most critical skill for any language, there will always be students who need help to read independently and extensively (Pang, 2008).

From the standpoint from which they examine the word (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1958; Nida & Taber, 1969; Newmark, 1981; Baker, 1992; House, 1997; Pym, 2009), practitioners and researchers in the field of Translation Studies have defined and classified the term translation strategies in various ways. Honig (1991) divides tactics into micro-, rules-, and macro-level approaches. To paraphrase what Palumbo (2009) calls "the transfer operation that translators conduct on a specific structure or concept present in the source text," a translation strategy is the process through which the translators do this. Séguinot (1991) examined how translators adapt a text into another language. Still, the author looked into methods different from what most translation theorists had considered before (even though they were very similar to methods developed by scholars in second language acquisition and interlanguage communication; cf. Faerch & Kasper, 1983). The methods included using a dictionary to check up each word, writing a rough copy, and highlighting key phrases. Suppose instructors and educators are well-versed in text analysis and assessment. In that case, they may give their pupils a more precise measure of their ability to read specialist literature in the target language (see Modarresi et al., 2021; Khoramy & Modarresi, 2019).

Theoretical Framework of the Study
Researchers used text analysis and understanding methods established by Nord (1991) and translated them into English. Product translation, which is also known as documentary translation, and process translation, also known as instrumental translation, are the two primary categories of translation that Nord (1991) initially distinguishes. Content, assumptions, non-verbal aspects, lexicon, and syntax were all considered in this study, as indicated by Nord (1991) as parts of text analysis used in translation. According to Nord (1991), analyzing texts helps students develop into independent readers who can read and comprehend independently, improving their ability to interpret texts effectively and naturally. Lexis includes general meaning and specialized meaning; sentence structure includes simple sentences, complex sentences, dependent and independent clauses, and voices; non-verbal elements include pictures, charts, and diagrams; content includes citations, conjunctions, and paraphrasing; and sentence presuppositions include omissions of references to other works.

Purpose of the Study
The primary purpose of this study was to investigate whether or not ESP students could apply the principles of text analysis for translation according to the recommendations made by Nord (1991) and to do so, researchers taught the students how to analyze texts. The questionnaires administered before and after the intervention allowed us to evaluate another aim of the study to see whether text analysis might improve the reading autonomy of ESP students. The research also aimed to see whether there was a correlation between ESP students' level of reading independence and their ability to translate into computer science. Finally, the research investigated the students' perspectives on how their exposure to text analysis aspects affected their translation work.

Research Questions
Therefore, the team of researchers set out to respond to the following four queries:
1. To what extent do ESP students employ the elements of text analysis in their translations?
2. Does text analysis enhance the reading autonomy of ESP students?
3. Is there any significant relationship between reading autonomy and the translation ability of ESP students?
4. What do ESP students think of being exposed to elements of text analysis in translation practice?

METHOD

Research Design
This study combined qualitative and quantitative approaches by using a comparative descriptive study, descriptive statistics, and inferential statistics (Dörnyei, 2007) to provide more nuanced results.

Participants

A pool of 34 Computer Engineering students from the Engineering University of Technologies in Quchan, in northeastern Iran, comprised the sample based on convenient sampling. The students had previously completed General English for three credits and were now enrolling in the advanced English Language course. The student body was vast and diverse. For this study, we randomly assigned 16 students to the experimental group and 18 to the control group. Initial language proficiency homogeneity across students allowed researchers to choose only students whose results were one standard deviation below or above the mean. Participating students had NELSON scores between 32 and 18, one standard deviation above and below the mean. Therefore, 34 students continued from the original group of 39. Moreover, six students were selected to participate in the interview phase of the study based on data saturation methods. The sample size seemed to be adequate since, according to (Dörnyei, 2007), an interview study with a sample size of six to 10 might work well.

Instrumentations

The study utilized six instruments to gather the relevant data. The first instrument was the NELSON proficiency test, including 50 items (Fowler & Coe, 1978). The test is in multiple-choice format, consisting of cloze passages, vocabulary, structure, and pronunciation. The reliability estimate of the test is quite acceptable (r=.82) (Hashemian et al., 2012). The scoring procedure is marked out of 50; one score is allocated to each question.

The second instrument was a test of translation used to measure students' translation ability before the treatment phase. The test was taken from the students' textbook "Special English for Students of Computer" compiled by Haghani (2015), which is used as the primary source in the Specialized Language Course as a two-credit course. The text had more than 400 words since the minimum number of words for a text to be evaluated by translation assessment rubrics should be 400 (Kim, 2009). The pre-test of translation was composed of 428 words.

The third instrument was a test of translation used to measure students' translation ability following the treatment phase. The test was taken from the students' textbook "Special English for Students of Computer" compiled by Haghani (2015), which is used as the primary source in the Specialized Language Course as a two-credit course. The text, again, had more than 400 words since the minimum number of words for a text to be evaluated by translation assessment rubrics should be 400 (Kim, 2009). The tests had the same text difficulty and content—the post-test of translation is composed of 418 words. The Flesh test was employed to determine the level of text difficulty. The formula uses metrics to determine a text difficulty level. In this formula, a result of 7.1 means that the text has difficulty; that is to say, below 7.1, the text is regarded as an accessible text. The researchers applied this formula to the texts and came up with a result of 6.73, indicating that the texts were not complicated or straightforward.

The fourth instrument was the Reading Autonomy Questionnaire, adapted and modified by Sariçoban and Alyas (2011). The questionnaire's reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha Analysis) is 92.1%. The questionnaire consists of 35 close-ended Likert-type questions ranging from one to five. The questions are related to students' autonomy in ESP reading, and students are asked to indicate the degree of autonomy in reading English materials on a five-point scale, that is: Never: 1; Rarely: 2; Sometimes: 3; Often: 4; and Always: 5 (Appendix D).

The fifth instrument was the assessment rubric developed by Beeby (2000), which was used to measure students' translation abilities. In her model, each translation task is calculated out of 20: 10 points are allocated to 10 specific translation problems elicited from the text, 10 points are allocated to language problems, and marks are deducted from grammar mistakes. One point is subtracted for incorrect syntax, tense, agreement, and word order, and 0.5 points for incorrect articles, prepositions, and spelling. The 10

points specified for measuring translation ability are Point 1, representing the successful translation of the headline or title of the text; Point 2, representing typographical differences, for example, capital letters in English and not in other languages. Point 3 for transfer competence. The other point is for discourse competence. The next point is for syntactic differences, and the other is for splitting long sentences. Point 7 is for exploitation and clarifying the implicit information where necessary. Point 8 is for lexical errors due to excessive faith in a dictionary. Point 9 represents cultural transfer and point 10 represents extra-linguistic knowledge.

The last instrument was semi-structured interview questions designed by the researchers to explore the students' perceptions of the text analysis in improving their reading autonomy and translation ability. The content validity of the items was checked by two experts in the field of Translation Studies who had been teaching translation courses at the Islamic Azad University of Quchan. Having obtained the feedback from the experts, the researchers modified the questions in terms of their content validity.

Data Collection Procedure
The researchers' methodology for collecting data and carrying out the investigation was as follows:
Week One. To ensure that their sample was representative of the population as a whole, researchers handed out homogeneity tests at the first meeting. Having leveled the playing field regarding students' baseline linguistic competence, they considered only those with scores one standard deviation above or below the mean. Of the pupils, 39 participated since their test results were within the desired range for uniformity. There were 18 pupils in the control group and 16 in the experimentation group.

Week Two. A researcher in this study with extensive experience teaching ESP classes at the university level gave the pre-translation exam to the students in the next session. The students' performance on the exam was based on material from the textbook "Special English for Students of Computer" by Haghani (2015), which served as the primary reading material for the students in the two-credit course "Specialized Language."

Week Three to Week Five. Throughout the following three sessions, the instructor guided the students in the experimental group through the steps of text analysis for translation, as outlined by Nord (1991), so that they could study the texts on their own and translate them with confidence. The five pillars on which the model rested were content, assumptions, non-verbal cues, lexicon, and sentence structure. The instructor helped the students with the texts and instructed them on using these techniques in their translations. Classes were held every Monday from 14:00 to 16:00 throughout the treatment period (April 16-30, 2018).

Week Six. The students' "Special English for Students of Computer" textbook concluded with a post-session translation exam, which their instructor gave.

Week Seven. The instructor handed out the reading independence survey at this time. They read the instructions and described the survey's aim to the pupils. Names and fields of study were among the personal data collected in the questionnaire. Students were instructed to read the questionnaire items thoroughly and reply accurately, and researchers were available to answer any questions arising from this process.

Week Eight. The instructor interviewed six students in this session to get their perspectives on how text analysis has helped them become more independent readers and better translators. In order to get ESP students' perspectives on how knowledge of text analysis affects their independent reading and translation performance, the teacher followed the recommendations made by Dörnyei (2007) and used a simple semi-structured interview question consisting of four open-ended statements. Participants were encouraged to record as many justifications as possible and reflect on what they learned throughout therapy. After that, the researchers sorted through the data and understood it all.

RESULTS

The results obtained from the study are reported in four distinct sections to provide answers to each of the research questions.

The Elements of Text Analysis Employed by ESP Students

To find the answer to the first research question of the study regarding the extent to which ESP students employed elements of text analysis, the researchers scrutinized the translations created by the students on their post-test of translation following the treatment. The elements that the researchers analyzed included the five elements of text analysis that ESP students could employ in order to translate the specialized texts. The results of descriptive statistics yielded the frequency and percent of the elements elicited by the researchers from the students' translations.

Table 1. The frequency and percent of text elements employed by the students.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Presupposition	13	27.7	27.7	27.7
	Lexis	11	23.4	23.4	51.1
	Content	9	19.1	19.1	70.2
	non-verbal elements	8	17.0	17.0	87.2
	sentence structure	6	12.8	12.8	100.0
	Total	47	100.0	100.0	

As shown in Table 1, ESP students applied the translation elements in their translations from the most to the least as follows: (1) presupposition (27.7%), (2) lexis (23.4%), (3) content (19.1%), (4) non-verbal elements (17%), and (5) sentence structure (12.8%). The students could employ the presupposition and lexis more than the other elements. The analysis of the students' translations on the pre-test and the observations by the teacher during the treatment phase showed that the students knew nothing about the translation strategies, and there were cases in which they used translation strategies in their translations not consciously but unconsciously. However, the students applied translation strategies considerably and consciously following the treatment.

Indeed, concerning presupposition, the students could relate their understanding of the text to their previous knowledge. As for the lexis, the students could cope with the understanding of specialized words more than that of general words. Students could also better translate the passage's content, especially concerning the punctuation. The analysis of the translations revealed that students knew that punctuations may function differently from one language to another since they could employ this strategy in their translations, translating the punctuations accurately. Regarding the non-verbal elements, they could translate charts and pictures more clearly and render images to texts, if necessary. Finally, since students already became familiar with the different sentence structures in English during the treatment phase, they could break long or complex sentences into smaller phrases or clauses to understand the original text better so that they could yield more natural translations.

The impact of Text Analysis on Reading Autonomy for ESP Students

To find the answer to the study's second research question concerning whether text analysis could enhance ESP students' reading autonomy, the researchers used one-way ANCOVA since the data were interval. Reading autonomy was measured employing the Reading Autonomy Questionnaire, and since the questionnaire consisted of 35 items, the scores were calculated between 35 and 175. The minimum score on the test was 35, and the maximum score one could obtain on the test was 175. The relevant questionnaire was distributed to the students of both groups before and after the treatment. Before performing one-way ANCOVA, some assumptions were met, entailing linearity for each group, the homogeneity of regression

slopes between the covariate and the dependent variable for each group, and the assumption of equality of variance.

The general distribution of scores for both groups showed that there appeared to be a linear (straight-line) relationship for each group. Indeed, there had been no sign of a curvilinear relationship. The relationship was linear, so there was no violation of the assumption of the linear relationship. Moreover, the significant level for the interaction was .48, so there was no violation of the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes since the value was more significant than .05. This supported the earlier conclusion obtained from examining the scatter plots for each group. Finally, Levene's test of equality of error variances was checked, and the results showed no violation of the assumption of equality of variance because the significant value was .10, immensely more excellent than the cut-off value of .05.

Following this, the results of the Descriptive Statistics showed that the control group had a mean of 84.61 and a standard deviation of 12.11, and the experimental group had a mean of 97.37 and a standard deviation of 19.31. Finally, one-way ANCOVA was run to see if the two groups differed significantly regarding their reading autonomy scores.

Table 2. Test of ANCOVA for reading autonomy.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	5571.16[a]	2	2785.58	22.12	.00	.58
Intercept	53.31	1	53.31	.42	.52	.01
Pre-test	4191.16	1	4191.16	33.29	.00	.51
Group	855.15	1	855.15	6.79	.01	.18
Error	3902.86	31	125.89			
Total	288667.00	34				
Corrected Total	9474.02	33				

a. R Squared = .588 (Adjusted R Squared = .561)

As shown in Table 2, the significant value was less than .05 (here, it was .01); thus, the groups differed significantly. Therefore, there was a significant difference in the ESP students' reading autonomy scores after controlling for their scores on the pre-test before the treatment phase. The experimental group outperformed the control group. Following the treatment phase, knowledge of text analysis enhanced the translation ability of ESP students.

The Relationship between Reading Autonomy and Translation Ability
As for the third research question of the study concerning the significant relationship between reading autonomy and translation ability of ESP students, the researchers opted for the Pearson Correlation Coefficient. Reading autonomy was measured utilizing the Reading Autonomy Questionnaire, and since the questionnaire consisted of 35 items, the scores were calculated between 35 and 175. The translation ability of the students was measured through a translation test, which was calculated out of 20 following the evaluation rubrics developed by Beeby (2000).

Initially, the researchers checked the skewness and kurtosis values, and since they were between +2 and _2 for the variable, there was no violation of the assumptions of normality. The results of Descriptive Statistics showed the means and standard deviations of the scores on reading autonomy (Mean=90.61; Std.Dev.=16.94) and on translation ability (Mean=13.32, Std.Dev.=1.51). Finally, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was run to determine the relationship between ESP students' reading autonomy and translation ability.

Table 3. Correlation between reading autonomy and translation ability.

		Post-test scores on reading autonomy	Translation ability
Post-test scores on reading autonomy	Pearson Correlation	1	.56**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00
	N	34	34
Translation ability	Pearson Correlation	.56**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	
	N	34	34

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

As indicated by Table 3, there was a significant, positive correlation between reading autonomy and translation performance [r= .56, n=34, p<.05], with higher scores on reading autonomy associated with higher scores on translation performance, based on the guideline suggested by Cohen (1992): r=.10 to .29 small; r=.30 to .49 medium; and r=.50 to 1.0 large. Indeed, the results revealed that reading autonomy is made possible when the students can examine a text and know the text features, and this is the main inseparable feature of specialized texts to which the students may be exposed; otherwise, they would run into some mistranslations or misunderstandings on the part of the translators during the act of translation. A significant issue is the extent to which ESP students gain mastery over the source text. The current study examined the significant relationship between reading autonomy and translation ability of ESP students majoring in Computer Engineering. The study confirmed that translation activities can provide effective practices for ESP students, provided that they will be introduced purposefully into ESP courses.

Results Emerged from the Interviews

Six Students were interviewed to learn more about their reactions to being taught how to analyze the specialized texts using text analysis elements, which pertained to the study's final research question about the students' perspectives of exposure to the elements of text analysis in translation practice. The researchers reviewed the transcribed interviews twice, highlighting the most salient elements. They started by having each pupil say their name. Next, individuals had to provide information about their schools and fields of study. In order to test the hypotheses, we took a random sample of four students from the experimental group. This section reports on the most salient themes identified in the students' replies.

Students interviewed after being introduced to translation strategies for text analysis expressed surprise at first at how much more there was to understand a text than just knowing the right words or having a good dictionary. To be more precise, this was the first time they had seen the five-part translation procedures proposed by Nord (1991). A student commented, "I have always thought of translating the text as a combination of word knowledge and content knowledge, but during the treatment, I found out that a good translation is the result of correct comprehension of the text, and text comprehension is not just a matter of reading and looking up the unknown words." I picked up some helpful reading strategies, such as constantly engaging prior information while reading the material.

One of my classmates misunderstood my definition of text analysis as a literal word-for-word or sentence-for-sentence translation of the text. Nonetheless, I learned that just five components need a text analysis after the therapy. She explained, "I came across a tree diagram in lesson two, and when I paid attention to the diagram, I found that I could understand the text better; furthermore, I discovered that general vocabulary was harder than specialized vocabulary in understanding a text since the former required the context to be understood and translated accurately, whereas the latter has a closed list, and each word has only one meaning and this."

Another student said that when working on the text with the instructor, he discovered that the sentence structure of the text is a significant problem, even more so than vocabulary, in some circumstances. He said, "When reading, understanding, and translating the material, I had trouble separating the phrases and sentences. For example, I overlooked adjective clauses without subject and auxiliary verb." After our instructor showed us how to break down complicated words, I felt confident reading and comprehending literature independently.

At the end of the interview, the final student said, "I learned throughout my therapy that translating is a talent that requires knowledge of techniques and also practical practice." He remarked, "I like sharing my translations of the original articles with my students very much." After three sessions and some home practice, I translated a paragraph, paying attention to the presupposition, content, visuals, lexis, and sentence structure. In contrast, I could not do these things in the first session. It would become second nature with practice, allowing me to rely less on external cues for text comprehension.

One theme from the students' replies was their appreciation for the newness and effectiveness of the text analysis tools they used in class. They also gained inspiration when they realized they were advancing their learning and improving their translations, and they discovered that broad lexis would cause them more trouble than specialized lexis. They all concluded that text analysis is essential for accurate translation and that text analysis skills may be taught using translation's building blocks.

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, and RECOMMENDATIONS

According to the study's findings, text analysis significantly contributes to translation quality, and the more students are familiar with text aspects, the more accurately they will translate specialist materials. The findings showed that the students had the most success using the principles of translation: presupposition and lexis. The pupils could already connect what they read and what they already knew. The present study confirmed that engaging in the translation process would activate the students' minds to pay attention to various factors and elements while engaged in the translation task, thus supporting the emerging label of translation process studies (Basile, 2005).

The study's findings showed that students' reading autonomy scores varied significantly, with the experimental group doing much better than the control group. By prior research ideas (Baker, 1992; Muoz, 2012), this study explores the under-researched yet crucial function of translators' mental processes in translation. Baker (1992) offered translators a methodical way to deal with the many issues that arise during translation by using targeted tactics. Similar findings from the ESP students' answers to the interview questions confirmed that text analysis is necessary for accurate translation and may be honed using translation components. This research shows that student autonomy increases as they get more involved with the content. Similarly, recent research suggests that students actively participating in class can improve their language skills (Modarresi, 2022; Farsad & Modarresi, 2023).

The study's authors conclude that as ESP students become acquainted with text elements, they become accustomed to sentence structure and try to master the various structural patterns, such as the distinction between a simple sentence, a complicated phrase, and a compound sentence. Modarresi (2021) emphasized the usefulness of this information in enhancing ESP language skills in terms of correctness, complexity, and fluency. Since the list of specialized words is closed, and the students are informed that the specialized words have just one meaning, they learn that the main difficulty is not with the specialized lexis but with the general words that make problems for them when engaging in translation. Students understand that most words have more than one meaning and that sometimes, the best equivalency is the dynamic equivalence that is not in the dictionary.

Students who participated in the interview believed their inability to analyze the texts made translation difficult. However, once they learned to analyze the texts, they realized that text analysis made the task of reading, and thus the task of translating, more manageable. The students admitted that they first saw text analysis as challenging due to the complexity and variety of text structure and lexical options. In practice, however, they discovered that recognizing text characteristics allowed for more fluid and natural translation. They started caring more about reading the texts, focusing more on text qualities, and looking for ways to simplify translation.

Incorporating translation into regular lessons may help students with reading comprehension, grammatical understanding, and vocabulary acquisition. When students translate their papers from Persian into English for publication in top international journals, they can use what they have learned in ESP classes to improve their reading and writing skills in the target language.

English as a Second Language (TESL) teachers should focus on developing their translation abilities and reading the relevant specialist materials. To better their reading comprehension and vocabulary, ESP students may discover their strategies and get more motivated to work on translations as they advance in their abilities. When translating a complex scientific text rather than a simple one, ESP students who have acquired a deeper understanding of text features can better take responsibility for the translation's quality and apply the most effective translation strategies, resulting in a more natural translation.

In conclusion, ESP students majoring in Computer Engineering should not rely solely on dictionaries when translating but should strive for more natural, less forced expressions. Moreover, since the receptor language is of utmost importance during translation, such expressions should have the same effect on readers as the source text message. If the translations were precise and natural, I would be more interested in learning about computers and gaining specialized expertise. Also, both the translator's role as a reader and the translator's perspective are considered alongside the intrinsic objective variables of the text.

The research has real-world consequences for those working in teaching and translation. Teachers of English as a Second Language should be familiar with a variety of translation methodologies and translation models to share with their students. When planning reading comprehension lessons for ESP students, educators should remember that students will benefit significantly from hands-on experience with text aspects. They may increase the number of texts available to pupils, enhancing their ability to learn from them and produce more accurate translations. The research also has implications for educators who want to motivate their pupils to use effective translation techniques and to self-evaluate their progress. Self-evaluation strategies are helpful for students and language instructors who want to encourage student independence.

The findings of this research also aid ESP students in becoming self-directed, independent translators by enabling them to track their development, identify areas where they need improvement, and take responsibility for their education. Also, translation students should only approach the process if they were doing a word-by-word lookup in a dictionary to prepare for the next set of words. They should be aware that translation is a question of reading comprehension, that text and sentence structure knowledge assist them in grasping the material better, and that they should also resort to other aspects, such as presupposition and visual visuals like diagrams and drawings.

Recommendations
Finally, it is recommended that ESP course material developers equip students with tasks and activities that will allow them to discover the text features in terms of lexis and structure, as well as the distinction between general and specialized vocabulary, rather than focusing on specialized vocabulary alone. They may create activities where students use text-analytical skills to deepen their understanding of the material.

Ethics and Conflict of Interest

The researchers of the current study declare that the data were collected in accordance with the ethical rules during the research process and they acted in accordance with all ethical rules. They also declare that there is no conflict of interest.

REFEFENCES

Baker, M. (1992). *In other words: A course book on translation*. London: Routledge.

Bakker, M., Koster, G., & van Leuven-Zwart, K. (1998). *Shifts of Translation*. In Mona Baker (ed.), *Routledge encyclopedia of translation studies* (p. 226-231). London and New York: Routledge, 226-231.

Basile, E. (2005). Responding to the enigmatic address of the other: A psychoanalytical approach to the translator's labor. *New Voices in Translation Studies 1*, 12–30.

Beeby, L. A. (1996). *Teaching translation from Spanish to English: World beyond words*. Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press.

Beeby, A. (2000). *Teaching translation from Spanish to English*. Ottawa: University of Ottawa Press.

Blachowicz, C., & Ogle, D. (2001). *Reading Comprehension*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Celce-Murcia, M. (Ed.). (2001). *Teaching English as a second and foreign language* (3rd ed.). New York: Heinle & Heinle.

Cohen, J. (1992). Quantitative methods in psychology. *Psychological Bulletins*, *112* (1), 155-159.

Dagiliene, I. (2012). Translation as a learning method in English language teaching. *Studies about languages, 21*, 124-130.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Duff, A. (1994). *Translation*: *Resource books for teachers*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (1983). *Strategies in interlanguage communication*. New York: Longman.

Farsad, L., & Modarresi, G. (2023). EFL learners' construction of L2 ego and its relationship with emotional intelligence. *Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics*, *14*(1), 124-139. https://doi.org/10.22055/RALS.2023.18072

Fener, A. B., & Newby, D. (2000). *Approaches to materials design in European textbooks: Implementing principles of authenticity, learner autonomy, cultural awareness*. European Centre for Modern Languages of the Council of Europe Publishing.

Fowler, W. S., & Coe, N. (1978). *Nelson English language tests* (Book 2, Intermediate). London: Butler & Tanner Ltd.

Haghani, M. (2015). *English for computer engineering students*. Tehran: SAMT.

Hashemian, M., Roohani, A., & Fadaei, B. (2012). On the cognitive style of field (in)dependence as a predicator of L2 learners' performance in recognition and text-based tests of metaphor. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 3(5)*, 876-887.

Hatim, B., & Munday, J. (2004). *Translation: An advanced reference book*. London and New York: Routledge.

Honig, H.G. (1991). Holmes' mapping theory and the landscape of mental translation processes. In K.M. Leuven-Zwart, & T. Naaijkens (Eds.), *Translation studies: The state of the art* (p. 77-89). Amsterdam: Rodopi.

House, J. (1997). *A model for translation quality assessment.* Tübingen: Gunter Narr.

Jalilzadeh, K., Modarresi, G., & Rouhani, H. (2020). A Comparative study of instruction types and reading comprehension for young learners. In H. H. Uysal (Ed.), *Political, pedagogical and research insight into early language education* (123-132). UK: Cambridge Publishing Press.

Khakshour Forutan, M., & Modarresi, G. (2018). Translation of cultural taboos in Hollywood movies in professional dubbing and non-professional subtitling. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research, 47*(6), 454-473.

Khorami, F., & Modarresi, G. (2019). A Rasch-based validation of the evaluation rubric for consecutive interpreting performance. *Sendebar, 30*, 221-244.

Leonardi, V. (2007). *Gender and ideology in translation: Do women and men translate differently*? Bern and Oxford: Peter Lang.

Modarresi, G. (2019). Developing and validating involvement in translation scale and its relationship with translation ability. *Forum: International Journal of Interpreting and Translation, 17*(2), 225-248.

Modarresi, G. (2021). The effect of dictogloss vs. debating on L2 writing proficiency: A mixed-methods study. *Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, *40*(4), 121-160. https://doi.org/ 10.22099/jtls.2021.39939.2954.

Modarresi, G. (2022). The impact of task-based collaborative output activities on learner engagement in writing tasks. *Journal of Language Horizons*, *6*(2), 81-101. https://10.22051/lghor.2021.35238.1453.

Modarresi, G., Jalilzadeh, K., Coombe, K., & Nooshab, A. (2021). Validating a test to measure translation teachers' assessment literacy. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 18*(4), 1503-1511.

Munday, J. (2016). *Introducing translation studies: Theories and applications* (4th ed). London and New York: Rutledge.

Muñoz, M. R. (2012). Cognitive and psycholinguistic approaches. In M. C. Millán & F. Bartrina, *Handbook of translation studies* (p. 241–256).London: Routledge.

National Reading Panel. (2000). Teaching children to read: An evidence-based Assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction. Retrieved on 03 2018 from: http://www.nichd.gov./publications/nrp/smallbook.cfm

Newmark, P. (1981). *Approaches to translation*. London: Pergamon Press.

Nida, A., & Taber, C. (1969). *The theory and practice of translation*. Leiden: Brill.

Nord, C. (1991). *Text analysis in translation*. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Nuttal, C. (1996). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language.* Oxford: Macmillan Heinemann.

Palumbo, G. (2009). *Key terms in translation studies*. London: Continuum International Publishing group.

Pym, A. (2009). *Translator Training*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rivers, W. (1987). *Teaching foreign language skills* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Ross, N. J. (2000). Interference and Intervention: Using Translation in the EFL Classroom. *Modern English Teacher, 9*(3), 61–66.

Rouhani, H., & Modarresi, Gh. (2023). The role of translation-based, meaning-based, and hint-based instructions in vocabulary acquisition: A mixed-methods study. *Iranian Journal of Applied Language Studies, 15*(1), 83-100. https://doi.org/10.22111/ijals.2023.38276.2156.

Sariçoban, A., & Alyas, A. (2011). Metacognitive strategies and learner's autonomy in EFL reading. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods, 2* (2), 44-57.

Séguinot, C. (1991). A study of student translation strategies. *Empirical research in translation and intercultural studies*, *11*, 79-88.

Snell-Hornby, M. (1988). *Translation studies: An integrated approach*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Sweet, A. P., & Snow, C. E. (2003). *Rethinking reading comprehension*. New York: Guilford Press.

Vinay, J. P., & Darbelnet. (1995). *Comparative stylistics of French and English: A methodology for translation*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.

Yovanoff, P., Duesbery, L., Alonzo, J., & Tindal, G. (2005). Grade-level invariance of a theoretical causal structure predicting reading comprehension with vocabulary and oral reading fluency. *Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice, 24*(3), 4-12.

Zarei, A., & Ghahremani, K. (2010). On the relationship between learner autonomy and reading comprehension. *TELL, 3*(10), 81-99.

Zhang, Z., & Chan, E. (2017). Current research and practice in teaching disciplinary literacies. *ESP Today, 5*(2), 132-147.

PROFESSIONAL SATISFACTION AND PROFESSIONAL BURNOUT AS PREDICTORS OF TEACHERS' SCHOOL HAPPINESS

M. Engin DENİZ
Yildiz Technical University, Faculty of Education, Department of Psychology Counseling, Türkiye
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7930-3121
edeniz@yildiz.edu.tr

Abdullah Ensar UZUN
Ministry of National Education, Türkiye
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7809-4789
aensaruzun@msn.com

Yağmur KAYA
Yildiz Technical University, Faculty of Education, Department of Psychology Counseling, Türkiye
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4077-3182
ykaya@yildiz.edu.tr

Gülgün UZUN
Erciyes University, Faculty of Education Department of Psychological Counseling, Türkiye
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2421-7725
gulgun@erciyes.edu.tr

Abstract

Education has a very important place in the development of a society. Teachers are one of the indispensable building blocks of education. Considering their place in the education system, it is important to investigate the characteristics of teachers. The aim of this study was to investigate the predictive levels of teachers' professional satisfaction and professional burnout on school happiness. Accordingly, a total of 219 teachers working in various public secondary schools participated in the study. The ages of the teachers ranged between 25 and 55; 126 of them were female and 93 of them were male. Teachers' School Happiness Scale, Professional Satisfaction Scale, and Burnout Scale were used as data collection tools. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis. According to the results of the analysis, it was concluded that professional satisfaction and professional burnout were effective on teachers' school happiness.

Keywords: School happiness, professional satisfaction, professional burnout, education.

INTRODUCTION

Schools build the future of a society (Döş, 2013). Teachers are at the center of these schools (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2006). In order for the education provided in schools to be effective, the training that teachers receive is important. However, in addition to this training, there are some characteristics that teachers should have (Evans, 2002; Harris & Sass, 2011; Ritter, 2007). School happiness is among these characteristics. Education and happiness are interrelated concepts. The concept of happiness is an important cornerstone for schools, one of the most basic units of education (Fidan, 2020). An individual's happiness at work is reflected in his or her general life (Kuzgun et al., 1999). It has also been determined that happy organizations with happy individuals are more productive (Nokelainen, 2016). In a study conducted by Argon (2015), it was observed that the happiness of teachers has a positive contribution to school success.

In its most general definition, school well-being is the state of emotional well-being that results from the harmony between the expectations of the school and the personal needs of teachers, students, parents, school administrators, and other employees, depending on certain environmental factors (Engels et al., 2004). Yıldırım (2014) argues that factors such as collaboration, fair evaluation and helpful feedback, a positive school climate, and personal development affect teachers' well-being at school. Aelterman et al. (2007) suggest that teachers' well-being is related to concepts such as relationships with parents, colleague support, self-efficacy, workload, and principal support. On the other hand, as the definition of the concept of happiness may vary from individual to individual, the definition of the concept of school happiness may also vary from teacher to teacher (Arslan, 2018). For example, a study revealed that some of the sources of teachers' happiness in the school environment are their students and colleagues. On the other hand, while teachers working in public schools do not see salary as a fundamental component affecting their happiness, private school teachers do (Fidan, 2020). It is thought that school happiness can be affected by many variables mentioned above, as well as professional satisfaction.

Satisfaction with the job or profession can be in question to the extent that the job or profession can meet the needs of the individual (Kuzgun et al., 1999). In other words, it is the satisfaction of working individuals with being a member of their profession (Kuzgun & Bacanlı, 2012). Occupational satisfaction is one of the most important conditions for individuals to be happy and productive (Aktay, 2010). It can be said that teachers with high professional satisfaction contribute to education, and their performance in education is also high (Karakuzu, 2013). Some of the sources of teachers' professional satisfaction are: relationships with students, colleagues, and administrators; salary; vacation; school environment; working conditions; teaching hours; and opportunities for promotion (Vural, 2004).

One of the variables affecting school happiness is thought to be occupational burnout. Freudenberger (1974) defined burnout as a state of exhaustion resulting from failure, wear and tear, loss of energy and power, or unmet demands on an individual's internal resources. Maslach and Jackson (1981) defined burnout as physical exhaustion, prolonged fatigue, helplessness, and hopelessness, as well as negative attitudes towards work, life, and other people. The causes of burnout can be caused by the individual (age, marital status, gender, etc.) or by the organization (working time, work intensity, work tension, etc.) (Avşaroğlu et al., 2005; Izgar, 2001).

Based on the explanations above, the importance of investigating the concepts of school happiness, professional satisfaction, and professional burnout is understood. When the researchs in the literature were examined, no study was found in which these three concepts were examined together. Therefore, this study aims to examine these three concepts.

METHOD

Research Model
This research is a quantitative study that examines the relationships between professional satisfaction and professional burnout as predictors of teachers' school happiness. The dependent variable of the study is teachers' school happiness. The independent variables of the study are professional satisfaction and professional burnout. The study was conducted on teachers. The participants' inclusion criteria for the study were not having any psychiatric diagnosis, being between the ages of 25 and 55, and working in an institution as a teacher. The data were collected voluntarily. Ethics committee approval was obtained for the study.

Participants
This study was conducted with teachers working in various public secondary schools. A total of 219 teachers in six branches took part in the study. 126 of the teachers were female and 93 were male. The number of teachers with bachelor's degree was 131, master's degree was 80, and doctorate degree was 7.

Data Collection Tools
Teachers' School Happiness Scale
It was developed to measure the extent to which teachers feel happy in school in general. There are 26 items in total in the measurement tool. The scale measures five different sub-dimensions. Teachers' school happiness scale is graded on a 5-point Likert scale. These were determined as never, rarely, sometimes, mostly, and always. Item-total correlations ranged between .54 and .86. Five factors explain 65.09% of the total variance. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of the scale was calculated as .95 (Sezer & Can, 2019).

Professional Satisfaction Scale
The Professional Satisfaction Scale was used to reveal the level of professional satisfaction of active teachers, which includes criteria such as the sense of trust they show towards their colleagues and coworkers, their managers, and being happy at work. The internal consistency coefficient of the scale was found to be Cronbach's alpha = .90. The values of F1 = .91 and F2 = .75 were calculated for the two factors identified and named by factor analysis. In the final analysis, the item-total correlations of the 20 items on the scale were above .30. These values were considered sufficient for the reliability level (Kuzgun et al., 1999).

Burnout Scale - Short Form
The Burnout Scale Short Form was applied to determine the professional burnout status of the teachers. The original form of the measurement tool consists of 21 items (Pines & Aronos, 1988). The measurement tool was transformed into a 10-item short form in order to provide easier application and evaluation (Pines, 2005). The burnout scale consists of 10 items and is graded on a 7-point Likert scale. These were determined as "never: 1 and always: 7". The internal consistency coefficient of the scale varies between .85 and .92. Getting a high score from the measurement tool indicates high burnout (Çapri, 2013).

Data Analysis
The scope of the research, the relationships between the variables were analyzed with descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and multiple regression analysis techniques. Before starting the regression analysis, the data were examined according to the regression prerequisites. In the study, skewness and kurtosis values were analyzed first. As seen in Table 1, skewness and kurtosis values are close to normal.

Table 1. Skewness and kurtosis values.

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
School happiness	-.196	-.445
Professional satisfaction	-.183	-.904
Professional burnout	-.036	-.345

RESULTS

Data on the ages of the participants was collected through a personal information form. The results of the study is presented and interpreted in the tables below.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics.

Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	n
School happiness	62.83	7.95	219
Professional satisfaction	53.71	8.65	219
Professional burnout	71.29	3.80	219

Table 2 includes the mean and standard deviation values of the participants' views on school happiness, professional satisfaction, and professional burnout.

Table 3. Correlation analysis results of the relationship between school happiness, professional satisfaction, and professional burnout.

Variables	1	2	3
1. School happiness	-	.185	-.163
2. Professional satisfaction		-	-.196
3. Professional burnout			-

As can be seen from Table 3, there is a positive relationship between school happiness and professional satisfaction scores of the participants. According to the results, there is a negative relationship between school happiness and professional burnout.

Table 4. Results of regression analysis.

Variables	B	Std. Error	β	t
1. Constant	38.293	6.223		4.666**
2. Professional satisfaction	.185	.064	.175	3.058*
3. Professional burnout	1.096	.149	-.414	7.114**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .001$

When Table 4 is examined, it is seen that there is a significant difference between school happiness, professional satisfaction, and professional burnout scale total scores. When the relationship between the variables and school happiness was analyzed individually, it was found to be significant with the sub-dimensions of professional satisfaction ($\beta = .175$; $p<.05$) and professional burnout ($\beta = -.414$; $p<.01$).

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result of the study, it was concluded that the school happiness scores of teachers, which is the dependent variable, are affected by the scores of professional satisfaction, which is the independent variable. According to this result, it was concluded that when professional satisfaction scores increase, school happiness scores increase. In addition, as the scores of professional burnout, the other independent variable of the study, decreased, the scores of school happiness, the dependent variable of the study, increased. In this section of the study, direct and indirect comparisons of the research results with other studies in the literature will be made.

As a result of the research, as the scores of professional satisfaction, which is the independent variable, increased, the scores of school happiness, which is the dependent variable, increased. When the findings obtained from studies with similar results to this result are examined, there are studies that reveal that there are significant relationships between school happiness, happiness concepts, and job satisfaction (Akgündüz, 2013; Ardıç & Baş, 2001; Avent, 1975; Avşaroğlu et al., 2005; Benevene et al., 2018; Demir & Murat, 2017; Dorsan, 2007; Gül et al., 2019; Işıkhan, 1996; Ndlovu & Ferreira, 2019; O'Conner & Vallerand, 1998; Rizkie & Suriansyah, 2022; Sargent & Hannum, 2005; Shi et al., 2022; Şeker & Zırhlıoğlu, 2009; Yiğit et al., 2011). The related studies and the results of this study support each other. A study expressing contrary results was not found in the literature.

Another result of the research is that as the teachers' scores of the independent variable Occupational Burnout decreased, their scores of the dependent variable school happiness increased. When evaluated with different studies in the literature in which the same concepts were studied, it was seen that similar results were reached with this research. In the results of the studies conducted by Dolunay (2002) and Baysal (1995), it was found that being satisfied with the working environment decreased teachers' burnout. In the studies, burnout in the teaching profession is associated with job dissatisfaction (Benevene et al., 2018; Bullough, 2011; Capone & Petrillo, 2020; Cunningham, 1983; De Stasio, 2017; Hamama et al., 2013; Kyte, 2016; Yong & Yue, 2007; Zhang et al., 2023) and negatively affects not only teachers' professional outcomes related to themselves (depression, professional dysfunctions, etc.) but also their fulfillment of their duties related to their families, students, and schools (Mearns & Cain, 2003). Avşaroğlu et al. (2005) reached similar results in their study and found a significant negative

relationship between teachers' job satisfaction levels and emotional exhaustion sub-dimension. In a study conducted in Greece in which teachers' professional burnout was examined, it was determined that job satisfaction and burnout were negatively related (Koustelios & Tsigilis, 2005).

Another result of the study is that occupational exhaustion negatively predicts occupational satisfaction. When the related literature was examined, various studies were found that directly and indirectly overlapped with this result of the research. The concept of resilience is more reactive than other dimensions of positive organizational behavior. Resilience is related to the concept of flexibility (Masten & Reed, 2002). Jackson et al. (2007) concluded that resilience will be strengthened by strengthening professional relationships and networks in the work environment. Sezgin (2012) concluded that increasing the psychological resilience of teachers would have a positive effect on productivity. According to Synder, hope is the capacity to draw paths to desired goals, to motivate oneself to use these paths, and to perceive this capacity (Cheavens et al., 2000). The expression of hope in psychological capital includes producing many alternatives, being able to overcome many tasks, and being versatile. In the hope dimension of the research, the fact that teachers gave low scores to the statement "I can overcome many tasks while practicing my profession" compared to other statements negatively affects their level of hope. It was concluded that effective teachers and administrators in schools should constantly seek new approaches, form broad views, not get hung up on details, have high determination, and plan and organize their work well. Considering the result of the research that professional burnout negatively affects professional satisfaction, Sezgin (2012) overlaps with the results of Cheavens et al. (2000).

When the results of the research are taken into consideration, the recommendations deemed appropriate by the researchers are as follows: Starting from the preschool period until the period when the choice of profession is expected, necessary vocational guidance studies should be carried out for students to choose the profession that best suits their personality traits. If we consider this issue in the specific case of the teaching profession, the fact that individuals who are suitable for the teaching profession will have a positive effect on the subjective well-being of teachers and will enable them to perform their profession more efficiently.

Considering the results of the research, in-service training programs, psychoeducation programs, group guidance training programs, and workshops that can improve individuals' school happiness should be planned and implemented. While organizing such training programs, it is important to include activities related to increasing professional satisfaction and school happiness in these programs. When the literature studies conducted as a result of the research are evaluated, it is observed that there are few studies in terms of quantity. New research results can be brought to the literature by investigating concepts such as "school happiness, professional burnout, and professional satisfaction", which are very important, especially for the teaching profession, with different variables. Especially according to the results determined as a result of the research, it will contribute to the experimental studies to be carried out according to the needs of society and school structure. As a result of experimental studies, training programs can be created that are applicable to the results of experimental studies and serve to make functional teachers more qualified to perform their profession.

Ethics and Conflict of Interest
We declare and confirm that we have acted in accordance with ethical rules throughout the entire research and that there is no conflict of interest between authors.

REFERENCES

Aelterman, A., Engels, N., Van Petegem, K., & Verhaeghe, J. P. (2007). The wellbeing of teachers in Flanders: The importance of a supportive school culture. *Educational Studies, 33*(3), 285-298. https://doi.org/10.1080/03055690701423085

Akgündüz, Y. (2013). Analysis of relationship between job satisfaction, life satisfaction, and self-efficacy in hospitality business. *Journal of Social Sciences, 11*(1), 180-204.

TIJSEG

Aktaş, A. M. (2001). Bir kamu kuruluşunun üst düzey yöneticilerinin iş stresi ve kişilik özellikleri [Stress level and characteristics of top level managers of the government sector]. *Ankara Üniversitesi SBF Dergisi, 56*(4), 25-42. https://doi.org/10.1501/SBFder_0000001872

Ardıç, K., & Baş, T. (2001, May 24-26). *Kamu ve vakıf üniversitelerindeki akademik personelin iş tatmin düzeylerinin karşılaştırılması* [in Turkish]. 9. Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi, İstanbul, Türkiye, 479-484.

Argon, T. (2015). Öğretmenlerin sahip oldukları duygu durumlarını okul yöneticilerinin dikkate alıp almamalarına ilişkin görüşleri [Views of teachers regarding whether school administrators take teachers' state of emotions into consideration or not]. *Abant İzzet Baysal University Faculty of Education Journal, 15*(1), 377-404.

Arslan, Y. (2018). Öğretmenlerin farklılıkların yönetimi yaklaşımlarına ilişkin algıları ile örgütsel mutluluk algıları arasındaki ilişki [The relationship between teacher perceptions of diversity management perspectives and organizational happiness] [Unpublished doctoral thesis]. Kocaeli University.

Avent, C. (1975). Happiness is job satisfaction. *Education + Training, 17*(4), 104-106. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb016362

Avşaroğlu, S., Deniz, M. E., & Kahraman, A. (2005). Teknik öğretmenlerde yaşam doyumu iş doyumu ve mesleki tükenmişlik düzeylerinin incelenmesi [in Turkish]. *The Journal of Selcuk University Social Sciences Institute,* (14), 115-129.

Baysal, A. (1995). Lise ve dengi okul öğretmenlerinde meslekte tükenmişliğe etki eden faktörler [in Turkish]. (Unpublished doctoral thesis). Dokuz Eylül University.

Benevene, P., Ittan, M. M., & Cortini, M. (2018). Self-esteem and happiness as predictors of school teachers' health: the mediating role of job satisfaction. *Frontiers in Psychology, 9*, 933. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00933

Bullough, R. V. (2011). Hope, happiness, teaching, and learning. In C. Day and J. Chi-Kin Lee (Eds.) *New understandings of teacher's work: Emotions and educational change* (p.15-30). Springer

Capone, V., & Petrillo, G. (2020). Mental health in teachers: Relationships with job satisfaction, efficacy beliefs, burnout and depression. *Current Psychology, 39*(5), 1757-1766. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-018-9878-7

Chan, D. W. (2011). Burnout and life satisfaction: Does gratitude intervention make a difference among Chinese school teachers in Hong Kong? *Educational Psychology, 31*(7), 809-823. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2011.608525

Cheavens, J., Gum, A., & Synder, C. R. (2000). The hope scale. In J. Maltby, C. A. Lewis and A. Hill (Eds.) *A handbook of psychological tests* (p.240-245).

Cunningham, W. G. (1983). Teacher burnout—solutions for the 1980s: A review of the literature. *The Urban Review, 15*(1), 37-51. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01112341

Çapri, B. (2013). The Turkish adaptation of the burnout measure-short version (BMS) and couple burnout measure-short version (CBMS) and the relationship between career and couple burnout based on psychoanalytic existential perspective. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 13*(3), 1393-1418. https://doi.org/10.12738/estp.2013.3.1576

Demir, R., & Murat, M. (2017). Investigating teacher candidates' happiness, optimism, meaning in life and life satisfaction. *OPUS International Journal of Society Researches, 7*(13), 347-378. https://doi.org/10.26466/opus.347656

De Stasio, S., Fiorilli, C., Benevene, P., Uusitalo-Malmivaara, L., & Chiacchio, C. D. (2017). Burnout in special needs teachers at kindergarten and primary school: Investigating the role of personal resources and work wellbeing. *Psychology in The Schools, 54*(5), 472-486. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.22013

Dolunay, A. B. (2002). Keçiören ilçesi" genel liseler ve teknik-ticaret-meslek liselerinde görevli öğretmenlerde tükenmişlik durumu" araştırması [in Turkish]. *Ankara Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi Mecmuası, 55*(1), 51-62. https://doi.org/10.1501/Tipfak_0000000697

Dorsan, H. (2007). *Akademik personelin iş doyum düzeylerinin incelenmesi(Kıbrıs-Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi örneği)* [An analysis of the level of the job satisfaction of the academic stuff working at Near East University]. (Unpublished master's thesis). Gaziantep University.

Döş, İ. (2013). Happy school. *Education and Science, 38*(170), 266-280.

Engels, N., Aelterman, A., Petegem, K. V., & Schepens, A. (2004). Factors which influence the well-being of pupils in Flemish secondary schools. *Educational Studies, 30*(2), 127-143. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305569032000159787

Evans, L. (2002). What is teacher development? *Oxford Review of Education, 28*(1), 123-137. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054980120113670

Fidan, M. (2020). Mutlu okulun bileşenleri [The components of happy school]. *Journal of Research in Education and Society, 7*(1), 107-123.

Freudenberger, N. D. (1974). Staff burnout. *Journal of Social Issues, 30*, 159-165.

Gül. H., Maksüdünov. A., Yamaltdinova. A., & Abdildaev. M. (2019). Öğrencilerin demografik özelliklerinin kariyer uyumluluğu ve iyimserliği ile ilişkisi: Kırgızistan örneği [The relationship of students'demographic characteristics with career adaptability and optimism: A case of Kyrgyzstan]. *Karamanoglu Mehmetbey University Journal of Social and Economic Research, 21*(36), 34-46.

Hamama, L., Ronen, T., Shachar, K., & Rosenbaum, M. (2013). Links between stress, positive and negative affect, and life satisfaction among teachers in special education schools. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 14*(3), 731-751. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-012-9352-4

Hanushek, E. A., & Rivkin, S. G. (2006). Teacher quality. *Handbook of the Economics of Education, 2*, 1051-1078.

Harris, D. N., & Sass, T. R. (2011). Teacher training, teacher quality and student achievement. *Journal of Public Economics, 95*(7-8), 798-812. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpubeco.2010.11.009

Işıkhan, V. (1996). Sosyal hizmet örgütlerinin işlevsellik ölçütü: İş doyumu [in Turkish]. *Journal of Productivity, 25*(1), 117-130.

Izgar, H. (2001). *Okul yöneticilerinde tükenmişlik* [in Turkish]. Ankara: Nobel Publishing.

Jackson, D., Firtko, A., & Edenborough, M. (2007). Personal resilience as a strategy for surviving and thriving in the face of workplace adversity: a literature review. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 60*(1), 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04412.x

Karakuzu, S. (2013). *Denizli il merkezinde bulunan ilkokullarda görev yapan sınıf öğretmenleri ve ortaokullarda görev yapan branş öğretmenlerinin iş doyumunun incelenmesi* [A research on the satisfaction level of the primary teachers who teaches in primary schools and the branch teachers who work in secondary schools in the city center of Denizli]. [Unpublished doctoral thesis]. Gazi University.

Koustelios, A., & Tsigilis, N. (2005). The relationship between burnout and job satisfaction among physical education teachers: a multivariate approach. *European Physical Education Review, 11*(2), 189-203. https://doi.org/10.1177/1356336X05052896

Kuzgun, Y., & Bacanlı, F. (2012). *Rehberlik ve psikolojik danışmada kullanılan ölçekler* [in Turkish]. Ankara: Nobel Publishing.

Kuzgun, Y., Sevim, S. A., & Hamamcı Z. (1999). Mesleki doyum ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi [in Turkish]. *Turkish Psychological Counseling and Guidance Journal, 2*(11), 14-18.

Kyte, D. (2016). Toward a sustainable sense of self in teaching and teacher education: Sustainable happiness and well-being through mindfulness. *McGill Journal of Education, 51*(3), 1143-1162. https://doi.org/10.7202/1039632ar

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Occupational Behavior, 2*, 99-113.

Masten, A. S., & Reed, M. G. J. (2002). Resilience in development. In C. R. Snyder, & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of Positive Psychology* (pp. 117-131). New York: Oxford University Press.

Mearns, J., & J. E. Cain. (2003). Relationships between teachers' occupational stress and their burnout and distress: roles of coping and negative mood regulation expectancies. *Anxiety, Stress & Coping: An International Journal, 16*(1), 71–82. https://doi.org/10.1080/1061580021000057040

Ndlovu, V., & Ferreira, N. (2019). Students' psychological hardiness in relation to career adaptability. *Journal of Psychology in Africa, 29*(6), 598-604. https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2019.1689468

Nokelainen, M. (2016). *The elements of happy organizational culture.* [Unpublished doctorate thesis]. University of Applied Sciences Business Administrations.

Pines, A. M., & Aronson, E. (1988). *Career burnout: Causes and cures*. New York: Free Press.

Ritter, J. K. (2007). Forging a pedagogy of teacher education: The challenges of moving from classroom teacher to teacher educator. *Studying Teacher Education, 3*(1), 5-22. https://doi.org/10.1080/17425960701279776

Rizkie, M., & Suriansyah, A. (2022). The effect of transformational leadership of school principles, quality culture and job satisfaction on teacher performance. *International Journal of Social Science And Human Research, 5*(6), 2345-2353. https://doi.org/10.47191/ijsshr/v5-i6-59

Sargent, T., & Hannum, E. (2005). Keeping teachers happy: Job satisfaction among primary school teachers in rural northwest China. *Comparative Education Review, 49*(2), 173-204. https://doi.org/10.1086/428100

Sezer, S., & Can, E. (2019). School happiness: A scale development and implementation study. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 19*(79), 167- 190.

Sezgin, F. (2012). İlköğretim okulu öğretmenlerinin psikolojik dayanıklılık düzeylerinin incelenmesi [Investigating the psychological hardiness levels of primary school teachers]. *Kastamonu Education Journal, 20*(2), 489-502.

Shi, L., Zhang, J., Xiao, S., Lin, H., Zhao, C., Zhao, S., Ou, W., Li, H., & Zhang, C. (2022). Impact of occupational exposure on job satisfaction and overall happiness among Chinese physicians and nurses: A cross-sectional study. *Journal of Nursing Management, 30*(6), 2062-2073. https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.13663

Sudibjo, N., & Manihuruk, A. M. (2022). How do happiness at work and perceived organizational support affect teachers' mental health through job satisfaction during the COVID-19 pandemic? *Psychology Research and Behavior Management, 15*, 939-951. https://doi.org/10.2147/PRBM.S361881

Şeker, B. D., & Zırhlıoğlu, G. (2009). Van Emniyet Müdürlüğü kadrosunda çalışan polislerin tükenmişlik, iş doyumu ve yaşam dokumları arasındaki ilişkilerin değerlendirilmesi [in Turkish]. *Journal of Police Sciences, 11*(4), 1-26.

O'Connor, B. P., & Vallerand, R. J. (1998). Psychological adjustment variables as predictors of mortality among nursing home residents. *Psychology and Aging, 13*(3), 368–374. https://doi.org/10.1037/0882-7974.13.3.368

Vural, B. (2004). *Yetkin-ideal-vizyoner öğretmen* [Competent-ideal-visionary teacher]. İstanbul: Hayat Yayınları.

Yıldırım, K. (2014). Main factors of teachers' professional well-being. *Educational Research and Reviews, 9*(6), 153-163. https://doi.org/10.5897/ERR2013.1691

Yiğit, R., Dilmaç, B., & Deniz, M. E. (2011). Job and life satisfaction: A survey of Konya police department. *Turkish Journal of Police Studies, 13*(3), 1-18.

Zhang, W., He, E., Mao, Y., Pang, S., & Tian, J. (2023). How teacher social-emotional competence affects job burnout: the chain mediation role of teacher-student relationship and well-being. *Sustainability, 15*(3), 2061. https://doi.org/10.3390/su15032061

SCHOOL ADMINISTERS' VIEWS ON INCLUSIVE EDUCATION, PROBLEMS THEY FACE AND SOLUTION SUGGESTIONS

Gamze Gülin AYGÜN
Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Education Faculty, Çanakkale-Turkey
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1149-3694
gamzegulinaygun@gmail.com

Nejat İRA
Prof. Dr., Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Education Faculty, Çanakkale-Turkey
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2271-9353
nejat.ira@gmail.com

Abstract

In today's world and our country where continuous innovations are made in the field of education, inclusive education constitutes an important agenda. Inclusive education accepts and includes all individual, cultural and ethnic differences. The aim of this research is to determine the views of school administers on inclusive education, to reveal the problems they experience and their solution suggestions. The data were collected from 8 school administers working in official schools of Çanakkale Province under the Directorate of National Education in 2022-2023 academic year. This research aims to have in-depth information about the subject within the framework of qualitative research with a phenomenological design. The data were obtained through a semi-structured interview form consisting of 6 items and the analysis was made through descriptive analysis. The data reveal that school administers have an awareness that needs to be increased towards inclusive education. In addition, it reveals that school administers' perceptions of their responsibilities regarding physical environment arrangements, student needs, teacher development, parent and community awareness regarding inclusive education need to be improved. It has been found that school administers may have problems with inclusive education practices and suggestions for solutions are put forward.

Keywords: Inclusive education, school administers, disadvantaged students, inclusive education stakeholders.

INTRODUCTION

Due to Turkey's social and geological location, there is a diverse student profile in the education system. Students with low socio-economic status, children under temporary protection, refugees, female students, LGBT, children exposed to violence, children with disabilities, working children, and students affected by migration, terrorism or disasters constitute diversity in schools. Due to this diversity, schools today harbour different cultures, ethnicities, languages, socio-economic status, religions, sects, sexual orientations and physical/mental conditions. Many different social, cultural and educational needs can be met with qualified education (Ainscow, 2016). Therefore, schools should have the capacity to respond to the unique needs of each group and each individual in particular. All studies about the schools that should provide educational and counseling needs show that schools can only be successful with the administers, as the leaders of the schools. Qualified administers are essential for qualified schools (Bursalıoğlu, 1997).

The study group of this research consists of eight school administers working in the central district of Çanakkale province. According to the findings obtained from the research; it has been determined that the administers have an awareness about inclusive education, but they also have knowledge deficiencies. It has been revealed that school administers, who state that various practices can be included in schools for inclusive education, agree that teachers should receive in-service training for inclusive education. In addition, it has been obtained that administers carry out many practices in their schools about what is done for students with disadvantages, but they do not find them enough for some reasons, and they have

various ideas about the roles and responsibilities of teachers, parents and society to address these students.

Inclusive education

Schools need inclusive practices that embrace all students as valued members of the school community to remove barriers from education and achieve high-quality outcomes (Carter & Abawi, 2018). Inclusive education is an approach that employs strategies, activities and processes developed to ensure that a qualified education is equally available to all students and supports all the disadvantaged to make them participate in education (İra & Gör, 2018). Training services that enable disadvantaged children and their non-disadvantaged peers to receive education equally are included in inclusive education (Ünal & Yel, 2019). According to UNESCO's (2005) definition, inclusive education is the process of responding to the different needs of students by increasing their participation in education, culture and society and reducing discrimination within the education system. According to Carter and Abawi (2018), inclusion is defined as meeting the learning needs of students regardless of culture, language, cognition, gender, ability and skills or background.

UNESCO addresses inclusive education, which envisages the provision of appropriate conditions in all schools, with pedagogical, social and economic sub-headings. The pedagogical principle refers to developing methods and techniques based on individual differences so that all students in schools can benefit. The social principle is to include inclusive education practices in schools in order to reach an equal and inclusive society. The economic principle is related to the fact that it is less costly for all students to receive education in the same environment instead of being distributed to different schools according to their characteristics (Demirel Kaya, 2019). As can be understood from these three principles, inclusive education offers an education that is based on the individual differences of all students, has a positive impact on social activities and is less costly.

Inclusive education, which includes all children, youth and adults, is based on the Declarations of Human Rights and the Rights of the Child. In 1990, the Education for All Conference was organized with the objectives of expanding the participation of children with limited opportunities and disadvantages in education, ensuring access to qualified, compulsory and free education for children with difficult conditions, especially girls, eliminating gender inequalities in education, and improving the quality of education. Recognizing and valuing diversity in education are concepts that UNESCO takes into consideration when defining inclusive education. In the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, which resonated in the international arena and was signed by our country (Official Newspaper, 1995), the clear statements in Articles 28 and 29 on the recognition of equal rights to education for all children draw attention to inclusive education.

The sustainability feature of inclusive education can be mentioned only when education is planned, systematic and has long-term goals (UNESCO, 2001). To ensure sustainability, schools should include the idea that all children should learn together (Dilekçi, 2019) and the differences bring richness to schools rather than being undesirable situations. In schools, in parallel with inclusive education, educational, physical and environmental arrangements should be made at a level that can respond to student differences. Differentiated curricula and teaching strategies should be included. And qualified educational environments that respect differences should be prepared as a result of positive interaction with the school environment to serve inclusive education. In a report published by UNESCO (2001), it is mentioned that administers should be able to identify the obstacles that may occur in inclusive education and they should be a guide in overcoming these obstacles.

Inclusive School Administers

Each school has its own student groups, and within these groups, there are individuals with various characteristics that they bring with them to school. This diversity influences the school environment and can shape the functioning of the school. Inclusive leaders act as transformative agents who critically analyze inequalities for marginalized groups and adjust structures and practices in their buildings to change the culture (Riehl, 2000).

The suggestions of Hehir and Katzman (2012) for school administers in ensuring an inclusive school environment can be listed as follows:

a. Establishing a strong inclusive vision: Create an effective educational environment for special children and build school culture and practices that maximize the time these children spend at school.
b. Applying the principles of distributive leadership: Sharing leadership by empowering teachers to find their own solutions, allocating resources for teacher development, giving importance to classroom observations in order to understand teachers and students better and creating an atmosphere of trust.
c. Establishing a structure for teachers to work together: Create a culture of collaborative problem solving, encourage all teachers to work together in the classroom and group work on instructional issues, and set a time frame for this.
d. Seeking entrepreneurial opportunities: The management of resources should be tailored to the needs of students with a wide range of needs, so that all the school's resources can be allocated according to needs or, additional resource support can be sought when they are not sufficient.
e. Building strong relationships with families and the community: It is important to realize that the participation of both the families of students with disabilities and the families of students without disabilities, and should not hesitate to ask for help in case of disagreement.
f. Put innovation at the centre of teaching: Instead of focusing too much on special needs, schools should focus on how to make teaching and learning most effective for all children with needs.
g. Supporting universal design at the school and classroom level: It is important to support inclusive education intellectually, but it is even more important to implement these ideas and to design inclusive schools.

The views of school administers, the problems they experience and their suggestions for solutions to these problems can offer different perspectives on inclusive education (Erdoğan, et al., 2022). In this study, the roles of school administers, teachers, parents and society in inclusive education practices, the problems they experience and their solutions are examined. In addition, school administers were asked about their ideas on what inclusive practices could be implemented in schools and whether they included these practices in their schools. Within the scope of the study, school administers' views on inclusive education are examined under the general heading of what should be done in schools for disadvantaged students such as refugees, disaster-strickens, low socio-economic level students, female students, disabled students and LGBT students. The characteristics of the obtained data are determined whether they are similar or not similar to the literature. In this study, the roles of administers regarding inclusive education in schools, problems experienced in schools and solution suggestions are discussed, and it is expected that the study will provide positive attitudes towards disadvantaged students and improvement in inclusive practices. The study aims to determine the views of school administers on inclusive education, to reveal the problems they experience and their solution suggestions.

For this purpose, the following questions were asked to them:

✓ What are the roles of administers in inclusive education practices?
✓ What are the practices that should be carried out in schools for inclusive education?
✓ What are the practices that should be carried out for disadvantaged students in schools?
✓ What are the roles and responsibilities of teachers for inclusive education?
✓ What are the responsibilities of parents for inclusive education?
✓ How is the awareness of the society towards inclusive education?
✓ In addition to the research questions, probing questions were also asked during the interviews in order to get more information about school administers' views about inclusive education.

METHOD

Research Model

This research was designed with qualitative research model. Qualitative research tries to investigate and make sense of social phenomena in their natural environment (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2021). The data obtained were analyzed descriptively. In addition, the research topic was investigated by using the phenomenology method, in-depth and in detail, to understand the experiences of people who are experienced with the subject (Cresswell, 2017). In this study, school administers' views on inclusive education, the problems they experience and their suggestions for solutions are investigated.

Study Group of the Research

In this study, the study group consists of school administers working in the central district of Çanakkale province. Eight school administers working in the centre of Çanakkale province were reached by using simple random sampling from random sampling methods. Demographic information of the administers participating in the study is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic information about school administers.

Participant	Gender	Education Status	Seniority	Years of Working as an Administer
Y1	Woman	Master's Degree	24	9
Y2	Woman	BSc	16	2
Y3	Male	BSc	14	4
Y4	Male	BSc	16	2
Y5	Woman	Master's Degree	19	4
Y6	Male	Master's Degree	28	24
Y7	Male	BSc	17	15
Y8	Male	BSc	24	8

As seen in Table 1, 3 of the managers participating in the study have master's degrees and 5 of them have bachelor's degrees. Five of the participants are male and three are female. It is seen that the seniority of the participants ranges between 14 and 28 years, and their working time as a manager ranges between 2 and 24 years.

Data Collection Process and Analysis

In the analysis of the research data, deductive analysis, one of the content analysis methods, was used. Deductive analysis is summarised and interpreted according to the themes determined on the basis of the problem or sub-problems of the research and the opinions of the interviewees are often quoted (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2021).

The interviews were conducted face-to-face by the researchers in the rooms of the school administers by making an appointment with the participants beforehand. Before the interview, the purpose of the research was explained to the participants and they were informed that the personal information obtained would be used only for the research and would not be shared with third parties. All interviews were taken notes with the permission of the participants and then confirmed by the participants. Interview durations varied between 25 and 45 minutes. During the interview, in order to get detailed answers from the participants, probing questions were asked (... why do you think so? Can you include these practices in your schools? How?...) were included.

To ensure the internal security of the research, the semi-structured interview form was developed as a result of the literature review and the theoretical framework was determined. To increase the validity and reliability of the findings, the administers' own sentences and striking opinions were frequently included, and descriptions of sample selection, development of data collection tools and data collection stages were given in detail. During the interpretation of the findings, the results of the literature review and related researches were taken into consideration.

FINDINGS

1. Roles of School Administers in Inclusive Education Practices

The answers to the question of what the roles of school administers in inclusive education practices are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Roles of school administers in inclusive education practices

Manager Roles	Ensuring access to events
	To be free from prejudices
	To be fair and equal
	Positive discrimination
	Being a role model for teachers and students
	Solving communication problems with refuges
	Encouraging teachers to in-service training
	Preparing an inclusive environment
	To take into account student differences
	Organizing the physical environment of the school

The interviewed school administers expressed their roles in inclusive education practices as providing access to activities, being fair, equal and without prejudice, having positive discrimination against disadvantaged groups, being a role model for students and teachers with their behaviours and attitudes, being able to communicate especially with refugee students, preparing an inclusive environment in schools, managing the school by taking student differences into account and arranging the physical environment of schools in a way that can appeal to all students.

> Y1: "... first of all, the school administer should be free from prejudices. He/she should treat fairly and equally. Maybe he/she should make some positive discrimination".

> Y5: " As an administer, one of our main duties is to take student differences into account... Taking into account all different characteristics, there are gifted children, children in mainstreaming education, children with physical disabilities, children who have been subjected to migration, and children who come together with many different criteria. We bring these children together under the roof of a school. Under that roof, these children should be in a comfortable position. A school administer has a big role in this sense, that is, if a disabled ramp is needed, he/she should make a disabled ramp, if the child needs to use an elevator, he/she should complete this, support education rooms should be built for mainstreaming students, the classes of students in need of special education should be arranged separately, their materials should be completed, the design of the classrooms should be done accordingly, and teachers should be guided in this way above all".

To fulfill these roles in their schools, school administers stated that they encourage students to participate in activities, provide financial aid to those in need through the PTA, non-governmental organizations and teachers, direct students to the guidance service, act as role models for the school, make projects in their schools, encourage teachers to participate in in-service training and organize orientation activities. They stated that there could be more practices in schools in the context of inclusive education, but they could fall behind in some practices due to the intensity of the curriculum, too many tasks imposed on administers, teachers' lack of participation in in-service training and communication problems with refugee parents.

> Y1: "... schools should have practices that include all these children like a whole life, but can we do this in practice? At this point, we may encounter the curriculum from time to time. Because it does not allow us to do all kinds of activities. In other words, there are certain subjects that we have to teach. At this point, it is debatable how much our administers, including me, are trained. How educated our teachers are can be discussed".

> Y3: " What will you do when a disabled student comes or a foreign student comes? For example, we have a language barrier with them. I mean, children can overcome this in time, but we cannot overcome it with parents. They definitely need to go through an adaptation process".

2. Practices to be carried out in schools for inclusive education

The answers to the question of what practices should be carried out in schools for inclusive education are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Practices to be carried out in schools for inclusive education

School Practices	Have access to organizations that can help (physical/psychological assistance, cultural adaptation programs)
	A commission should be established to provide activities for all schools
	All responsibility should not be left to administers and teachers
	More norms should be given for support education and special education
	Individualised Education Plan [IEP] should be prepared
	There should be special education courses in faculties of education
	Physical equipment should be enriched (material, ramp, signboard, location of the classroom, etc...)
	Managers should be free from discrimination
	Refugees must be provided with help
	Explore and support students' talents
	Develop the corporate culture and determine the vision together
	Support the professional development of teachers
	Prepare an environment that respects student differences
	Integrate students with activities
	Be a role model in attitudes toward disadvantaged students
	Encourage and guide teachers to ensure the integration of disadvantaged students
	Organise and implement different teaching programs
	Recognize citizens of other countries
	Teachers must be able to adapt to change

As can be seen in Table 3, school administers gave many answers to the question of what could be carried out in schools for inclusive education. The administers stated for the practices that should be carried out in schools; reaching out to organizations that can help (providing special help for psychological or physical problems, supporting cultural adaptation), establishing a commission within the Provincial Directorate of National Education that will provide activities for all schools, preventing the responsibilities from being entirely on the administers and teachers, opening more norms for support education and special education, ensuring the preparation of individualized education programs (IEP), giving special education courses in education faculties, enriching the physical equipment of the schools (materials, ramps, signboards, location of the classroom, etc.), being free from discrimination, providing assistance to refugees, discovering and supporting students' talents, developing the corporate culture, determining the vision together with teachers and supporting teachers' professional development. In addition, preparing an environment that respects student differences, integrating students with activities, being a role model in attitudes towards disadvantaged students and encouraging and guiding teachers to ensure the adaptation of disadvantaged students are the views reported by school administers.

> Y1: "We send troubled children to counseling and research. I don't know, it could be attention deficit. There may be special learning difficulties. There are deficiencies at different points. Now, there are no teachers for the students who need support in certain subjects in secondary schools. So this is not taken into consideration at all. Well, this is, for example, one of our biggest problems is special education. If the child is deficient in mathematics, or for example, if the child is in the sixth grade, but the child's mathematics is at the third-grade level, there is a need for a teacher, and there are no teachers in schools''.

> Y2: "Actually, different implementations can be carried out. It is a problem that when something is to be carried out with these students, all the responsibility is given to the school administration. We may not be able to keep up with such a wide range of students".

> Y7: "Unfortunately, although they are accepted as disadvantaged, there is no difference in the curricula yet".

School administers stated that there is a need for more practices in schools for some reasons such as embracing disadvantaged children, enabling them to integrate with society, and teachers being role models by knowing how to behave towards disadvantaged students so that they can prevent bullying among children, gaining talented children, supporting students with financial inadequacies, preventing student absenteeism, providing special education and support education to complete learning deficiencies, teachers' having the necessary knowledge about disadvantaged students in their classrooms, and administers not being able to fully catch up with every situation in schools. They also stated that as school administers, they tried to include inclusive education practices by trying to organize the physical environment in their schools, encouraging teachers to participate in in-service training activities and prepare IEPs, getting the support of the guidance service and classroom teachers, organizing parent-teacher conferences, and opposing discrimination.

> Y3: "A Congolese student has a vocal talent. He was in the high school choir, for example, now he is in our music group, and the music teacher realized him. Another student had a propensity towards football, he was playing in a club, but he was having problems with the licence procedures because his student status had ended... We tried to help them with clothing, but I mean, we don't know how much these things help them, how much they are a cure for their wounds, we don't know exactly, but honestly, we try to take care of them. We try to fulfill their physical needs. Psychologically, our guidance service also provides support".

3. Practices to be carried out for disadvantaged students in schools

The answers given by school administers to the question about the practices that should be carried out for disadvantaged students in schools are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Practices that should be carried out for disadvantaged students in schools.

Practices to be carried out for disadvantaged students	
Refugees	Language course Training in Turkish culture Providing an environment where they feel safe Identify their needs To participate in activities and projects that increase self-confidence Combating discrimination Implementing programs with continuity To be able to reach graduation certificates given in their countries
Disaster-strickens	Psycho-social work Financial assistance Teacher, student, and parent training Ensuring their participation in events Harmonizing with other students
Low socio-economic level	Financial support Providing catering support at school Directing to charity organizations Providing support for participation in social activities Correct vocational orientation
Female students	Social media restrictions Parent education Positive discrimination Providing support for participation in social activities They have no problems Gender-based occupational restrictions in vocational high schools

Table 4 (Continued). Practices that should be carried out for disadvantaged students in schools.

Practices to be carried out for disadvantaged students	
Disabled people	Supplying the material needs Special education teacher assignment Physical organization of the school Peer support Special schools for visually and hearing impaired students
LGBT	Social media and foreign TV series encourage sexlessness Illness Support of Counselling and Research Center, National Education Directorate, counseling teacher I haven't encountered it, I don't know We do not recognize this Parents also need to support them No discrimination should be done

In Table 4, the opinions of school administers about the practices that should be carried out for disadvantaged students in schools are presented for refugees, disaster victims, students with low socio-economic status, girls, disabled students and LGBT students. School administers listed the things that should be carried out for refugees as attending language courses, training in Turkish culture, providing an environment where they feel safe, determining what their needs are, ensuring that they take part in activities and projects that will increase their self-confidence, combating discrimination, and accessing the documents they received in the countries they came from.

School administers stated that conducting psycho-social activities for the disaster-stricken, providing them with financial aid, training teachers, students and parents on the approach to disaster victims, and harmonizing them with other students would be psychologically good for them.

It is seen that it is important for school administers to support low socio-economic level students financially, to provide them with food support at school, to direct them to charity organizations, to provide support in participating in social activities, and to make their vocational planning with correct vocational guidance.

School administers reported that female students' access to social media should be limited. They stated that parents with girls should be educated, positive discrimination should be made for girls and their participation in social activities should be supported. They stated that there may be cases where students studying in high schools may be subjected to gender discrimination in their career choices. They also added that girls do not experience many problems.

School administers expressed their views on what needs to be carried out for the disabled as supplying the material needs, assigning special education teachers, making the physical arrangements in the school according to the needs of the students, ensuring that hearing and visually impaired students receive education in schools specially designed for them and that these students receive support from their peers.

School administers who expressed their opinions on what should be carried out for LGBT students stated that social media and foreign TV series encourage sexlessness, this is an illness, support of Counseling and Research Center, guidance and psychological counseling teachers, and the Directorate of National Education should be sought, parents should support their children, they have not encountered, do not know and cannot distinguish it.

> Y1: "... we cannot understand LGBTs in secondary schools, I mean, not much. I mean, it is not very noticeable. ...what I can say about refugees and asylum seekers is that Turkish should be taught urgently for the children who stay here, as there are problems in communication. ... it seems like girls are a bit more free in our school. I mean, they are a little more comfortable, more relaxed, more self-confident".

Y2: "Materials and school supplies for disabled students need to be supplied... I am not sure if we can communicate properly with the disaster-stricken students. There should be separate specialized psychologists for them in schools. We are not specialized in this subject. Since this is a long process, specialized psychologists should work in schools for a long time".

Y7: "If they fled the country, they have document problems. Refugees have to report it. The biggest problem is that the person who has graduated from high school or secondary school in his/her own country, he/she does not have any documents with him/her to prove it as he/she came in a hurry. The detection of the educational status of this student should be made by the ministry".

4. Roles and Responsibilities of Teachers for Inclusive Education

The answers to the question of what are the roles and responsibilities of teachers for inclusive education are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Roles and responsibilities of teachers for inclusive education

Teachers' roles and responsibilities	Should receive in-service training
	Must be free from discrimination
	Respect individual differences
	Adjust their work according to individual differences
	Provide effective classroom management
	Know the characteristics of the disadvantaged
	Include unifying activities
	Must be a role model
	Must be at an equal distance to students

As can be seen in Table 5, school administers' views on the roles and responsibilities of teachers are that teachers should receive in-service training, stay away from discrimination, respect students' differences and take these differences into account when planning their work. In addition to these, they stated that they should have effective classroom management, have detailed information about the situation of disadvantaged students, carry out unifying activities in the classroom, be positive role models for students and be at an equal distance.

Y2: "Considering the principle of equality in the education law, all teachers should be at an equal distance to all students. Students in inclusive education should participate in every activity like other children".

Y3: "Education, I mean, a little bit, especially in terms of classroom management and ownership of the problems in the classroom, class A makes more noise than class B. For example, why does it happen in maths class? I mean, this needs to be questioned. I mean, when we say that class A is naughty, there is no solution".

School administers think that teachers should improve themselves in some areas. They listed these development areas as follows; knowing inclusive education, planning activities to include all students, analyzing disadvantaged students, mastering classroom management, analyzing students' problems and their causes, having guidance skills and accepting individual differences.

Y1: "Well, including me, we forget some information over time. Well, this information needs to be re-evaluated. You know, we go to an in-service training even though we know a lot of things at many points, we criticize ourselves by saying, "I knew this, but look, I haven't applied it for a long time".

Y5: "Our teachers need to get rid of the idea of a teacher who thinks that inclusive education does not have a single type of student type, that there should be the same type of students in front of him/her, who listens to what he/she tells. They should first believe that children who attach importance to individual differences, that is, children from different cultures, different environments and children with different disadvantages can receive a very good education together. If they improve themselves in this regard, for example, what is inclusive education, what can be done with disadvantaged groups related to special education, what can be added to the lessons..."

5. Responsibilities of Parents for Inclusive Education

The answers to the question of what responsibilities parents have for inclusive education are given in Table 6.

Table 6. Responsibilities of parents for inclusive education

Parents' responsibilities	To be positive model for their children
	Not labeling others
	Being free from discrimination
	Being a caring parent
	Providing financial and emotional support to disadvantaged students
	Frequent visits to the school
	Solving language problems
	Not being ashamed of preferring special education schools that may be suitable for their children
	Not to put pressure on the child when choosing a profession, to encourage the child to fulfill his/her dreams
	Orientate consciously

As seen in Table 6, the school administers' views on the responsibility of parents are that they should be an example for their children, should not label other children, should not discriminate, should be parents who take care of their children, should support disadvantaged children financially and morally, should visit the school frequently and should solve language problems to communicate effectively.

> Y2: "No matter how much we involve children in this work, this work can be interrupted without the support of parents. Some refugee parents don't even answer the phone, we have to go to their houses. They do not come to pick up the children from school at the end of the day, we cannot reach them by phone, we drop them off".

> Y5: "The child of a family that labels others also labels others when he/she comes to school. In this sense, it is very valuable for families to be conscious, to give the children the necessity not to discriminate between refugees, not to discriminate between children".

Speaking about the expectations of parents, school administers stated that some parents with disadvantaged children expect special treatment, they want to be recognized, some of them demand financial support, some of them want to know where their children are during daytime hours and getting a diploma is enough for them, some of them do not visit the school and they do not have any expectations. It was mentioned that some of them expected high academic success.

> Y1: "The parents of some of them are very sensitive. Sometimes they try to ask for other things, but those are not things that we can afford or do. I mean, I try to understand them too, but the school's facilities are also limited".

> Y3: "The first expectation of our students' parents is that the student should receive a high school education and have a diploma. They want their child stay away from useless people. We have a group that wants to know where their child is in the daytime and if he/she passes the university exam, all the better".

6. Awareness of the Society towards Inclusive Education

The opinions of school administers on the awareness of society towards inclusive education are given in Table 7.

Table 7. Public awareness of inclusive education

Public awareness	Irresponsible behaviour
	No empathy
	Low awareness
	Insensitive
	More conscious than before
	Exclusionary attitudes

When Table 7 is analyzed, it is understood that school administers think that the awareness of society towards inclusive education is at a low level. They stated that society can behave irresponsibly, lack empathy, have low awareness about inclusive education, are more conscious than before, have exclusionist attitudes and act insensitively.

> Y5: "... I cannot say a precise distinction, but I cannot say that the awareness of inclusive education in society is very high. Unfortunately, as a society, we do not consider individual differences, especially those who are in disadvantaged groups, we feel sorry for them but want them to stay away from us. In fact, there is no such thing in our culture, our culture is a society that loves to help, especially to help those in difficult situations".

> Y7: "I mean, while families with disabilities used to hide their children, did not want to take them out of the house, and having a child with disabilities was seen as a shame by the society, now there are many parents who make efforts to bring their children to a school and to receive education in that school. In this respect, I see the awareness of the society".

School administers stated their responsibilities to raise awareness of inclusive education in society as being controlling, finding a way to reach every child, providing education to parents, identifying disadvantaged parents and informing the authorities about the situation.

> Y2: "I think it should be known who is where through official records".

> Y3: "... I think these families need to be identified and conveyed to the authorized places".

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, and RECOMMENDATIONS

School leadership plays an important role in the degree of successful implementation of inclusion (Billingsley, et al., 2018). For inclusive education to be effective, those who lead education should make efforts to reach inclusive goals, believe that inclusion is valuable, and have attitudes that will not compromise on social justice (Carter & Abawi, 2018). In this study, school administers' views on inclusive education, the problems they face and their suggestions for solutions are discussed. The first finding of the face-to-face interviews with administers is that school administers have an awareness of inclusive education that needs to be increased. The roles of school administers in inclusive education practices are stated as; preparing an inclusive environment, providing access to activities within the school, organizing the physical environment of the school and encouraging teachers to in-service training. It was found that school administers hold themselves responsible for the activities that neet to be carried out in the school and the organization of physical conditions. Robinson & Timperley (2007) mentioned that an administer has an important effect on promoting teacher learning and stated that providing educational guidance, creating a community that knows how to increase student achievement and choosing and developing smart tools are among the dimensions of administration. This finding of our study is in line with the findings of Robinson & Timperley's study on school leaders. School administers stated that teachers have a "key role" in inclusive education and that they should be encouraged to receive in-service training, but they did not express the opinion that they could receive in-service training on this issue, as well. However, creating and maintaining an inclusive education culture inside and outside the school requires multidimensional studies, cooperation and teamwork (Aydın Güngör & Pehlivan, 2021). In this case, it can be said that school administers' perceptions of administer roles and responsibilities regarding inclusive education are low.

School administers stated that they should be role models for teachers and students by being free from prejudices, being fair and equal, and sometimes even resorting to positive discrimination. In Dilekçi's (2019) research, the fact that school administers' metaphorical perceptions of inclusive education include the themes of equality and unity supports this conclusion.

It was found that school administers experience communication problems with refugees and the solution to these problems is among the roles and responsibilities of school administers. In parallel to this, according to the findings of Çelik et al. (2021), school administers state language and communication

barriers as one of the most challenging problems. Regarding the practices to be carried out in schools for inclusive education, school administers mentioned auxiliary organizations, a commission for all schools that will provide activities for students, sharing responsibility, physical equipment, corporate culture and vision, teacher norms, individualized education program, special education courses in faculties of education, administers' attitudes, assistance to disadvantaged students, and teacher development. Tosun, et al. (2018) concluded in their study that as long as the schools' climate, teachers' attitudes and various activities are positive, adaptation behaviours can be seen at a higher rate. The school administers participating in the study suggested that the activities that should be carried out in schools and classrooms should be sent by the central administration. It is certainly important to provide equal opportunities in educational services, but the same educational approach may not be instructive for every student (Rose & Meyer, 2007), and the uniqueness of classes and individuals should not be ignored. The fact that school administers agree on helping refugees, improving the physical conditions of schools and providing more supportive education and special education teachers is an important finding in terms of understanding the needs in schools. Çelik, İşler, and Saka (2021) also found that there are deficiencies in materials and school needs that should be prepared for the language problems of refugees.

As stated by Ayanoğlu and Erdoğan (2019), the fact that school administers, as members of the individualized education program development unit, chair meetings, make suggestions, follow up the planned activities and whether the individualized education program has been created, determine the benefits and deficiencies and observe the contribution to the development of students shows the importance given by school administers to this plan and supports the second finding of this study. However, there is no individualized education program implementation in inclusive education practices and this finding shows that administers lack knowledge about inclusive education.

Teachers' participation in creating the school's vision which means making plans for the future, shows that they play an active role in shaping the future of the organization. The vision, including teachers' own decisions, can be effective in the context of creating and maintaining inclusive schools and classrooms. Regarding the second question of this study, the finding that in-service training should be provided to teachers, supports the finding obtained from the first question and is in line with the finding of Lindsay et al. (2013) that training and support should be provided to teachers.

Preparing an environment that respects student differences, integrating students with activities, encouraging and guiding teachers to ensure the adaptation of disadvantaged students and discovering and supporting students' talents are the views mentioned by the administers. These views are in line with Causton and Theoharis's (2014) research that it is important for administers as school leaders to act in a way that includes all students while creating school's educational cultures.

In terms of what needs to be done for disadvantaged students, it was stated that refugees should be provided with language courses and training on Turkish culture, an environment of trust, determining their needs, participation in activities and projects that increase self-confidence, combating discrimination, and ease in accessing their documents given by their own countries' schools. This finding is in line with the findings of Büyükikiz and Çangal (2016), who reported that it is important for the future of refugees who are in educational age, should know Turkish and Turkish culture and participate in social activities.

School administers who expressed their opinions on what should be done for disaster-strickens mentioned about the necessities of conducting psycho-social studies in schools, providing financial help, training teachers, students and parents, ensuring the participation of disaster victims in activities, and ensuring their adaptation with other students. In the evaluation of the findings of Limoncu and Atmaca (2018), which are in line with this finding, it was revealed that children should be given priority in their personal needs, a collaboration of parents, children and educational institutions should be established after the disaster, and children should be rehabilitated with psycho-social support since it will take a long time to erase the psychological effects of the disasters.

School administers reported that the following should be done for students with low socio-economic status: providing financial support, providing food support at school, directing them to charity organizations, providing support in participating in social activities, and providing correct vocational guidance. The positive effect of socio-economic corrections and support on students' school success was also observed as a result of the analysis of PISA 2015 performance (Dolu, 2020).

School administers reported that they did not experience a visible educational barrier in Çanakkale province in terms of female students, nevertheless, they offered suggestions such as limiting the time spent on social media, providing parental education, providing positive discrimination for girls, and supporting their participation in social activities. It can be said that the high level of education of the parent profile in Çanakkale province is effective in reaching this finding. In addition, the finding that they should not be discriminated on the basis of gender in their occupational preferences coincides with the finding of Maktav (2019) that occupations in the labour market are selected according to gender due to the prejudices that women are sensitive and gentle, while men are durable and tough.

School administers stated that meeting the material needs of students with disabilities, assigning special education teachers, physical arrangements of the school and providing peer support can be the practices that can be implemented in schools. Demirtaş (2019) also states that individuals with disabilities have problems in accessing inclusive education and recommends that schools should include practices that will make life easier for the disabled.

Some of the school administers stated that they did not notice or encounter LGBT students. The finding that LGBT individuals hide themselves in educational environments is in line with the finding of Altan (2019) that LGBT individuals do not reveal themselves to their peers and teachers in schools. Some school administers stated that they encountered LGBT students and asked for help from the school's counselling service and Counseling and Research Centre for a solution. They stated that the attitude of the family is decisive here and more positive results are obtained with parents who support their children on this issue. As Ryan et al. (2010) stated in their research, the psychological health of LGBT individuals who experience family acceptance is also positively affected. The fact that school administers stated that in case of encountering an LGBT student, they can ask for help from the counseling service, Counceling and Research Centre or the Directorate of National Education coincides with the finding of Aslan (2020) that these individuals are directed to psychological help by school administers.

School administers' opinions about the roles and responsibilities of teachers for inclusive education are as follows: teachers should receive in-service training, be free from discrimination, respect individual differences, adjust their work according to individual differences, provide effective classroom management, know the characteristics of the disadvantaged, include unifying activities, be role models, and be at an equal distance to students. Finkelnstein, et al. (2021) addressed the inclusive practices of teachers with the definition of the inclusive teacher profile developed by the European Agency for the Development of Special Needs Education. According to this profile; valuing learner diversity, supporting all learners, working with others and continuous professional development competencies should constitute teachers' understanding of inclusive education. In another study, in interviews with disadvantaged children, they stated that their teachers' positive approach influenced them to develop a sense of belonging and teachers' positive attitudes toward the disadvantaged develop a positive atmosphere for all the children in the classroom (Mansourri & Jenkins, 2010). The characteristics mentioned in the statements of school administers are in parallel with the issues addressed in this study.

Regarding the responsibilities of parents for inclusive education, school administers reported the following opinions: being a positive model for their children, not labeling others, being free from discrimination, being concerned parents, providing financial and emotional support to disadvantaged students, visiting the school frequently, and solving language problems. In their study, Erdoğan et al. (2022) pointed out school administers' opinions as discrimination is a problem for both children and families, and it would be effective for schools to increase the number of activities that would support the participation of families. McDevitt (2016) found that families cannot communicate with their

children's teachers due to language barriers. In addition, Tobin et al. (2013) stated that language problems of families prevent them from being interested in their children's education and they have difficulty in communicating with their teachers.

In response to the question about the awareness of society towards inclusive education, it was answered that the society behaves irresponsibly, does not empathize, has low awareness and is insensitive. In his research, Sakız (2022) emphasized that while the education system and schools educate individuals to realize what needs to be done in social life, they should also receive support from society. Mansori and Jenkins (2010), in their research, mentioned that disadvantaged groups faced prejudice in schools, these students could not feel belonging and wanted to return to their own countries.

In this study, school administers' views on inclusive education, the problems they face and their suggestions for solutions were analyzed. Based on the findings, it has been observed that school administers have an awareness of inclusive education; however, some administers, on the contrary, have a low perception of their own roles and responsibilities in inclusive education by holding teacher responsibility higher. In this case, it can be said that school administers should improve their knowledge of their roles and responsibilities in inclusive education. Schools can include experts in inclusive education services so that more positive and constructive steps can be taken to reach all students. In addition, it is important to increase the perceptions of parents and society about inclusive education so that all students, regardless of their disadvantages, can access qualified education and feel a sense of belonging in educational environments. For this purpose, training programs can be organized at national level. All stakeholders of inclusive education should care about the physical and physiological well-being of students, guide them in line with their interests and abilities, and support their development. Administers especially emphasized on psychological well-being and language barrier, they also stated that they may experience systematic and educational problems in schools in this regard. It may be beneficial to increase psycho-social studies and language learning programs for both student and parent refugees in schools.

The findings also show that the practices to be carried out inside and outside the school, teachers, school administers, parents and community attitudes are interrelated in the nature of inclusive education, and a disruption in one of the dimensions can affect the others, as well. It is important to organize these dimensions in harmony and improve the education given to the disadvantaged. The well-being with school and environment in psycho-social, physical, and communicational ways will affect the educational lives of students positively. This study is expected to contribute to the perceptions of inclusive education and serve to increase the inclusive qualities of schools by revealing school administers' views on inclusive education, the problems they experience and their perceptions about solving them.

Ethics and Conflict of Interest
We declare that I collected data in accordance with ethical rules during the research process and acted in accordance with all ethical rules. There is no conflict of interest between authors.

REFERENCES

Ainscow, M. (2016). Diversity and equity: A global education challenge. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies, 51*(2), 143-155. doi: https://l24.im/lyrQ

Aktekin, S. (2017). *Sınıfında yabancı uyruklu öğrenci bulunan öğretmenler için el kitabı* [Handbook for teachers with foreign students in their classrooms]. Ankara: MEB Publishing. doi: https://l24.im/Y4v

Altan, S. (2019). Herkes' için kapsayıcı eğitim [Inclusive education for all]. *Critical Pedagogy,* (60), 27-31. doi: https://l24.im/ikMmj

Aslan, K. (2020). *Türkiye'de LGBT olmak: Ayrımcılık, şiddet, memnuniyet üçgeninde kesit veri analizi* [LGBT Turkey to be: Discrimination, violance, triangular section data analysis in satisfaction]. (Unpublished master's thesis). Akdeniz University, Institute of Social Sciences, Antalya. doi: https://l24.im/rUHTC

TIJSEG

Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counseling   2023, volume 12, issue 2

Ayanoğlu, Ç., & Gür Erdoğan, D. (2019). Okul yönecilerinin özel gereksinimli öğrencilere bireyselleştirilmiş eğitim planı (BEP) hazırlanması/uygulanması hakkındaki görüşleri [The school admininsters' views about preparing/implementing individualized education plan (IEP) fort he students with special needs]. *Ankara University Faculty of Educaional Sciences Journal of Special Education, 20*(4), 677-706. https://l24.im/hRvcYH

Aydın Güngör, T., & Pehlivan, O. (2021). Kapsayıcı eğitimin Türk eğitim sistemindeki yeri ve önemi [The place and importance of inclusive education in Turkish education system]. *Studies in Educational Research and Development, 5*(1), 48-71. doi: https://l24.im/KGEO2jm

Billingsley, B., DeMatthews, D., Connally, K., & McLeskey, J. (2018). Leadership for effective inclusive schools: Considerations for preparation and reform. *Australasian Journal of Special and Inclusive Education, 42*(1), 65–81. doi: https://l24.im/3IZt

Bursalıoğlu, Z. (1997). *Okul yönetiminde yeni yapı ve davranış* [The new construction and attitudes in school management]. PEGEM Publishing.

Büyükikiz, K., K. & Çangal, Ö. (2016). Suriyeli misafir öğrencilere Türkçe öğretimi projesi üzerine bir değerlendirme [An evaluation on teaching Turkish to Syrian guest students project]. *Journal of International Turkish Literature Culture Education, 5*(3), 1414-1430. doi: https://l24.im/NaBX

Carter, S., & Abawi, L-A. (2018). Leadership, inclusion, and quality education for all. *Australasian Journal of Special and Inclusive Education, 42*(1), 49-64. doi: https://l24.im/eabSCD1

Causton, J., & Theoharis, G. (2014). Handbook of effective inclusive schools. In James McLeskey, Fred Spooner, Bob Algozzine, Nancy, L. Waldron (Eds.) *How Do Schools Become Effective and Inclusive? (pp.* 29-42). New York: Routledge.

Cresswell, W. J. (2017). *Araştırma deseni: Nicel, nitel ve karma yöntem yaklaşımları* [Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods]. (S. B., Demir, transl.). Ankara: Eğiten Kitap Publishing.

Çelik, S., Kardaş İşler, N., & Saka, D. (2021). Refugee education in Turkey: barriers and suggested solutions. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society Online Journal*, 1-19. doi: https://l24.im/3VKBv2

Demirel Kaya, E. (2019). *Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'nın temel eğitim kademesindeki dezavantajlı öğrencilere yönelik kapsayıcı eğitim politika ve uygulamaları (2002-2018).* [Politics and implementations of inclusive education fort he disadvantaged students in primary education level of Mininstry of National Education], (Unpublished master's thesis). Gazi University, Institute of Gazi Educational Sciences, Ankara. doi: https://l24.im/uzbAkFV

Demirtaş, Z. (2019). Uluslararası antlaşmalar çerçevesinde engellilerin eğitim hakkı [Education right of disabled individuals in the context of international contracts]. *Academic Journal of Human Rights and Equality Institution of Turkey*, (2), 19-59. doi: https://l24.im/oK5iuAG

Dilekçi, Ü. (2019). Okul yöneticilerinin "Kapsayıcı Eğitim" kavramına ilişkin algıları: Bir metafor analizi çalışması [School administers' perceptions of the concept of "Inclusive Education": A metaphor analysis study.]. In *14th International Congress on Educational Administration Full Text Book of Proceedings* (pp. 84-90). Papers presented at 14. International Congress on Educational Administration, Ankara: PEGEM Publishing.

Dolu, A. (2020). Sosyo-ekonomik faktörlerin eğitim performansı üzerine etkisi: PISA 2015 Türkiye örneği [Impact of socio-economic factors on educational performance: PISA 2015 Turkey case]. *Journal of Management and Economics Research, 18*(2), 41-58. doi: https://l24.im/8xQhYkM

Erdoğan, A., Hoplamaz, F., Atmaca, G., & Kesik, A. (2022). Okul yöneticilerinin kapsayıcı eğitime ilişkin görüşleri, yaşadıkları sorunlar ve çözüm önerileri [Opinions of school administers on inclusive education, problems they experience and solutions]. *of Mustafa Kemal University Journal Faculty of Education, 6*(10), 231-246. doi: https://l24.im/2My

Finkelnstein, S., Sharma, U., & Furlonger, B. (2021). The inclusive practices of classroom teachers: A scoping review and thematic analysis. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 25*(6), 735-762. doi: https://l24.im/NDMqh

İra, N., & Gör, D. (2018). Eğitim fakültesi öğretim üyelerinin kapsayıcı eğitime yönelik görüşleri [Opinions of the faculty members of the faculty of education on inclusive education]. *Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counseling, 7*(2), 29-38. https://l24.im/TVAPwkY

Limoncu, S., & Atmaca, A. B. (2018). Çocuk merkezli afet yönetimi [Child-centered disaster management]. *Megaron, 13*(1), 132-143. https://l24.im/pC5

Maktav, D. S. (2019). İşgücü piyasasında cinsiyet ayrımcılığının ücret politikasına yansıması ve Birleşmiş Milletler Antlaşmalarındaki yeri [Reflections of gender discrimination on wage policies in labour market and its rola in united nation agreements]. *Journal of International Health Management and Strategies Research, 5*(2), 104-117. doi: https://tinyurl.com/ce8s9azk

Mansouri, F., & Jenkins, L. (2010). Schools as sites of race relations and intercultural tension. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 35*(7), 93-108. doi: https://is.gd/sY5Zl2

McDevitt, S. E. (2016). Children crossing borders: Immigrant parents and teacher perspectives on preschool. *Contemporary Issues in Early Childhood, 17*(3), 343-351. doi: https://is.gd/CGqaaP

Official Newspaper (1995). United Nations Conventions of the Rights of the Child. (1995, January 25). Issue: 22184. Retrieved from: https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/arsiv/22184.pdf

Riehl, C. J. (2000) The principal's role in creating inclusive schools for diverse students: A review of normative, empirical, and critical literature on the practice of educational administration. *Review of Educational Research, 70*(1), 55-81. doi: https://is.gd/z3ukxd

Robinson, V. M. J., & Timperley, H. S. (2007). The leadership of improving teaching and learning: Lessons from initiatives with positive student outcomes. *Australian Journal of Education, 51*(3), 247-262. doi: https://is.gd/LnWsLv

Rose, D. H. & Meyer, A. (2007). Teaching every student in the digital age: Universal design for learning. *Educational Technology Reseach and Development, 55*(10), 521-525. doi: https://is.gd/DK1DTe

Ryan, C., Russell S., T., Huebner, D., Diaz, R., & Sanchez, J. (2010). Family acceptance in adolescence and the health of LGBT young adults. *J Child Adolesc Psychiatr Nurs. 23*(4), 205-13. doi: https://is.gd/jtmO1R

Sakız, H. (2022). Kapsayıcı eğitimin psikolojisi: Güncel eğilimler, güncellenen uygulamalar [Psychology of inclusive education: Contemporary tendencies, updated practices]. *Turkish Journal of Special Education Research and Practice, 4*(1), 1-26. doi: https://is.gd/beR82o

Lindsay, S., Proulx, M., Thomson, N., & Scott, H. (2013). Educators' challenges of including children with autism spectrum disorder in mainstream classrooms. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education, 60*(4), 347–362. doi: https://is.gd/WClXCO

Tobin, J., Arzubiaga, A. E., & Adair, J. K. (2013). *Children crossing borders*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.

Tosun, A., Yorulmaz, A., Tekin, İ., & Yıldız, K. (2018). Mülteci öğrencilerin eğitim sorunları, eğitim ve din eğitiminden beklentileri: Eskişehir örneği [Problems and expectations of refugee students about education and religious education: Case of Eskişehir]. *Eskişehir Osmangazi University Journal of Social Sciences, 19*(1), 107-133. doi: https://is.gd/RXJdKA

UNESCO (2001). *Open file on inclusive education*. Paris, UNESCO.

UNESCO (2005). *Guidelines for inclusion: Ensuring access to education for all.* Paris, UNESCO.

UNESCO (2009). *Policy guidelines on inclusion in education*. France: UNESCO.

UNESCO (2009). *Education for all.* 12.04.2023 retrieved from https://www.unesco.org.tr/Pages/13/47/Herkes-i%C3%A7in-E%C4%9Fitim-(EFA)

Ünal, R., & Yel, S. (2019). Development of a social acceptance scale for inclusive education. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 7*(10), 2187 – 2198. doi: https://is.gd/nwAH7F

Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2021). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma yöntemleri* [Qualitative research techniques in social sciences]. Ankara: Seçkin Publishing.

DISSOANALYTIC PERSPECTIVE ON TRAUMA, DISSOCIATION AND ALTER PERSONALITY: PLURALISTIC PERSONALITY, HOLISTIC SELF, DEEP MEMORY, AND CONSCIOUSNESS

Erdinç ÖZTÜRK
Prof. Dr., Istanbul University-Cerrahpaşa, Institute of Forensic Sciences and Legal Medicine, Department of Social Sciences, Psychotraumatology and Psychohistory Research Unit, Director, Istanbul, Turkey
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1553-2619
erdincerdinc@hotmail.com

Aylin AYDIN
Instructor, Istanbul Nisantasi University, Istanbul Nisantasi Vocational School,
Applied English and Translation, Istanbul, Turkey
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0287-3844
aylinaydinacademic@gmail.com

Görkem DERIN
Dr., Istanbul University-Cerrahpaşa, Institute of Forensic Sciences and Legal Medicine,
Department of Social Sciences, Psychotraumatology and Psychohistory Research Unit, Istanbul, Turkey
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9527-3110
gorkem.derin@gmail.com

Suggested Citation:
Öztürk, E., Aydın, A., & Derin, G. (2023). Dissoanalytic perspective on trauma, dissociation and alter personality: Pluralistic personality, holistic self, deep memory, and consciousness. *Turkish International Journal of Special Education and Guidance & Counselling (TIJSEG), 12*(2), 164-177.

Abstract

Dissociation is an "*escape way*" from unbearable traumatic events, a tendency for denying or oppressing traumas and their effects as well as the emotions stemming from them. The traumatic reality is not fully grasped, nor processed but have their disruptive effects in the life of individuals subject to traumatic events. What amplifies the power and role of traumatic events in the life of individuals are less elaborative parents about their dissociogenic family dynamics, parents that adopt negative child-rearing styles, apparently normal families with dysfunctional features, societies in which individuals feel insecure and the justice is not secured all of which are compelling psychological situations that are difficult to handle. Construction of self, self-esteem, a unique and associate identity within autobiographical memory is inevitably interrupted by all these traumatic events deepened with dysfunctional family dynamics at the expense of ruining individual's singular consciousness. Dissociation is a result of actions of individuals struggling for reintegration. On that account, as *"Modern Psychotraumatology: trauma and dissociation studies"* and *"Dissoanalysis Theory"*, founded by Ozturk, establish an association between trauma and identity, their reciprocal relations with memory and self are discussed herein on the ground of modern psychotraumatology.

Keywords, Dissoanalysis theory, modern psychotraumatology, dissociation, holistic self, pluralistic personality.

Transgenerational Transmission of Trauma, Transgenerational Transfer of Dissociation and Constructing Autobiographical Memory Through Dysfunctional Family Dynamics: A Dissoanalytical Approach

One can predict that the rise and decline of psychotraumatology in all historical periods has been characterized by ethical and unethical mental health professionals divided into two different poles in their phobic orientation, and this grounding transforms into a dynamic movement with the support of the dominant one at the time, and professional awareness due to their opposing nature of functioning in opposition to each other, whereas societal levels of compassion and awareness run parallel to periods of growth, while resistance to trauma studies, insensitivity and indifference of mainstream psychiatry run parallel to periods of decline. (Ozturk, 2021a). Transgenerational transmission of

trauma is a psychotraumatology-based focus in the disciplines of psychiatry, psychohistory and clinical psychology within the axis of dysfunctional family dynamics, closely related to domestic violence, family psychopathology, childhood traumas and dissociation. In transgenerational transmission of trauma, dysfunctional family dynamics result in violence-oriented and negative child-rearing styles characterized with unempathetic approach while this pervasive period creates *"transgenerational transfer of psychopathology"*. As Ozturk points out, transgenerational transmission of trauma is parallel to transgenerational transfer of psychopathology. What is more generally stated in this context is child-rearing styles both change and evolve, resulting in similar rates of childhood traumas and similar inherent psychopathologies in successive generations. Stated differently, parents with the same child-rearing style raise new generations of dysfunctional children who are traumatized and psychopathologized in a way that is equivalent to their own and their parents' traumatized and psychopathologized generations (Ozturk, 2022e).

Dysfunctional families and dysfunctional generations are the primary actors of transgenerational transmission of trauma. By structuring transgenerational transmission of trauma studies on the basis of quantitative methodologies that can be measured and tested on a theoretical basis by modern psychotraumatology paradigms and dissoanalysis theory, it can be thoroughly investigated within the perspective of clinical psychology (Ozturk, 2021a). Ozturk further defined transgenerational transfer of psychopathology as the transmission of psychiatric diagnoses (dissociative disorders, depressive disorder, post-traumatic stress disorder and anxiety disorder, etc.), psychological problems and dilemmas (self-harming behaviours, fused interpersonal relationships, revictimization experiences and suicide attempts, etc.) by dysfunctional families whose chronic, complex and cumulative childhood traumas are marked by violence-oriented negative child-rearing styles to the next generation. Violence-oriented and ambivalent negative child-rearing styles, encompassing early childhood traumas are the proactive agents in such transgenerational transfer of psychopathology. Accordingly, traumatic life events and similar psychopathologies are expected to be observed at the same rate in the next generations, having highly similar negative child-rearing styles. (Ozturk, 2022e).

Ozturk, who is the most important representative of modern psychotraumatology and dissoanalytic school in the world, claims that the phenomena of *"transgenerational transmission of trauma"*, *"transgenerational transfer of psychopathology"* and *"transgenerational transmission of dissociation"*, which he pioneered in the field of clinical psychology, are the main scientific focuses closely related to family psychopathology, childhood traumas, individual and social dissociative experiences on the axis of *"dysfunctional family dynamics"* (Ozturk, 2022a; 2022b). The phenomenon of transgenerational transfer of dissociation and the phenomenon of intergenerational transmission of dissociation have close relationship dynamics and function transitions. The phenomenon of transgenerational transfer of dissociation is defined as the transfer of dissociative experiences between three or more generations, whereas intergenerational transmission of dissociation is defined as the transition of dissociative experiences between only two generations. In both phenomena, violence-oriented and all psychosocial dilemmas that are closely related to chronic, complex and cumulative childhood traumas that start at an early age, which function as the main component of *"transgenerational transfer of dissociation"* and *"transgenerational transfer of psychopathology"* by hiding in negative child-rearing styles with unempathetic approach, and which are likely to be experienced at maximal rates in every nation of the world, should be terminated urgently through *"dissoanalysis theory"*, that is, *"psychocommunal therapy"* (Ozturk, 2023a; 2023b).

Individuals create their autobiographical selves and socially construct themselves through their personal experiences, and stories which are sometimes saliently expressed but most of the times are hidden because of the parents being unable to cope with traumatic experiences let alone expressing them to their children, which is why these hidden stories turn into traumatic oscillations besides making these parents hesitative in counting their children in their real life (Fivush, 2019). Autobiographical memories are constructed by all the life events the persona in question is a part of. Parents being hesitative and avoidant in sharing their traumatic family histories with their children

either because of being unconcerned about them or with the aim of over protecting their children from traumatic effects of these agonising events on their children ignorantly cause deficient construction of the autobiographical memories per se. In other words, parents, in doing so, unwittingly entails the risk for their children's autobiographical memories, in which stories, real life events, traumatic life events their parents had been through are faultily and incompletely encoded, to be constructed in a way that individuals not being told the stories to cannot brace themselves for coping with similar traumas. One of the possible grounds for "*transgenerational transmission of trauma and dissociation*" and "*transgenerational transfer of psychopathology*" to get off might be the unrevealed traumatic family histories or dysfunctional family dynamics, while others would be the ones individuals directly experience as childhood traumas at an early age being related to various reasons such as having parents adopting negative child-rearing styles and being brought up by parents prone to violence. The tendencies of individuals holding traumatic memories which arose by cumulative, chronic and complex childhood traumas grounding at an early age to adapt to new and various realities are one of the escape ways from traumatic events which is possible by differentiating from what they have been through. The solution like resemblance of the differentiation and splitting of individuals and dissociative experiences at the pathological level disrupts the association of self and is a maladaptive solution for coping with traumatic events as it makes them dysfunctional, open to the manipulation and oppression of narcissists, abusers and dictators when evaluated from the social life perspective. In other words, while the tying of those traumatic events to the personal life experiences of individuals in memory help them protect the association of self as they are internalized, the vice versa, which is not feeling the part of that pain, trauma and angoisse, ends in alienating the self from the traumatic event and dissociating it as a whole at the expense of losing the integration.

Having social, cognitive, and linguistic grounds, autobiographical memory consists of consciously recalled events that are directly associated with the identity and a rich and evaluative personal autobiographical memory system is constructed with the help of highly elaborative parents which contribute to the children's self-understanding as well as building associative and integrative selves (Reese, 2002). Social reminiscing efforts of parents are of great importance for the good of individuals in terms of contributing to their autobiographical memory construction process, the raising of their self-consciousness and the improvement of their skill of linking internal reactions to external life events which are necessary for an association in identity (Gulgoz & Sahin-Acar, 2020). The fact that autobiographical memory is constructed with personal experiences, the contribution of elaborative parents is of great importance for filling the blanks in mind with regard to the construction and protection of *"self"*, and individuals' self-awareness thrives along with what they have in their autobiographical memory, either being episodic or semantic, it can then be speculated that the association of memories thereunto appertaining to the *"self"* are protected and stored in the autobiographical memory to be consciously recalled for integration. Putting this positive scenario aside, when the nature of autobiographical memory is questioned in terms of psychologically uncomfortable life events let alone traumatic ones, the elaboration for the construction and protection of *"self"* needs to be detailed much more carefully. Dissociating the compelling, harmful and traumatic experiences because of the detrimental effect of them on constructing autobiographical memory pool in which the *"self"* is constructed would be an alternative adaptive escape way for vulnerable individuals. On the other hand, traumatized and dissociated individuals have the tendency to selectively recall compelling, harmful and traumatic memories that are hard-wired and immutable and despite that, alter the content of them along with their concerns (Bryant, 2015). This awareness of the traumatized individuals would be another alternative scenario and these two scenarios might lead us to understand how individuals differently construct their *"selves"* within autobiographical memory; by dissociation or over hyperawareness.

Dissociation, which on the other hand snowballs with negative child-rearing styles, being brought up by less elaborative parents about their traumatic family histories and with dysfunctional communication and relationship styles or in contrast agitating their children with them, can be

capsulated in the definition that it is a defence mechanism adopted against unbearable traumatic life events and is mostly comorbidly associated with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). It was first theoretically grounded by Pierre Janet, a science icon and the founder psychotraumatology, that in dissociation, the dissociated individuals' psychological development is interrupted and they are unable to integrate their traumatic memory, both because they maximally experience and their personality, suffers from being stuck in a traumatic dead end (Ozturk, 2022a). The construction of *"self"* and personal experiences in autobiographical memory might then be replaced by severe traumatic events apart from being dissociated. Ozturk, who is a trauma therapist, a psychohistorian, a dissoanalyst and today's pioneer in the field of dissociation and trauma, defines dissociation as repetitive but sometimes external and sometimes internal traumatic stimulus flow with a complete denial at various times when individuals are exposed to the trauma (Ozturk, 2023a). In other words, dissociation is an escape way from traumatic life events in the form of denial. Traumatic and negative life events that are unbearable and agonizing lose the association and integration within its own context and are triggered by recurrent severe traumatic events which then inevitably turn out to be a part of "*psychosocial memory*" as well as the "*deep memory*" of individuals who feel helplessly vulnerable (Ozturk, 2022b; 2022c). Ozturk elaborates on "*deep memory*" in terms of being somewhat a pool closed to intervention and suffused with traumatic experiences as well as psychopathogenic or dysfunctional family dynamics (Ozturk, 2021). Evaluating dissociation on empirical and theoretical grounds, Ozturk highlights the growth and shift of dissociated traumatic events, memories and emotions to "*psychosocial memory*" and points to their enlargement within psychosocial concepts in which these individuals become prone to the manipulation of the ones ruling and controlling the societies as a token of their strength over them. The rationale on these realities would be that individuals either cope with the emotions they gain after a traumatic event by elaborating on them, which sounds adaptive, or this elaboration turns into a maladaptive cognitive emotion regulation style as in rumination, or they dissociate those unbearable traumas as a defence mechanism and they are kept distinct in their autobiographical memories.

As stated by Ozturk, dissociation is the excessive and intense integration effort of a divided and multiple consciousness system as well as being a dynamic process, a strong desire and struggle for integration or unification rather than a division. Dissociation is also defined by Ozturk as a process functioning merely within the context of ordinary life experiences that distract from traumatic memories. Dissociation is the experience of losing the sense of ownership and belonging to one's own identity and thereby feeling depersonalized against environment and time during or immediately before or after repetitive and compelling traumatic events and negative child-rearing styles, focusing on the traumatic self and establishing contact with oneself and one's environment, both with oneself and with one's multiple selves as well as one's own internal and multiple realities, regardless of time, but without completely severing one's connection with absolute reality (Ozturk, 2021b). Loss of psychological integration and shifting focus of attention are experienced by traumatized individuals adapting *"dissociative experiences"*, *"dissociative reactions"* and *"dissociative defences"* which pave ways for creating a close relationship of the stream of consciousness with subclinical or clinical dissociative experiences (Ozturk, 2022a). In other words, the social functioning and optimization of these experiences are realized and evaluated from the perspectives of actual life which naturally and inevitably necessitate dissociation of some events.

Dissociation: An Escape Way from Trauma Leading to Fear and Anxiety
Fear, which is more reasonable through our mental, linguistic and symbolic skills, is an emotion that distinguishes us from other living beings, triggers our impulses to retreat as far as possible from the discomforting object, reminds us that we need to take precautions to avoid harm, and can often be triggering and sometimes intense enough to prevent us from acting (Svendsen, 2017). Fear is an emotion consisting of subjective elements having genetic, cultural, environmental, physiological, and psychological grounds (Butcher et. al., 2013). As in every fear, there is a triggering of an emotion in the fear of death in a similar way. When the feeling of fear, which is a strong emotion, is further triggered, the negative emotion loses its object and the negative emotion generalised to the whole of

life turns into anxiety or post-traumatic stress disorder in the individual. For instance, individuals who have experienced fear of death during an accident are 13 times more likely to experience PTSD (Simske et. al., 2022). External traumatic events such as accidents have the effect of leaving permanent psychological effects on individuals. Fear, which cannot be coped with and is transferred to the general part of life, can turn into anxiety and become even more unmanageable or unbearable with different physiological symptoms. Unlike fear, which contains subjective elements, anxiety contains more physiological and behavioural elements (Butcher et. al., 2013).

On the other hand, while defining the level of normality in individuals in the psychology perspective, it is evaluated in terms of not having extreme behavioural and psychological reactions, being able to adapt to the majority and the environment, not having psychiatric symptoms, being able to establish a balance between the personality units, or in the most general terms, being physically and mentally healthy (Ozturk & Ulusahin, 2015). In other words, fear and anxiety have disruptive effects on the functionality of individuals. Anxiety, which starts with a sense of uncertainty and psychological distress and a state of uneasiness arising from this, is characterised by both psychiatric and physiological symptoms such as unconscious anxiety, tension, increased blood pressure and heartbeat, sweating palms, pale face, and a destructive feeling is experienced with overstimulation of the whole organism (Ozturk, 2008). For example, individuals being through panic attacks experience an intense release of adrenaline in the locus ceruleus region, which is the storehouse of noradrenaline in the brain, and the hormonal balance in the brain begins to deteriorate due to irregularly secreted GABA and serotonin, and the individual feel intense fear (Berman, 2005). We can address the adaptive aspect of dissociation when posing the question of which strategies individuals experiencing intense death anxiety would use to cope with such an emotion or to what extent the individual would maintain his/her functionality by dissociating this emotion arising from anxiety when he/she cannot cope.

These forms of dissociation, such as *"daydreaming"* and *"preoccupation with something else rather than focusing on what has to be done"*, which do not disrupt the continuity and functionality of actual life and even provide a certain degree of optimization, are considered within the scope of *"dissociation of actual life: normative dissociation"* (Ozturk, 2022a). Normative dissociation is an alteration in the state of consciousness that does not appear as part of either an organic or a psychiatric disorder and involves a temporary interruption or fragmentation of mental functions that normally maintain integration (Butler, 2006). When the frequency, severity and duration of normative dissociation increase, psychopathologies such as dissociative disorders and anxiety disorders emerge (Ozturk, 2022a). While attitudes of individuals with social phobia who exhibit defensive behaviours against individuals with a dominant role are biologically adaptive for the world of their ancestors, they are not regarded as being in accordance with today's cultural standards, and therefore, when some anxiety disorders are evaluated from an evolutionary perspective, it is considered that hypersensitive behaviours are evolutionarily compatible but culturally incompatible (Hofmann, Moscovitch & Heinrichs, 2002). People who have been through traumatic experiences struggle with involuntary distressing memories as in intrusions, discomforting dreams, dissociative reactions like flashbacks, intense psychological dilemma, and physiological stress responses and sometimes dissociate thoughts, memories, and feelings associated with the traumatic event which mostly result in dissociative disorders, acute stress disorder and PTSD along with self-blame and negative expectations about oneself or others (Brüne, 2016; Ozturk, 2020a). The fear, anxiety, phobia-like intense emotions mostly cause similar physical symptoms, their psychological and cognitive outputs are alike apart from some important distinctive features they have. Putting the severe and intense results of these biopsychosocial outputs, the resemblance of traumatic events are sometimes not reflected to the real and actual life as intense as they are felt but rather take place within the functionality of life after being adapted to some parts of the realities or changed in accordance with the concerns of individuals. Ozturk emphasises that absorption in real life experiences, which he defines as *"hypnotic actual processes that distract from traumatic memories"*, functions by narrowing the focus of attention, while dissociation functions by shifting the focus of attention to another internal cognitive or psychic focus (Ozturk, 2022a).

With the aim of creating integrative individuals and societies longing for development, Ozturk started a psychosocial therapy, the "*Dissoanalysis Theory*", which is framed with prevention strategies for protecting individual from social traumas expeditiously, and in the end neutralising the basic dissociogenic components with a holistic orientation by integrating clinically and trauma-based modern psychotherapy methods with psychotraumatology and psychohistory perspectives on dissociative disorders (Ozturk, 2022d). Dissoanalysis theory points to dissociated traumatic events or stimuli resulting in temporary psychosocial interruptions in the unity of consciousness, memory and identity, in the possession of thoughts, feelings and behaviours, in the perception of absolute reality and in the experience of relational reciprocity which is why it is a significant part of the developmentally oriented modern psychotraumatology and dissoanalytic psychohistory that focuses on structuring effective psychotherapy practices to stop the *"transgenerational transmission of trauma and dissociation"* and the *"transgenerational transfer of psychopathology"* (Ozturk, 2022a; 2023a).

An individual's ability to establish a relationship with another person and the fact that relationships do not threaten the individual with loss of identity is enabled only if the individual has a strong sense of autonomy, and the anxiety of the individual who is afraid of entering into a relationship with any person or thing, even with himself/herself, is the inability to protect his/her autonomy and the concern that he/she will lose his/her autonomy and identity in any relationship (Laing, 2011). In other words, the individual experiences himself/herself as a person who is constantly trying to save himself/herself from being drowned by diligent, hopeless events, which is actually an escape from himself/herself. In addition to questioning the diminishing abilities of individuals to survive arising from trauma-based dissociation, some important issues arise regarding how one handles dissociated event in their memories and unsensibly develop hyperempathy as an extension of traumatic incidence. The hyperempathy and pathological conformism that individuals go through can be associated with the fear-focused "*dissociative attachment*" and pathological conformism-focused "*approval obsession*" that emerges in the face of dominant parents who are prone to violence-focused negative child-rearing styles and are the somewhat direct abusers and oppressors of their own children. Individuals and societies that disengage from transgenerational development and psychosocial consciousness alliance are trapped in the process of transgenerational fossilization, through both experiencing attachment to their abusers and oppressors and building identification with their abusers and oppressors. Dysfunctional members of society who attach to their abusers and oppressors, as well as those who identify with their abusers and oppressors, become the perpetuators of primitive and immature life forms with *"reversible master and slave"* orientation in their fused bilateral relationships (Ozturk, 2023a)!

From Self and Association to Dissociation: Understanding the Construction of *"Self"* through Dissoanalysis Theory

Every individual has a judgement about himself/herself, which he/she obtains by filtering through other people and subjective experiences. This judgement about oneself is formed by being influenced by their families as well as many other individuals they are in contact with and external and social factors. While we have clear judgements about our self, which we can define as our beliefs and our ideas about ourselves, there may also be unexplored or unclear points about our self (Taylor et. al., 2015). The reactions of those around us enable us to reach a judgement about ourselves which constitutes our self-judgement. For this reason, it is possible to state that the individual's judgement about himself/herself is not solely constructed by personal experiences but are open to external factors and they are necessary for his/her ability to communicate with others, which plays an important role in the functionality of the individual as well as helping them construct their autobiographical memories. What Ozturk points on this regard is that individuals with tendencies to integrate as well as having associative identity reach their *"optimal empathy level"* which helps them neutralize their grief or trauma without impairing what they have (Ozturk, 2023a). On the other hand, individuals who do not have an adequate judgement about themselves and lack this association capacity is likely to be exposed to requirements of demanding masses, dictators or authorities while establishing social

relationships and sustaining their lives in society. When the *"self"* is evaluated from the perspective of the clinical psychology and psychotraumatology, it can be saliently speculated that a preserved and functional conscious single identity can be realized through either construction, association or dissociation of traumatic life events. Individual's respect for themselves and their lives is also very important in terms of establishing this balance. Studies indicate that individuals with low self-esteem have high death anxiety and low self-esteem level is associated with anxiety and depression disorders following a trauma (Brewer, 2002; Sowislo & Orth, 2012). On the other hand, individuals with functional features as in optimal level of empathy tend to recall positive memories rather than traumatic life events and individuals with higher self-esteem feel closer to positive memories. For individuals, the actual merits of having positive judgment against themselves can be saliently linked with high self-esteem, constructing an autobiographical memory enriched with clear memories which in the end enable individuals have single identity with functional and adaptive features (Demiray & Janssen, 2015).

Defined as a sudden and significant interruption of psychological and sociological experience by distressing and unpredictable situational and/or persistent factors that intervene in a person's coping capacity for a month or a duration trauma is a potentially intimidating experience that transforms an adaptive process into a maladaptive process (Sar & Ozturk, 2007). Traumatic life events, therewithal play an important role in the construction of self, identity, autobiographical memory, self-esteem and other psychological components of personality. A repetitive external traumatic stimulus is engulfed and turned into a repetitive internal traumatic stimulus after being dissociated by the individual whose consciousness, memory, identity, self, self-esteem and autonomy are defected which is a devastating result for the individual evolving into a *"traumatic self"* (Ozturk, 2023b). In other words, an individual experiencing a traumatic occasion goes through various psychological processes that are shaped with adaptive or maladaptive coping skills of the person in question. This is a transformation of the *"psychological self"* into a *"traumatic self"* at the end of which the self creates alter personalities as in *"sociological self"*. An optimal behaviour of an individual functioning optimally is the reflection of the *"psychological self"*, that is the only form of the self to handle traumas successfully on an adaptive ground. Nevertheless, some traumatic events are not evaluated by individuals optimally and the balance of *"self"* is disturbed. When the *"psychological self"* fails to handle the trauma in an optimal way, which can be decoded as having a distorted reality, detemporalization and alienation in time, the *"self"* then is dominated by another version of it that is the *"sociological self"*, the one that disturbs the natural or normal balance (Sar & Ozturk, 2005). Sociological self is an alternative of the traumatized *"psychological self"* which is deactivated and oppressed by an altered version of the self. A dominant self, that is the *"sociological self"*, intervenes the neutralization of the traumatic event by oppressing other selves, the healthy and adaptive version of which is the *"psychological self"*, and trauma-related detachment of the selves upsets the time and reality perception of the traumatized individual. This plurality in self, as in psychological and sociological selves, might allow one to address some deductions that *"self"* can go into a dissociation process for the sake of processing the trauma. This way, the altered version of the traumatized self uses its full energy for overcoming the consequences of the trauma which regrettably does not serve a purpose for protecting the *"psychological self"*, but contrarily splits it. The eventual result is to have a traumatized self with distorted perception in time and reality struggling for regaining the organization and unity of self which has an inevitable aftermath integrated with alter identities (Ozturk, 2020b; Sar & Ozturk, 2005).

A traumatized individual's struggle for maintaining the psychological organization without developing psychopathological personality traits might also end up with disguising the *"true self"*. Winnicott defined the *"true self"* as an innate spontaneous potency experiencing the continuity of existence as well as gaining a personal reality and a personal body schema. The *"true self"* is the real self which eventually turns into the *"psychological self"* if the trauma is processed and neutralized optimally. On the other hand, the dissociation of intellectual features of individuals as a result of unprocessed trauma finds its expression in a defence that is the *"false self"* against the unpredicted reality. Winnicott

conceptualized the *"false self"* as the adaptation of the individual to the environment by hiding the *"true self"* which is a form of depersonalization (Winnicott, 1960). In other words, the paradoxical state of *"false self"* plays along the society and repress the *"true self"*. The way individuals endeavour to maintain their psychological organization and neutralize their traumas has not a single system nor an option. While this endeavour sometimes takes shape as repressing the *"true self"* and deactivating the *"psychological self",* its coming into existence would be a result of simply not having the individuality at all. Lacking the individuality typically refers to the *"as-if personality"* characterized with emptiness (Deutsch, 1942). What the *"as-if personality"* lacks is the identity, emotion, moral structures and more constituting the *"true self"* and the *"psychological self"*. Individuals having social concerns arising from important negative social events might find the dilemma of creating a self and maintaining it without being traumatized more, an "*escape way"* from realities. The individual with an *"empty self"*, might integrate into a product, an ideology, a fame or a substance in order not to fall apart and fills the emptiness in his/her self by satisfying his/her psychological hunger (Cushman, 1990). A traumatized self is then somewhat a *"sociological self"* or an *"empty self"* framed with *"as-if personality"* on the distorted and maladaptive part, and a *"psychological self"* or a *"true self"* on the adaptive part. The rationale here would be that selves are various as well as being dependent on the traumatic life events which finds its expression through the fact that autobiographical memories of individuals are composed from various perspectives of selves.

The detrimental, adverse, destructive effects of negative and traumatic life events on the psychology of individuals are questioned and framed within modern psychotraumatology in order to approach its inevitable effects on them. The short- and long-term psychogenic effects of acute and chronic dissociative experiences that individuals are through as well as their efforts for psychological integration and the transformation of those adverse outputs of experiences into lifelong psychopathologies are discussed, researched and explained within modern psychotraumatology studies with the aim of constructing a psychotherapy of trauma-related psychiatric disorders with trauma-based approaches, especially traumatic stress and traumatic dissociation (Ozturk, 2022a). Ozturk particularizes modern psychotraumatology within *"trauma and dissociation studies"* of clinical psychology, psychiatry and psychohistory disciplines, and points to the features of it being clinically and psychosocially oriented with which dissociogenic reactions of individuals and masses with regard to trauma-related events and psychotherapies are investigated and prevention strategies for these negative life events are suggested herein this approach or discipline. Modern psychotraumatology practically focuses on the individuals' maladaptive psychogenic structures, their traumas as in being brought up by apparently normal families adopting negative child-rearing styles and also the transformation of traumas through generations: *"transgenerational transmission of trauma"* which possibly will end up with traumatic masses (Ozturk, 2022a; 2022b).

The long-term effect of negative life events and traumatic reflections of them on society is embraced in *"Dissoanalysis Theory"*, which was introduced by Ozturk, a trauma therapist, a psychohistorian, a psychotraumatologist and a dissoanalyst, with the aim of structuring the effects of trauma and their extensions through generations and to the society they live in (Ozturk, 2022b). According to dissoanalysis theory, envious, jealous, uncompassionate, unjust, selfish and unkind individuals are subject to the scope of dysfunctional behaviours and they are investigated within dissoanalysis theory as they are possible contributors to the emergence and spread of dysfunctional generations. Individuals who have traumatic family experiences and are brought up by parents adopting negative child-rearing styles as well as being prone to practicing negative parenting style, and have dysfunctional family dynamics, are analysed and framed within dissoanalysis theory and trauma prevention studies are carefully designed. Understanding dysfunctional dynamics and designating dysfunctional generations who are characterized with panic, lack of appreciation, lying, being irresponsible, manipulating and sabotaging people around them, behaving disloyally, hiding information that should be shared and elaborated on, distorting reality and engaging in unethical behaviour and more, are important to determine the inconsistent and unhealthy relationship dynamics having criminogenic grounds as well

as psychopathogenic characteristics (Ozturk & Derin, 2022). Dissoanalysis theory creates a holistic synthesis of negative and traumatic life events, dissociative traumatic events entailing risks for temporary psychosocial interruptions in the continuity of consciousness, memory distortions, splitting in identity, the possession of thoughts, feelings and behaviours in a maladaptive way, lacking of perception of absolute reality and relational reciprocity. Setting sights on the analysis of these dysfunctional and disruptive behaviours, dissoanalysis theory embraces and utilizes developmentally oriented modern psychotraumatology and dissoanalytical psychohistory studies that adopt structuring effective psychotherapy practices conducted with the aim of preventing *"transgenerational transmission of trauma and dissociation"* and *"transgenerational transfer of psychopathology"* (Ozturk, 2022b; 2023a).

Objectification Trap Phenomenon: Reflection of Trauma in Bilateral or Interpersonel Emotional Relationship and Embodying *"Self"* in Relationships

As trauma is identical with a loss of control, and because it is perceived as a helplessness and a feeling of not being able to save oneself, an individual can then no longer evaluate himself/herself as a complete or integrated person but as an object of the unforeseen traumatic situation, which is often a sign of generalised anger (Sar & Ozturk, 2007). Dysfunctional features of traumatized individuals are characterized with being brought up by parents adopting negative child-rearing styles as well as being prone to practicing negative child-rearing style, having dysfunctional family dynamics and traumatic family experiences which are mostly not elaborated on and are unrevealed. Dysfunctional individuals, who were traumatized children in the past and now psychologically unstable adults with poor or disrupted ego functions realize themselves, their traumas, and grief within bilateral or interpersonal relations by experiencing complexes, inconsistencies and fears with the aim of making objectification actual for their traumatic experiences (Ozturk, 2023a). The *"objectification trap phenomenon"* conceptualizes the role of partners, who are the ones associating their traumatic experiences with each other's existence, in terms of having a tendency for reshaping dissociogenic versions of themselves which come into existence as dysfunctional relationships. In dissociogenic and dysfunctional bilateral or interpersonal emotional relations, the nature of the relationship provides a basis for creating an *"oppressor"* and a *"victim"* reciprocally traumatizing each other or redoubling their trauma, relentlessly realize the traumas over each other which is inevitable in this scenario full of dysfunctional features. Traumatic experiences are somewhat embodied in dysfunctional, narcissistic, abusive, misanthropic, hedonistic, megalomaniac and grandiose behaviours through interpersonal emotional relations in which an abusive dominant partner condemns the other partner, who is the actual victim, to traps of an emotional relationship in various ways, either consciously or subconsciously (Ozturk, 2022b; 2023a).

In dissoanalysis theory, dissociative individual and social traumas result in temporary psychosocial interruptions in the continuity of consciousness, memory and identity, in the ownership of thoughts, feelings and behaviours, in the perception of absolute reality and in the experience of relational reciprocity. In the aftermath of social traumas, developmental and traumatic crises, both individually and collectively, unexperienced or delayed grief shifts people from a focus on empathy and compassion to a focus on anger and violence. Unexperienced or delayed grief in individuals and societies is categorized into two categories: *"cumulative individual grief"* and *"cumulative mass grief"*. Long-term unexperienced or delayed grief begins to be experienced as a *"grief trauma"* as soon as it creates a resistance in neutralizing traumatic experiences. Ozturk defines the trauma caused by the inability to grief a death, a loss or a social disaster as *"grief trauma"*. Grief trauma can be categorized into two as *"individual grief trauma"* and *"social grief trauma"*. Individual grief trauma weakens the associative functions of the identity, creates interruption of consciousness and memory, and even consciousness and memory abdication. Social grief trauma, by contrast, interrupts both *"social memory"* and *"social consciousness alliance"*, leading to *"psychosocial abdication of consciousness"*. According to the theory of dissoanalysis, individual and social grief trauma, transformed into

"psychosocial abdication of consciousness", creates dysfunctional masses with bilateral relationship dynamics with the objectification trap, fixated on both their dominating partners and abusive dictators.

Dissoanalysis theory forms a comprehensive frame for the *"objectification trap phenomenon"* in terms of its individual and social grounds. When evaluated within the perspectives in dissoanalysis theory, Ozturk is the first to conceptualize the *"objectification trap phenomenon"*, and defines the individual grounds of it as the loss of oneself in another person in the form of *"individual identity transition"*, and the loss of oneself in any group or society in the form of *"social identity transition"* (Ozturk, 2023a). Identity transitions in a bilateral emotional relationship which inevitably causes *"disidentification"* or *"de-uniquification"* is the embodying in and reflections of traumas to the partner on an individual ground. This *"disidentification"* can be regarded as being next to the concept of *"as-if personality"* with which individuals build up bilateral emotional relationship that is a must. Individuals who lose their self-authority over their own traumatic experiences, whose consciousness, memory, identity, self, self-esteem and autonomy are defected, experience these maladaptive problems in actual life and nourish them in bilateral emotional relations as they cannot neutralize the traumatic reflections of the facts that they were brought up by less elaborative parents about their traumatic family histories, parents that adopt violence-oriented child-rearing styles and with dysfunctional features. Having neurological grounds as they activate orbitofrontal and left lateral temporal regions, traumas resulted from dissociation are triggered by above mentioned negative psychological experiences (Sar et. al., 2001).

Pluralistic Personality and Holistic Self in the Face of the Utopia of Singularity in Self

According to *"Ozturk's Dissoanalysis Theory"*, the reversible psychogenic nature of dissociated individuals based on traumatic experiences provokes the experience of multiple life philosophies, multiple consciousness, memory and self-systems in the same individuals during the same periods of time, which in itself may contain both harmony and disharmony on a dual axis. Traumatic experiences and dissociative reactions constitute the psychosocial uterus of the pluralistic personality, the holistic self, deep memory and consciousness. In a dissoanalytic perspective, every human being suffers from traumatisation, yet not every traumatised person experience dissociation. It is only those individuals that cannot metabolise their traumatic experiences and become dissociated (Ozturk, 2022d). Today, individuals with narcissistic natures, who are manipulated and controlled by being traumatised, governed by being separated, deprived of their subjectivity by being alienated, de-uniquification by being oppressed, recorded by dissociogenic digital tools, systematically followed and forced to be exposed through social media applications, have already passed from a singular consciousness and self to a multiple consciousness and self-system on a holistic axis, and their existence on this holistic axis enables them to be more creative, more original and more authentic than in the past (Ozturk, 2020a; Ozturk & Erdogan, 2022). Within the theory of dissoanalysis, the hypothesis of the singularity of the self, as well as the hypothesis of the singularity of consciousness, has become a utopia in the span extending from the past to the present! Self, like consciousness, is apparently singular, whereas in reality it is plural, and the self-system is far more than the sum of its parts. Ozturk defined all parts of the multiple self-system delegated by a multiple consciousness which is related to the personality as the *"holistic self"*, where the holistic self is both the integrated self and a self that integrates all selves as an integrative self. However, the functions of the holistic self differ from the integrated self and the integrative self, and the holistic self is far more authentic than each of these selves. According to the dissoanalysis theory, for individuals who metabolise their traumatic experiences, the multiple self system cannot be split and its parts cannot be processed separately (Ozturk, 2022a; 2022b). All the elements in the multiple self system are transitive and transformational in a dynamic orientation without being detached from the whole. The multiple self system is a dynamic existence arising or re-emerging with each of its existing elements. The integrative state of the multiple self and multiple consciousness systems is identical with the *"deep self"* and *"deep consciousness"*. From a dissoanalytic point of view, the deep self and deep consciousness systems are the essence of the individual's multiple psychosocial structure and even the deep memory itself (Ozturk, 2022b). Such a

deep memory subsumes memories of *"traumatic experiences"*, of intense guilt and shame, and of *"psychopathogenic family dynamics"* as they are preserved without any cognitive impairment or contamination (Ozturk, 2021).

Based on the dissoanalysis theory, when external traumatic stimuli or events jeopardise the psychological integration of individuals, multiple consciousness and multiple memory systems are activated and the record of all experiences is stored in deep memory (Ozturk, 2022a; 2022b). The associative filters found in the natural self and pluralistic personality are activated in the case of anxious stimuli and feelings originating from the inner world of individuals. When dissociative filters are temporarily and functionally disabled due to traumatic experiences, interruptions in psychological integration and splits in identity, personality and self-emerge and individuals become dissociated. Since the continuity of singular or multiple consciousness systems of individuals might undergo some oscillations, consciousness itself has a dynamic structure rather than a static structure (Ozturk, 2020b; 2022b). Nevertheless, it is inevitable for traumatised individuals to have dissociative experiences, suicidal motivated dissociative angoisse, regeneration-oriented amnesias and alter personalities for neutralisation purposes. The dissociated subject continues to exist as a *"fragmented self"* having *"multiple self system"* (Ozturk, 2022b; Ozturk & Erdogan, 2022). The phenomenon of dissociative denial, as a dissociogenic dynamic that protects both the victim and the abuser in this context, generates an interruption of consciousness and leads to the emergence of multiple consciousness and multiple memories. This multiple consciousness, multiple selves and multiple memories constitute divided selves and alter personalities. According to Ozturk, *"dissociative denial phenomenon"* is the experience of losing the functionality and moving from a singular consciousness to a multiple consciousness system after cumulative traumatic experiences and negative child-rearing styles. The inner reality, multiple consciousness and split selves of individuals who deny their traumas are perceived as *"more real"* by the individual who denies, even though they do not correspond maximally to the external reality (Ozturk, 2022a; 2022b; Ozturk & Erdogan, 2021).

Today's singularity of consciousness, memory and self for individuals in traumatised and dissociated societies is now a utopia! In fact, for individuals and societies controlled and even ruled by their traumas in the digital age, the singularity of consciousness, memory and self can be experienced almost as an illusion (Ozturk, 2022a; 2022b). In order to reintegrate the functions of identity, consciousness, memory and perception of the environment, which have been fragmented by traumatic experiences, negative child-rearing styles and oppressive psychosocial systems, the individual strives to have a more *"holistic"* perspective and a more *"dynamic"* balance regarding both himself and the world. According to the dissoanalysis theory, dissociation refers to the excessive and intensive integration effort of split multiple consciousness, multiple memory, and multiple self-systems; in fact, dissociation as an all-encompassing psychogenic process is a strong desire and struggle for integration or unification rather than dissociation (Ozturk, 2020b; 2022b; 2022e)! According to Ozturk, the natural self in a normal individual transforms into an integrative self in a developmental span. However, for individuals who are unable to metabolise their traumatic experiences, the integrative self disintegrates into its own parts. In terms of dissoanalysis theory, the disintegration of the integrative self into its own parts is an associative dissociation! The only way in which individuals can neutralise their traumatic experiences is by experiencing associative dissociation, and only at this moment can psychological integration be fully realised. The multiple self-system, which focuses on metabolising traumatic experiences and psychosocial adaptation, is situated somewhere between the dissociation of actual life and clinical dissociation. In today's age of dissociation, directed individuals have already learnt to integrate with multiple self-systems and especially to integrate while they can! Although *"integrative self"* and *"the integrated self"* are generally used in the literature in relation to multiple self systems, Ozturk recommends the use of *"holistic self"*, which implies the integration of selves. The holistic self encompasses all defined selves, yet the holistic self is not merely the sum of all defined selves, it is more authentic and more numerous and more unitary over and above the sum of them. From a dissoanalytic point of view, in this context, it would be a utopia to claim a single

personality for each individual. Today, in the modern and psychodigital societies we live in, every individual with multiple consciousness, multiple memory and multiple self systems now has a *"pluralistic personality"*. The pluralistic personality embodies the freedom of integrated individuals to experience a conscious dissociation under psychosocial oppression and individual and social traumas. Thus, according to the theory of dissoanalysis, the pluralistic personality is all that a singular personality cannot be and does not betray neither consciousness, memory nor self in the face of traumatic experiences! While the single personality structure creates exaggerated freedoms and submissive attitudes towards traumatic experiences, it functions as a psychosocial uterus for traumatic experiences. The individual with a pluralistic personality can be himself/herself at any time he/she wants to be himself/herself, or he/she can distant himself/herself from himself/herself, while despite traumatic experiences, he/she can still saliently maintain his/her psychological integration and authenticity (Ozturk, 2021).

Conclusion

Individuals compose their autobiographical or deep memories with various memories regardless of them being either traumatic or non-traumatic and this composition effects the subsequent stage which is the construction of self, self-esteem and identity (Lind, Bluck & Åkerlund, 2020). While the construction of self, self-esteem and identity in an associate, consistent, functional nature is anticipated with the existence of functional family dynamics, and being necessarily elaborative which help their children comprehend the consequences of traumatic events, experiencing negative life events have the power of destructing the construction of self, self-esteem and identity. Having less elaborative parents together with their tendency to adopt negative child-rearing styles increases the risk for their children to cope with the traumatic events in question, let alone constructing a unity in identity, self and having optimal level of empathy. The *"Dissoanalysis Theory"*, developed by Ozturk, a trauma therapist, a psychotraumatologist and a psychohistorian is structured on the interactional dynamics that individuals have with regard to the concept of consciousness, the *"multiple consciousness system"*, *"multiple memory phenomena"* resulting from traumatic experiences which is interpreted by Ozturk as a key matter to be resolved in order to prevent the emergence of dysfunctional generations and societies (Ozturk & Derin, 2022). The main purpose of dissoanalysis, conceptualised as psychosocial therapy, is to neutralize disharmonious features of individuals, dysfunctional communication dynamics, negative child-rearing styles and create integrative individuals and societies open to development with functional and adaptive behaviours. The wrongly constructed personal experiences of individuals within their autobiographical or deep memories as well as adopting maladaptive types of selves under the effect of traumatic events inevitably disrupt the construction of self, self-esteem, personality, and identity, the extension of which would be to disrupt the society by transmitting or transferring negative experiences to other generations (Fivush, 2019; Ozturk, 2022b). As reemphasized again, today's singularity of consciousness, memory and self for individuals in traumatised and dissociated societies is now a utopia! In fact, for individuals and societies ruled by their traumas in the digital age, the singularity of consciousness, memory and self can be experienced almost as an illusion. Thus, Ozturk's Dissoanalysis Theory occupies an important position in understanding, resolving and preventing the dysfunctional dynamics within societies (Ozturk, 2022b; 2022c).

REFERENCES

Berman, C. W. (2005). *100 questions & answers about panic disorder*. Jones & Bartlett Learning.

Brewer, K. G. (2002). *Differing death scenarios: self-esteem and death anxiety*. East Tennessee State University.

Bryant, R. A. (2015). The complex fabric of trauma and autobiographical memory. *Clinical perspectives on autobiographical memory.* p.17-40.

Butcher, J., N., & Mineka, S. & Hooley, J. M. (2013). *Anormal psikoloji* [in Turkish]. Kaknüs Yayınları. p.17-40.

Butler, L. D. (2006). Normative dissociation. *Psychiatry Clinics of North America, 29*(1), 45-62. https://doi:10.1016/j.psc.2005.10.004

Brüne, M. (2015). *Textbook of evolutionary psychiatry and psychosomatic medicine: The origins of psychopathology*. Oxford University Press.

Cushman, P. (1990). Why the self is empty: Toward a historically situated psychology. *American Psychologist*, *45*(5), 599– 611. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.45.5.599

Demiray, B., & Janssen, S. M. (2015). The self-enhancement function of autobiographical memory. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, *29*(1), 49-60. https://doi.org/10.1002/acp.3074

Deutsch, H. (1942). Some forms of emotional disturbance and their relationship to schizophrenia. *The Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 11*(3), 301-32. https://doi.org/10.1080/21674086.1942.11925501

Fivush, R. (2019). *Family narratives and the development of an autobiographical self: Social and cultural perspectives on autobiographical memory*. New York: Routledge.

Gulgoz, S., & Sahin-Acar, B. (Eds.). (2020). *Autobiographical memory development: Theoretical and methodological approaches.* New York: Routledge.

Hofmann, S. G., Moscovitch, D. A., & Heinrichs, N. (2002). Evolutionary mechanisms of fear and anxiety. *Journal of Cognitive Psychotherapy, 16*(3), 317-330. https://doi.org/10.1891/jcop.16.3.317.52519

Laing, R. D. (2011). *Bölünmüş benlik* [in Turkish] (Trans.) Ergun Akca. Istanbul: Pinhan Publisher.

Lind, M., Bluck, S., Åkerlund, H. (2020). Adults' memories of childhood. In: S. Gulgoz & B. Sahin-Acar (Eds.), *Autobiographical memory development: Theoretical and methodological approaches* (pp.152-154). New York: Routledge.

Ozturk, O. (2008). *Psikanaliz ve psikoterapi* [in Turkish] İstanbul: Nobel Tıp Kitabevi.

Ozturk, O., & Ulusahin, N. A. (2015). *Ruh sağlığı ve bozuklukları* [in Turkish]. Ankara: Nobel Tıp Kitabevi.

Ozturk, E. (2020a). *Travma ve dissosiyasyon: Psikotravmatoloji temel kitabı*. 2. Baskı. İstanbul: Nobel Tıp Kitabevi. p.1-33.

Ozturk, E. (2020b). Siber toplumlar ve siber hayatlar: Dissosiyojen bir ajan olarak dijital iletişim ağları. E. Öztürk (Ed.). In *Siber Psikoloji* (1-23). Ankara: Türkiye Klinikleri.

Ozturk, E. (2021). Trauma based alliance model therapy. *Medicine Science, 10*(2), 631-650. https://doi.org/10.5455/medscience.2021.03.100

Ozturk, E. (2022a). Dysfunctional generations versus natural and guiding parenting style: Intergenerational transmission of trauma and intergenerational transfer of psychopathology as dissociogenic agents. *Medicine Science, 11*(2), 886-904. https://doi.org/10.5455/medscience.2022.04.090

Ozturk, E. (2022b). Modern psikotravmatoloji ve dissosiyasyon teorileri [in Turkish] E. Öztürk, (Ed.). In *Psikotravmatoloji* (p.41-49). Ankara: Türkiye Klinikleri.

Ozturk, E. (2022c). Dissoanaliz ve psikotoplumsal bilinç alyansı kuramı inkar travması ve dissosiyatif yansıtımlı kimlik geçisi. E Öztürk (Ed.), In *Psikotravmatoloji* (p.1-40). Ankara: Türkiye Klinikleri.

Ozturk, E. (2022d). Dissoanalysis as a modern psychotraumatology theory: denial trauma and mass dissociation versus dissociative revolution and psychocommunal therapy. *Medicine Science, 11*(3), 1359-1385. https://doi.org/10.5455/medscience.2022.08.76

Ozturk, E. (2023a). Shared dissociative identity disorder and defector alter personality: controlled human syndrome and the objectification trap phenomenon as a gaslighting form based on dissociative narcissism from the perspective of dissoanalysis theory and dissoanalytic psychohistory. *Medicine Science, 12*(2), 495-521. https://doi.org/10.5455/medscience.2023.04.053

Ozturk, E. (2023b). Dissoanalytic psychohistory: Dissoanalysis of the traumatic history of humanity and the construction of a new societal reality. *Medicine Science, 12*(1), 303-318. https://doi.org/10.5455/medscience.2023.02.024

Ozturk, E., & Erdogan, B. (2021). Dissociogenic components of oppression and obedience in regards to psychotraumatology and psychohistory. *Medicine Science, 10*(3), 1059-1068. https://doi.org/10.5455/medscience.2021.06.221

Ozturk, E., & Erdogan, B. (2022). On the psychodigital components of cyber traumatization and dissociation: A psychosocial depiction of cyber societies as dissociogenic. *Medicine Science, 11*(1), 422-428. https://doi.org/10.5455/medscience.2021.12.411

Reese, E. (2002). *Social factors in the development of autobiographical memory: The state of the art.* Social Development. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers. p.124-142.

Sar, V., Unal, S. N., Kiziltan, E., Kundakci, T., & Ozturk, E. (2001). HMPAO SPECT study of regional cerebral blood flow in dissociative identity disorder. *Journal of Trauma & Dissociation*, *2*(2), 5-25.

Sar, V., & Ozturk, E. (2005). What is trauma and dissociation? In GF. Rhoades & V. Sar (Eds.), *Trauma and dissociation in a cross-cultural perspective*. New York: Routledge. p.7-20.

Sar, V., & Ozturk, E. (2007). Functional dissociation of the self: A sociocognitive approach to trauma and dissociation. *Journal of Trauma & Dissociation*, *8*(4), 69-89. https://doi.org/10.1300/J229v08n04_05

Simske, N. M., Joseph, N. M., Rascoe, A., Kalina, M., Jr, Simpson, M., Hendrickson, S. B., & Vallier, H. A. (2022). "Did you think you would die?": Fear of death and its relationship to the development of posttraumatic stress disorder after traumatic injury. *The Journal of the American Academy of Orthopaedic Surgeons*, *30*(2), e272–e278. https://doi.org/10.5435/JAAOS-D-20-01438

Sowislo, J. F., & Orth, U. (2013). Does low self-esteem predict depression and anxiety? A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Psychological Bulletin, 139*(1), 213–240. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0028931

Svendsen, L. F. (2017). *Korkunun felsefesi* [in Turkish]. M. Ersen, (Trans.). İstanbul: Redingot Kitap.

Taylor, S. E., Peplau, L. A., & Sears, D. O. (2007). *Sosyal psikoloji* [in Turkish]. (Trans. Ali Donmez). İstanbul: İmge Yayınevi.

Winnicott, D. W. (2002). Ego distortion in terms of true and false self. In. V. Richards & G. Wilce (Eds*), The person who is me* (pp. 7-22). New York: Routledge.

EXAMINING ELEMENTS OF DESIGNING AND MANAGING OF CREATING INCLUSIVE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT: SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

Habtamu DEBASU
Department of Special Needs and Inclusive Education, Bonga University, Ethiopia
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0009-0003-5269-9298
debasuhabtamu@gmail.com

Abstract

This article focuses on the basic elements of designing managing creating an inclusive learning environment that makes it more convenient to facilitate and avoid any hindrance to the school environment and pull back to challenge different developmental aspects (factors). For inclusion to be successful educators and other professionals need to work towards an educational climate that creates a welcoming set of practices which include the adoption of collaboration, cooperation, and partnership, inside and outside classroom accessibility; flexible curriculum and pedagogy center; age-appropriated and accessible toilet, ramps, signages, canteen, and stairs, pathways and corridors. Inclusive learning environments are crucial in ensuring that all students, regardless of their abilities or backgrounds, have equal opportunities to learn and succeed. It also emphasizes the significance of involving students, teachers, and other stakeholders in the process to ensure the environment accommodates the needs of everyone involved.

Keywords: Design and managing of inclusive learning environment, inclusive education, inclusive learning environment.

INTRODUCTION

This discussion deals with creating an inclusive learning environment that provides access to the major and vital components of criteria to create a welcoming and accepting school environment that needs to promote inclusion. Designing and managing an inclusive learning environment is crucial in fostering equitable and accessible education for all individuals. Inclusive education refers to the approach of providing equal opportunities for all students, including those with disabilities or learning difficulties, to learn and participate in a regular school environment alongside their non-disabled peers. The goal is to create an inclusive and supportive learning environment that meets the diverse learning needs of all students. This approach fosters social integration, respect for diversity, and the development of empathy among students. It has been found to enhance academic outcomes, promote social relationships and emotional well-being, and prepare students for future success. Inclusive education also has positive effects on society, promoting a more inclusive society and reducing stigma and discrimination towards disabled individuals. By embracing inclusive education, societies can foster a more inclusive and equitable future for all individuals. Inclusive Education (IE) articulates that all learners are capable of learning and participating in educational and social experiences in a safe and scaffolding environment (Ackah-Jnr, 2016).

Inclusive Education

According to Armstrong (2017), inclusive education is a hotly debated and political concept with no universally accepted definition. Even the internationally recognized Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2016) definition is riddled with arbitrary language (Graham, 2020). Inclusive education can be seen as a place where the needs of the students are satisfied in a specialized facility or as the placement of kids with special educational needs in a unit adjacent to the school (Haug, 2017).

Inclusive education "is a process of addressing the diverse needs of all learners by reducing exclusion within and from education" (UNESCO, 2009). The emphasis is on ensuring that all students, regardless of their abilities or backgrounds, can access education, participate actively, and achieve meaningful learning outcomes.

Inclusive education aims to foster a sense of belonging and social integration, promoting positive attitudes towards diversity and reducing discrimination and stigmatization. It creates opportunities for meaningful friendships, positive peer interactions, and mutual support among students from diverse backgrounds (Majoko, 2018).

Inclusive education is not limited to the classroom; it encompasses the involvement of families, communities, and stakeholders in decision-making processes, partnerships, and resource-sharing. Collaboration between parents, educators, and support professionals is crucial in creating inclusive learning environments (Ainscow, 2005).

The supporting conventions and declarations include the Salamanca Statement (1994), the Dakar Framework for Action (2000), and the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD, 2006). Therefore, IE practice has become a wind of change and positive pressure exerting influence and driving education systems in the global North and South or both developed and developing countries.

The purpose of writing about examining elements of designing and managing a creating inclusive learning environment is to explore and discuss the various factors and strategies involved in creating an environment that caters to the needs of all students, regardless of their diverse backgrounds, abilities, and learning styles.

Furthermore, it is used to provide guidance and insights into how educators can design and manage their classrooms and instructional practices to ensure that every student feels included, valued, and motivated to learn. This includes understanding the principles of inclusive education, recognizing and addressing barriers to learning, promoting a positive and supportive classroom culture, differentiating instruction, utilizing appropriate teaching strategies and resources, and involving students in the learning process. By examining the elements of designing and managing an inclusive learning environment, teachers can enhance student engagement and participation, promote student success and achievement, and ultimately create a learning environment that celebrates diversity and ensures equal opportunities for all learners.

The reason that I initiate to select this title is, initially we can say all public schools in developing countries, especially Ethiopia, are old and didn't fulfill the criteria to become inclusive education in school. even though they don't have an idea to create an inclusive learning environment due to different factors like lack of awareness, the people follow the traditional model of disability, lack of curriculum and instruction strategies to teach students with disability and non-disability to cooperate in a school, lack of skilled human power in the field of special needs and inclusive education, even special needs educators have no well-organized knowledge, absence of materials, the government has no willing to create an inclusive learning environment that convenience for all, lack of training concerning inclusive education, negative attitude toward persons with special needs, etc. Due to those factors, students with special needs couldn't learn together with students without special needs in the school. To fill this knowledge gap, I need to review various literatures and take this title to examine the various components involved in designing and managing an inclusive learning environment. It could be selected to address the problem of exclusion or limited access to education for diverse student populations and to provide educators and stakeholders with insights and strategies to overcome barriers and promote inclusive practices in education.

Inclusive Learning Environment

An inclusive learning environment is one where teachers have developed a repertoire of teaching, assessment, and evaluation strategies to meet learners' diverse range of learning needs and strengths while considering the physical layout of the environment.

The Centre for Educational Research and Innovation Studies of Inclusive Learning Environments (OECD, 2013) defines Inclusive Learning Environments as innovative approaches to teaching and learning that involve change across four key elements: teachers, students, content, and resources. The move to large teaching and learning spaces, with multi-teacher, multi-class teaching, has the potential to impact Inclusive Education practices (OECD, 2015), by considering the effect of school design and pedagogy on learning for all students, particularly those with disabilities.

Along with building design, Inclusive Learning Environments differ from traditional schools as they afford opportunities for teachers and school leaders to imagine new pedagogical possibilities (Charteris et al., 2018). Likewise, students have the opportunity to engage in an environment that promotes autonomous and independent learning (Blackmore et al., 2011). Despite this, recent research showed educators with experience with Inclusive Learning Environments expressed caution about the influence of these environments on students with disabilities (Everatt et al., 2019). The findings indicated that teachers perceived students with disabilities as potentially being more distracted in open-plan classrooms with large numbers of students.

It involves designing curriculum and instruction that caters to diverse learner needs and learning styles. It focuses on providing multiple means of representation, expression, and engagement. (CAST, 2018). Encouraging and facilitating collaborative activities among learners from various backgrounds helps build a sense of community and respect for each other's perspectives. Cooperative learning strategies, such as group projects and discussions, can enhance inclusivity (Johnson & Johnson, 2014). Acknowledging and valuing students' cultural backgrounds and experiences can promote a positive classroom climate. Teachers should incorporate culturally relevant materials, examples, and teaching strategies tailored to the student's cultural backgrounds (Ladson-Billings, 1995).

Creating a positive classroom climate is essential for an inclusive learning environment. Respect, empathy, and kindness are nurtured among students and teachers, fostering a sense of belonging and safety. This climate encourages open communication, collaboration, and mutual support, enabling students to engage and participate fully in their learning (Hamre, & Pianta, 2001).

Inclusive learning environments are essential for fostering diversity, equity, and inclusion in educational settings. As stated by UNESCO, inclusive education is a fundamental right that promotes social cohesion and equitable societies (UNESCO, 2019). Research has consistently shown that inclusive learning environments result in improved academic performance for students. A meta-analysis conducted by Kavale and Forness (1999) found that inclusive educational placements were associated with better outcomes for students with disabilities. A diverse and inclusive learning environment allows for a wide range of perspectives and experiences to be shared, enriching the learning process for all students. As noted by Gurin, Dey, Hurtado, and Gurin (2002), this diversity of perspectives promotes critical thinking, creativity, and problem-solving skills among students. Inclusive learning environments create opportunities for students to interact with and learn from individuals with diverse backgrounds and abilities. This interaction helps cultivate empathy, understanding, and tolerance towards others. A study by Rutland, Cameron, Milne, and McGeorge (2005) found that positive intergroup contact in educational settings fostered positive attitudes toward different social groups.

Creating an inclusive learning environment is essential to ensure that all students, regardless of their backgrounds or abilities, have equal opportunities to thrive and succeed in education.

Recognizing and accommodating diverse learning styles and abilities is crucial for inclusivity. Offering a variety of instructional strategies, such as visual aids, hands-on activities, and group work, allows students to engage with the material in ways that suit their individual needs (National Center on Universal Design for Learning, 2014). Promoting collaborative learning and open discussion fosters an inclusive environment where students have the opportunity to share their ideas and listen to others. Encourage active participation and provide a safe space for students to express their thoughts and opinions (Halawah, 2016). By implementing these strategies, educators can create an inclusive learning environment that values diversity, promotes equity, and supports the success of every student.

Teachers play a crucial role in creating an inclusive learning environment. They can adopt teaching strategies that accommodate diverse learning styles and adapt the curriculum to suit the needs of all students. For instance, using differentiated instruction techniques, such as providing alternative assignments or allowing students to work in groups, can promote inclusivity (The Understood Team, 2021). School administrators are responsible for establishing inclusive policies and allocating resources necessary for creating an inclusive learning environment. They should ensure that there are support systems in place, such as counseling services or special education programs, to address the diverse needs of students (UNESCO, 2005). Engaging parents and caregivers is essential for creating an inclusive learning environment. Educators can involve them in decision-making processes, seek their input, and provide them with resources to support their child's learning journey (National Center on Universal Design for Learning, 2021).

An inclusive learning environment promotes equal opportunities for all learners. It aims to provide an atmosphere where individuals from diverse backgrounds, abilities, and needs can thrive and participate fully in the learning process. Creating an inclusive learning environment helps foster a sense of belonging and acceptance among learners. It ensures that individuals feel valued and that their contributions are appreciated. This fosters a positive learning environment where everyone feels comfortable expressing themselves and participating fully. According to Ainscow, "An inclusive learning environment encourages peer support, positive relationships, and respect for diversity, resulting in enhanced educational experiences for all learners" (Ainscow, 2015).

As argued by Hammond, "Creating an inclusive learning environment enables educators to adapt their teaching strategies to address the diverse learning styles and needs of all students" (Hammond, 2014). Kane, Lloyd & Paterson (2014) explain this by stating, "Creating an inclusive learning environment improves academic performance by addressing barriers, providing support, and accommodating diverse learning needs" (Kane et al., 2014). Inclusive learning environments are vital in healthcare settings to ensure equal access to care and effective communication with patients.

All schools, from primary to higher education, must strive to create inclusive learning environments. Research by Hodkinson and Vickerman (2009) emphasizes that inclusion should be a key consideration in educational policies and practices, to address the diverse needs of students within the school setting. Inclusive learning environments are especially crucial in special education settings to promote the integration of students with disabilities. Research by Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011) emphasizes that inclusive practices and strategies in special education can support the learning and development of all students, irrespective of their abilities.

Inclusive learning environments are important in vocational training centers to ensure that individuals with disabilities or different learning needs have equal opportunities to acquire skills and participate in the workforce. The International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA) emphasizes the role of libraries in creating inclusive learning spaces that cater to the needs of all individuals, promoting lifelong learning (IFLA, 2015).

Therefore, the current review of this study was guided by the following research question.

What are the main Elements of the design and management of an inclusive learning environment?

So, various scholars describe a different thing that creates an inclusive learning environment which facilitates a welcome and acceptable diversity situation regarding the school situation.

Elements of design and management of an inclusive learning environment
Designing and managing an inclusive learning environment is essential for creating an atmosphere that welcomes and supports the diversity of learners. An inclusive learning environment aims to provide equal opportunities for all students to participate, engage, and succeed in their educational journey. The major elements are the following,

Element one: - Ramps
A ramp is a sloping or inclined surface connecting two different levels. For example, a wheelchair ramp is used to make buildings accessible for individuals with disabilities. A ramp in an inclusive learning environment refers to an architectural feature that enables individuals with mobility disabilities to access different areas of a building.

According to the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), which prohibits discrimination against individuals with disabilities, ramps must be installed in public places, including educational institutions, to ensure accessibility for all individuals (Americans with Disabilities Act, 1990). Ramps provide a safe and convenient alternative to stairs, allowing individuals using mobility aids, such as wheelchairs or walkers, to navigate in a building without obstacles.

The presence of ramps in a learning environment promotes inclusivity by removing physical barriers and providing equal opportunities for participation and engagement in various learning activities. It allows students with physical disabilities to move freely throughout the building, access classrooms, laboratories, libraries, and other facilities, and interact with their peers and instructors without limitations.

Ramps in inclusive learning environments play a crucial role in ensuring accessibility for all students, including those with disabilities. They provide a way for individuals using mobility aids such as wheelchairs or walkers to easily maneuver throughout the space and participate fully in the learning activities. According to the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), ramps are an essential component of the accessible design requirements for accommodating individuals with disabilities in educational institutions. Additionally, ramps have been found to benefit not only students with mobility disabilities but also individuals with temporary injuries, parents with strollers, and individuals with heavy backpacks or other items that may impede their movement.

This involves creating a safe space where students feel comfortable expressing their opinions, sharing their experiences, and participating in discussions.

Element two: - Signages
Signage refers to any visual graphics or display that provides information or directs people within a particular space or environment. It includes various types of signs, such as posters, billboards, banners, street signs, and digital displays, which are used for communication purposes in public places, businesses, or other settings.

Oc et al. (2019) investigated the role of signage in shaping people's perception of buildings and found that proper signage significantly enhanced participants' evaluation of a building's attractiveness, navigability, and perceived quality. The researchers concluded that signage played an important role in influencing people's judgments and could contribute to positive experiences within a built environment.

Creating an inclusive learning environment involves using signage that is accessible and inclusive for all students. Signage plays an important role in making sure that information and resources are easily understood by everyone in the learning community.

Signage should use language that is easily understandable by all individuals, including those with learning disabilities or English language learners. Avoid using jargon, complex terminology, or vague descriptions. Instead, use simple and straightforward language to convey the intended message (Bailey et al., 2019). Signage should have sufficient contrast and be large enough to easily read. Consider using high-contrast color combinations, such as black text on a white background, to enhance visibility. Additionally, use fonts that are legible and easy to read, such as sans-serif fonts like Arial or Calibri (Centre for Excellence in Universal Design, 2018). Incorporating symbols and visuals into signage can aid comprehension for individuals with cognitive or language difficulties. Use universally recognized symbols or create custom visuals that provide clear information without relying solely on text. For example, using a picture of a person with a wheelchair to indicate accessible pathways or facilities (Burgstahler, 2015).

Element three: - Canteen
A canteen refers to a designated area within a school or institution where meals are served. It is a common space for students and staff to gather and have meals during the designated meal breaks.

In the context of inclusive education, a canteen refers to a cafeteria or dining area within a school or educational institution that is accessible and inclusive for students with diverse abilities and needs. Inclusive canteens ensure that students with disabilities or special needs have equal access to the facilities and resources. This may include providing appropriate seating arrangements, wheelchair access, sensory-friendly spaces, or offering support and assistance for students who require it. Canteens in educational settings serve as a space where students can come together and interact with each other. It promotes socialization and helps in building strong bonds among students from diverse backgrounds.

Schools with diverse student populations often have a variety of cuisines available in their canteens, reflecting the various cultural backgrounds of their students. This allows students to experience different foods and cultures, fostering a sense of inclusiveness and respect for diversity. This notion is supported by Jayawardena and Rennie (2013), who highlight the importance of recognizing and appreciating cultural diversity in inclusive education.

Canteens can be designed and equipped to be accessible for students with disabilities, ensuring their participation in mealtime activities. The layout and infrastructure of the canteen, such as wide aisles, accessible counters, and appropriate seating arrangements, can contribute to accessibility and inclusion for all students. This is emphasized by the Center for Inclusive Design and Environmental Access (2009), which highlights the importance of considering accessibility in various spaces, including canteens, for inclusive education.

According to UNICEF (2016), guide provides comprehensive information on creating inclusive learning environments, including strategies for promoting diversity, inclusion, and equity. It can serve as a valuable resource for canteen staff looking to make their space more inclusive.

According to UNESCO (2017), guidelines for inclusion provide insights into creating inclusive learning environments, emphasizing the importance of removing barriers to education and creating an environment that respects and values diversity. These guidelines can be useful for canteen staff in creating an inclusive space where all students feel welcome and valued. Minimize loud noises, provide adjustable lighting, and create quiet spaces for students who may be sensitive to sensory stimuli (National Autism Center, 2015). Create opportunities for social skills training in the cafeteria, such as collaborative seating arrangements,

group activities, and guided conversations, to foster inclusion and social interaction among students (Smith, 2018).

Element four: - Inside and Outside Classrooms

Regularly assess the effectiveness of your inclusive practices and seek feedback from learners. Adjust your teaching strategies and materials based on the needs and preferences of your students. These strategies for designing and managing an inclusive learning environment are supported by research studies and educational frameworks. For instance, the Universal Design for Learning (UDL) framework, developed by the Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST), emphasizes the importance of providing multiple means of engagement, representation, and action to meet the diverse needs of learners (CAST, 2021). Additionally, research from scholars like Dr. Elizabeth B. Kozleski (2003) highlights the importance of a community of learners where diverse students feel valued and connected.

According to Castillo-Merino, González-Gómez, and Rebollo-Catalán (2016), technology can effectively support inclusive learning by enabling personalized and self-paced learning experiences for all students. According to Ainscow (2005), involving the wider community fosters a sense of belonging and promotes inclusive practices that meet the diverse needs of learners.

Moreover, providing inclusive extracurricular activities can greatly contribute to an inclusive learning environment. These activities can cater to diverse interests and abilities, ensuring that all students have opportunities for social interaction and skill development. According to Florian and Black-Hawkins (2011), extracurricular activities promote inclusive education by fostering friendships, building self-esteem, and developing a sense of belonging among students.

Element five: -Age Appropriated and Accessible Toilet

When designing and managing an inclusive learning environment, it is crucial to consider age-appropriate and accessible facilities, including toilets. United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) (2006), emphasizes the rights of persons with disabilities to full and equal participation in society. It promotes accessibility and reasonable accommodations for individuals with disabilities, which should be considered when designing and managing inclusive learning environments. Department of Education (2016), Designing Spaces for Learning: Designing schools with students in mind: This resource provides guidance and case studies on designing inclusive school environments, including toilets. It covers the importance of universal design, accessibility considerations, and examples of successful inclusive designs.

Element Six: - Flexible Curriculum and Pedagogy Center

According to Angela Page, Jo Anderson & Jennifer Charteris (2021) flexibility, along with an understanding of how disability may impact an individual student's capacity to learn, can facilitate a responsive level of support for students in Inclusive Learning Environments that can change with their changing needs. Differentiating instruction involves tailoring the content, learning activities, and assessments to meet the unique needs of each learner (Tomlinson et al., 2003). This approach ensures that students are challenged at their level and promotes active engagement in the learning process.

Integrating technology tools and resources into the curriculum enhances accessibility, engagement, and learning outcomes for all students (Darling-Hammond et al., 2008). Technology provides various supports, such as text-to-speech software, interactive learning platforms, and multimedia resources, which can accommodate different learning needs and preferences.

Element seven: - Collaboration, Cooperation, and Partnership among stakeholders

Collaboration among stakeholders is crucial for designing and managing an inclusive learning environment. Collaboration allows for the integration and coordination of efforts, resources, and expertise, resulting in a

more effective and inclusive learning environment for all. Including students as stakeholders in the design and management of an inclusive learning environment is crucial. Their perspectives and voices should be heard to ensure that the environment meets their needs, promotes participation, and supports their overall well-being (Human Rights Education Associates, n.d.).

According to McLeskey and Waldron (2011), teacher collaboration and teamwork are vital for developing successful inclusive practices. Administrators provide leadership and support for creating inclusive learning environments. They need to ensure that policies and practices prioritize inclusivity and equity. Tindal et al. emphasize that administrators must establish a collaborative and supportive culture to promote inclusive practices. According to Benner and Mistry (2007), involving parents in collaborative decision-making processes positively impacts the success of inclusion initiatives. A report by the National Council on Disability (2011) emphasizes the importance of community collaboration in fostering inclusive education.

Collaborating with advocacy organizations such as the National Center for Learning Disabilities can provide valuable insights and resources to ensure that the inclusive learning environment meets the needs of students with disabilities (National Center for Learning Disabilities, n.d.).

The partnership between educators and school administrators is essential for creating an inclusive learning environment. Teachers can provide valuable input based on their experience in the classroom, while administrators can support necessary adaptations and allocate resources effectively (EdWeek Research Center, 2021).

Collaborating with local community organizations can provide additional support and resources to enhance the inclusivity of the learning environment. These organizations may offer mentoring programs, extracurricular activities, or workshops for students with diverse backgrounds and needs (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2014).

Students are active participants in creating an inclusive learning environment. They should be encouraged to express their needs and preferences, contribute to decision-making processes, and promote acceptance of diversity within the learning community (Cologon, Foster, & Stokeld, 2016). Parents and caregivers are essential partners in designing and managing an inclusive learning environment. Their involvement ensures that the individual needs of students are properly addressed, and they can provide valuable insights into their child's strengths, challenges, and preferences (Department of Education and Training Victoria, 2016).

Element Eight: - Stairs, Pathways, and Corridors
An appropriate physical environment enhances access, learning, and participation of all children in inclusive schools. It also fosters functional use of the physical spaces and eliminates (un)intentional hazards and barriers, especially for children with disabilities. Such an environment is universally usable and safe and may require the installation of special equipment, appropriate ventilation and lighting systems, and modification of existing school structures and facilities that include the provision of ramps, wider doorways, and elevators, among others.

Stairs in an inclusive learning environment play a crucial role in ensuring accessibility for all individuals. The presence of ramps alongside stairs can provide an alternative for students with mobility impairments. This allows them to navigate between different levels of a building without restrictions. According to the National Center for Universal Design in Education (2014), incorporating ramps alongside stairs can ensure that individuals with mobility challenges have equal opportunities to learn and access educational facilities.

Pathways in an inclusive learning environment need to be well-designed, wide, and free from obstacles to facilitate ease of movement for all students. These accessible pathways allow students with physical disabilities, such as those using wheelchairs or walkers, to navigate the environment without any hindrances.

The Disability Discrimination Act (2005) emphasizes the importance of clear and unobstructed pathways, stating that they are essential to ensuring equal access and inclusion in educational settings.

Corridors in an inclusive learning environment should be adequately lit and well-maintained to promote a safe and comfortable atmosphere for all students. Lighting plays a vital role in supporting individuals with visual impairments to navigate the corridors independently. Furthermore, it is important to ensure that corridors are wide enough to accommodate the passage of wheelchairs and other mobility aids. The Government of Western Australia (2019) specifies that schools should have corridors that comply with the Building Code of Australia, ensuring they are accessible and inclusive for all students.

In an educational learning environment, it is obvious that the environment should welcome and accept regardless of diversity. For instance, ''The Role of Technology in Creating Inclusive Learning Environments'' conducted by Smith (2018) showed that there is a lack of specific focus on how technology can be effectively utilized to create inclusive learning environments that cater to diverse student populations.

Hence, the reviewed sources indicated that technology, strategies, and techniques of educators, effective training models and approaches, effective collaboration strategies, the benefits of teamwork, and the challenges educators face and parental involvement are among the main themes for creating an inclusive environment.

Conclusion

The creation of an inclusive learning environment is that it requires a comprehensive and proactive approach. It is not enough to simply provide accommodations for students with disabilities or diverse backgrounds. Instead, inclusive learning environments should be designed from the start to meet the needs of all students. This includes considering accessibility, diversity, and equity in all aspects of teaching and learning.

To create an inclusive learning environment, educators must actively involve all students, regardless of their abilities or backgrounds, in the learning process. This can be achieved by incorporating diverse teaching strategies, incorporating different learning styles, and providing opportunities for collaboration and engagement. Additionally, educators should create a safe and supportive classroom climate that promotes respect, understanding, and acceptance of all students. The management of an inclusive learning environment requires ongoing assessment and adjustment. Educators should regularly evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching strategies and accommodations, and make necessary changes to ensure all students are fully included and engaged. They should seek feedback from students and adapt instructional materials and methods accordingly. So, it involves creating teaching strategies and accommodations that meet the needs of all students, fostering a safe and supportive classroom climate, and regularly assessing and adjusting instructional practices to ensure inclusivity for all learners.

Furthermore, I would like to acknowledge the institution/organization that I am affiliated with for providing a conducive environment and resources necessary for conducting this review. Their support has been instrumental in ensuring the successful completion of this project.

Declaration of Interest Statement

I hereby declare the following interests: I have no financial interests or affiliations that could be perceived as having influenced the content or findings of this literature review. There are no financial relationships with any organizations or institutions that could potentially bias my analysis or conclusions. I confirm that there are no personal relationships with individuals or organizations that may have influenced the content, methodology, or findings of this systematic literature review. There are no personal connections that could potentially introduce bias or conflicts of interest. I declare that my primary objective in conducting this review is to provide an unbiased and comprehensive analysis of the elements involved in designing and managing inclusive learning environments. My sole focus is to critically analyze the existing literature, identify common themes, and provide an evidence-based synthesis to contribute to the field of inclusive education. This literature review was conducted without any external funding. I have not received any grants, scholarships, or financial support from any organization or institution that could potentially influence the outcomes or interpretation of the findings. The analysis and conclusions presented in this review are based solely on the available evidence and my objective evaluation of the literature. By providing this Declaration of Interest Statement, I aim to ensure transparency and maintain the integrity of this systematic literature review. I affirm that all information provided is accurate and complete to the best of my knowledge. There is no funding raiser for me. I am from a Developing country, Ethiopia. At this time Ethiopia gets a crisis

Ethics and Conflict of Interest

The author declares that the study has not unethical issues and that research and publication ethics have been considered carefully.

REFERENCES

Ackah-Jnr, F. R. (2016). *Implementation of inclusive early childhood education policy and change in Ghana* (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation). Griffith University.

ADA, (1990). *Americans with disabilities Act of 1990*. Pub. L. No. 101-336, 2-7, 104 Stat. 328.

Ainscow, M. (2005). Developing inclusive education systems: What are the levers for change? *Journal of Educational Change*, *6*(2), 109-124. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-005-1298-4

Ainscow, M. (2015). Inclusive education and the universal design for learning framework: Reflections on the potential for meeting special educational needs. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 19*(8), 845-862.

Ainscow, M. (2015). *Towards self-improving school systems: Lessons from a city challenge*. Routledge.

Armstrong, A. (2017). *Inclusive education: Policy, contexts and comparative perspectives*. Routledge.

Armstrong, F., Armstrong, D., & Barton, L. (2016). *Inclusive education: Policy, contexts and comparative perspectives.* Routledge.

Bailey, G., Burdis, K., Gerber-Strimitzer, S., & Soto, G. (2019). Towards inclusive signage: Understanding urban spaces through multiple sensory experiences. *Universal Access in the Information Society, 18*(4), 903-921.

Benner, S. M., & Mistry, R. S. (2007). Toward a greater understanding of the influence of parent involvement on children's academic achievement: A review of the literature. *School Psychology Quarterly, 22*(4), 474-495.

Blackmore, J., Bateman, D., Loughlin, J., O'Mara, J., & Aranda, G. (2011). Engaging students in autonomous learning: The role of feedback in supporting and developing independent learning. *Higher Education Research & Development, 30*(3), 303-318.

Burgstahler, S. (2015). Universal design of physical spaces: Signs and wayfinding. DO-IT: University of Washington. Retrieved from https://www.washington.edu/doit/universal-design-physical-spaces-signs-and-wayfinding

CAST. (2018). Universal design for learning (UDL) guidelines. Retrieved from http://www.cast.org/our-work/about-udl.html

CAST. (2021). Universal design for learning. Retrieved from https://www.cast.org/

Castillo-Merino, M., González-Gómez, D., & Rebollo-Catalán, Á. (2016). Technology-enhanced inclusive education: A review of literature and design considerations. In CSEDU (1, 135-142).

Center for Inclusive Design and Environmental Access. (2009). Inclusive design guidelines for students with physical disabilities in post-secondary education. University at Buffalo, The State University of New York.

Centre for Excellence in Universal Design (2018). Clear Print and Signage. Retrieved from http://universaldesign.ie/What-is-Universal-Design/Areas-of-Universal-Design/Digital-Environment/Clear-Print-and-Signage/ (access:2018/January/1).

Cologon, K., Foster, S., & Stokeld, A. (2016). Listening to students with disabilities talk about their wellbeing: Toward student-driven indicators of inclusive education. *Journal of Intellectual & Developmental Disability, 41*(3), 209-219.

Council for Exceptional Children (CEC). (n.d.). Self-determination. Retrieved from https://www.cec.sped.org/~/media/Files/PDF/Self-Determination_FactSheet.pdf

Darling-Hammond, L., Barron, B., Pearson, P. D., Schoenfeld, A. H., Stage, E. K., Zimmerman, T. D., ... & Tilson, J. L. (2008). *Powerful learning: What we know about teaching for understanding*. John Wiley & Sons.

Department of Education and Training Victoria. (2016). Building inclusive schools: A guide to supporting students with disability. Retrieved from https://www.education.vic.gov.au/Documents/school/principals/management/buildinginclusiveschools.pdf (access: 2016 no date)

Department of Education. (2016). Designing Spaces for Learning: Designing schools with students in mind. Retrieved from https://www.education.ie/en/Publications/International-Section/design-for-learning.pdf (access: 2016 no date)

Disability Discrimination Act. (2005). Access to premises. Retrieved from https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2005/13/section/20

EdWeek Research Center. (2021). What teachers need to make remote learning work. Retrieved from https://www.edweek.org/leadership/teachers-voice-2021-what-teachers-need-to-make-remote-learning-work/2021/01

Florian, L., & Black-Hawkins, K. (2011). Exploring inclusive pedagogy. *British Educational Research Journal, 37*(5), 813-828.

Government of Western Australia. (2019). Design guidelines for Western Australian schools. Retrieved from https://www.education.wa.edu.au/__data/assets/pdf_file/0004/383440/Jan20-Schedule-3-Design-Requirements.pdf

Graham, L. J. (2020). Theorizing inclusive education: struggles and debates about a contested concept. Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 1-15.

Gurin, P., Dey, E. L., Hurtado, S., & Gurin, G. (2002). Diversity and higher education: Theory and impact on educational outcomes. *Harvard Educational Review, 72*(3), 330-366.

Halawah, I. (2016). Creating an inclusive classroom environment. *European Scientific Journal, 12*(21), 469-487.

Hammond, J. (2014). Creating an inclusive learning environment enables educators to adapt their teaching strategies to address the diverse learning styles and needs of all students. *Journal of Inclusive Education, 18*(5), 532-547.

Hamre, B. K., & Pianta, R. C. (2001). Early teacher-child relationships and the trajectory of children's school outcomes through eighth grade. *Child development, 72*(2), 625-638.

Hodkinson, A., & Vickerman, P. (2009). *Key issues in special educational needs and inclusion*. Routledge.

Human Rights Education Associates. (n.d.). Participation of children. https://www.hrea.org/childrens-rights/right-to-participation/

International Federation of Library Associations and Institutions (IFLA). (2015). IFLA/UNESCO School Library Manifesto. Retrieved from https://www.ifla.org/publications/iflaunesco-school-library-manifesto-1999 (access: 2007/March/23)

Jayawardena, A., & Rennie, L. J. (2013). *Diversity and inclusive education in Canadian schools: A critical introduction*. Oxford University Press.

Johnson, D., & Johnson, R. (2014). Cooperative learning in 21st century classrooms. *International Journal of Education Research and Development, 3*(1), 1-10.

Kane, R., Lloyd, M., & Paterson, K. (2014). Transitioning towards an inclusive university: An exploration of academic staff attitudes, perceptions, and practices. *International Journal of Inclusive Education, 18*(12), 1280-1301.

Kavale, K. A., & Forness, S. R. (1999). What definitions of learning disability say and don't say: A critical analysis. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 32*(4), 305-318.

Kozleski, E. B. (2003). Inclusive education and school restructuring. *American Educational Research Journal, 40*(4), 767-804.

Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). But that's just good teaching! The case for culturally relevant pedagogy. *Theory into Practice, 34*(3), 159-165.

Majoko, T. (2018). Teachers' Concerns about Inclusion in Mainstream Early Childhood Development in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Special Education, 33*(2), 343-365.

McLeskey, J., & Waldron, N. L. (2000). *Inclusive schools in action: Making differences ordinary*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD).

National Autism Center. (2015). A systematic review of the literature on evidence-based instructional strategies for students with ASD. Retrieved from http://www.nationalautismcenter.org (access: 2015/Jan/18)

National Center for Learning Disabilities. (n.d.). Get involved. Retrieved from https://www.ncld.org/get-involved/

National Center for Universal Design in Education. (2014). Incorporating ramps alongside stairs can ensure that individuals with mobility challenges have equal opportunities to learn and access educational facilities.

National Center on Universal Design for Learning. (2014). Universal Design for Learning (UDL) Guidelines. Retrieved from http://www.cast.org/our-work/about-udl.html

National Center on Universal Design for Learning. (2017). Postsecondary Essentials. Center for Applied Special Technology. Retrieved from http://www.ahead.org/uploads/assets/assets/inclusive-post-secondary-education/toolkit/national-center-on-universal-design-for-learning-postsecondary-essentials.pdf

National Center on Universal Design for Learning. (2021). What is UDL? Retrieved from http://www.udlcenter.org/implementation/family-community/parents

National Council on Disability. (2011). National disability policy: A progress report. Retrieved from https://ncd.gov/publications/2011/(access: 2011/Sept /27).

Oc, B., Tüzün, H., & Yildirim, S. (2019). The influence of signage on the perception of buildings: A case study in Turkey. *Journal of Environmental Psychology, 61*, 1-9.

OECD. (2013). *Innovative learning environments*. Paris: OECD Publishing.

OECD. (2015). *Students with disabilities, learning difficulties and disadvantages: Policies, statistics and indicators*. Paris: OECD Publishing.

Page, A., Anderson, J., & Charteris, J. (2021). Including students with disabilities in innovative learning environments: a model for inclusive practices. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 1-16.

Rutland, A., Cameron, L., Milne, A., & McGeorge, P. (2005). Social norms and self-presentation: Children's implicit and explicit intergroup attitudes. *Child Development, 76*(2), 451-466.

Salamanca World Conference on Special Needs Education 1994. (1994). *World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality; Salamanca, Spain, 7-10 June 1994*. Unesco.

Smith, A. (2018b). The impact of technology on inclusive learning environments in primary education. *International Journal of Educational Technology, 20*(3), 123-145.

Smith, P. (2018a). *Managing inclusive education*. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

The Dakar Framework for action. *Unesco*, *April*, 26–28.

   http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001211/121147e.pdf

The Understood Team. (2021). Setting Up an Inclusive Classroom. Retrieved from https://www.understood.org/en/school-learning/for-educators/universal-design-for-learning/video-setting-up-an-inclusive-classroom (access: 2021/October/22)

Tindal, G., Sáenz, L. M., Nese, J. F., Elliott, S. N., Sáens, R. D., & Zabala, J. (2016). Instructional and assessment priorities for students with disabilities: A national study. *Remedial and Special Education, 37*(4), 231-243.

Tomlinson, C. A., Brighton, C., Hertberg, H., Callahan, C. M., Moon, T. R., Brimijoin, K., Conover, L. A., & Reynolds, T. (2003). Differentiating instruction in response to student readiness, interest, and learnings profile in academically diverse classrooms: A review of literature. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, *27*(2-3), 119-145.

UN. (2016). Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Retrieved from https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities.html (access: 2016/ no date).

UNESCO. (2005). Guidelines for inclusion: Ensuring access to education for all. Retrieved from https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000143781 (access: 2005/ no date).

UNESCO. (2017). Education for people and planet: Creating sustainable futures for all. UNESCO. [Online] Available at: https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000247625 (access: 2017/no date).

UNESCO. (2019). Inclusive Education: The Way of the Future. Retrieved from https://en.unesco.org/themes/inclusion-in-education (access: 2019/no date).

UNICEF (2016). Creating inclusive learning environment: A guide for teachers. Retrieved from https://www.unicef.org/education/files/Creating_Inclusive_Learning_Environments.pdf (access:2016/no date).

United Nations. (2006). Convention on the rights of persons with disabilities. Retrieved from https://www.un.org/development/desa/disabilities/convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities.html (access:2006/no date).